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CHAPTER I.

VOYAGES AND TRAVELS.

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THE works produced during the last year in this important and most interesting department of general knowledge are, with few exceptions, by no means of first rate consequence. The most valuable are translations from the French and German; for the list of native English authors is singularly deficient both in numbers and merit. The account by Mr. Sauer, of commodore Billings's unsuccessful attempt to explore the Arctic and Tatarian seas, and the travels of Acerbi into Sweden and Lapland, although written originally in the English language, are rather to be considered as the contributions of foreigners than the produce of our native literature. The publication, by the society for exploring the interior of Africa, of the intelligence received from its emissary Hornemann, is rather calculated to excite than to satisfy the public curiosity: in the most important part, his journal is both inconsistent with itself and contradictory to the report of Mr. Browne. The voyages of Mr. Mackenzie are of more consequence, though not so satisfactory as might have been expected. By combining his researches with those of Mr. Hearne, it is rendered highly probable that the northern regions of the American continent do not advance nearly so far into the circum-polar sea as the projecting parts of Asiatic Russia. The geography of the great Slave-lake and its vicinity is also considerably illustrated; and the practicability of a passage across the great ridge of the stony mountains from Canada to the Pacific Ocean is fully ascertained.

Of the translations from the French and German, the relation of Marchand's voyage round the world, though containing some matters of general interest, is chiefly valuable to professional men. Sonnini and Olivier have communicated much information, and in an engaging manner, concerning the Turkish empire; especially its natural history, the customs and domestic economy of its inhabitants,



the personal and political subjugation of the Greeks, and the ominous weakness of its administration. Denon has afforded us a lively and interesting sketch of the military events in Upper Egypt, resulting from the invasion of that province by the French; and has ably availed himself both of the pencil and the pen in describing the colossal remains, the eternal monuments, which attest the high and antient civilization of the valley of the Nile. Professor Pallas has thrown a new light on the mineralogy and other departments of the natural history of southern Russia; and the lively, the good-humoured, the entertaining travels of Fischer, reflect, in an enchanting camera obscura, the characteristic features of Spanish scenery and Spanish manners.

ART. I. *A Voyage round the World, performed during the Years 1790, 1791, and 1792, by ETIENNE MARCHAND, preceded by an historical Introduction, and illustrated by Charts, &c. Translated from the French of C. P. CLARET FLEURIEU, of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences, and of the Board of Longitude of France.* 2 vols. 4to. 1100 pages; also another edition, 2 vols. 8vo. 1400 pages.

THE careful narrator of this voyage has prefixed to his work an historical introduction, extended through nearly 200 pages of the translation, in which he has given a summary of the various attempts which different nations have made within the last 250 years, that is to say, from the expedition of Cortes, towards an examination of the north-west coast of America. In reverting to these antient discoveries, which first brought us acquainted with that part of the new continent, M. Fleurieu endeavours also to ascertain what motive determined each expedition, in what respect the immediate object of discovery was attended with success, and in what particulars it failed: he marks the successive advances which geography has made, and apportioned to countries and commanders, with fidelity and impartiality, the honours and the merits to which they are respectively entitled.

A few furs were procured by the crew of captain Cook, during their stay in Prince William's Sound and in Cook's River, from the Indians in exchange for European commodities of insignificant value; and these furs being carried to China, and sold at exorbitant prices, suggested to captain King (who on the death of captains Cook and Clerke had succeeded to the command) that great advantages might be derived from a voyage taken to that part of the American coast, purely for commercial purposes. If we are indebted to captain King for opening to us a new source of commerce with China, the fur trade, we

are indebted to the expeditions which the largely estimated profits of that trade provoked, for much of the geographical knowledge of the north-west coast of America. Competitors in this new speculation arose in three quarters of the globe: Europe, by means of the ports of England, America by those of the United States, and Asia by those of Bengal and Bombay. If even Spain and Portugal could rouse themselves, and prepare for making expeditions, the government of France, to use the words of M. Fleurieu, "intent on every thing that could give, at the same time, more activity to the national commerce, and more extension to the navigation of the French, could not behold with indifference the general movement which was preparing in foreign trade, and this common and simultaneous direction of all these speculations towards the same object."

France, however, before she would embark in a speculation where there were so many competitors, thought it prudent that the north-west coast of America should be visited by vessels belonging to the state, in order to make a deliberate and unprejudiced estimate of the advantages that she was likely to reap from engaging in the rivalry. To the general instructions of La Perouse, who was then about to commence his disastrous expedition, were superadded particular injunctions to survey the north-west coast of America; and of that coast, most carefully to visit the parts comprised between the latitude 49° and 51°, where the per-

severing efforts of captain Cook had been so constantly baffled by the winds, that he had not been able to examine any other point than Nootka.

La Perouse sailed from Brest in 1785: he applied himself assiduously to the object of his voyage: he discovered a fine harbour in  $58^{\circ} 40'$ ; some extensive lands detached from the continent, between  $54^{\circ}$  and  $42^{\circ}$ ; and to the eastward of those lands, admiral de Fuente's archipelago of San Lazaro. But the voyage of the unfortunate Perouse is published, and his discoveries are known: we have merely introduced his name, and the secondary object of his expedition, the obtaining some information on the subject of the fur trade, as they were connected, and led to the patriotic enterprize of the present circumnavigator.

It is asserted by M. Fleurieu, that the Nootka Sound company of London, formed for the purpose of establishing a regular trade between the north-west coast and China, had in the beginning kept an interested silence in regard to the success of the expeditions of captains Portlock and Dixon, (two experienced officers who had served under captain Cook), Colnett, and Duncan. Those of captain Meares, who sailed from Calcutta, and of other navigators, were not yet known; and the uncertainty respecting the fate of La Perouse, had suspended the publication of his voyage, which it was still hoped he would publish himself. M. Etienne Marchand, however, on his return from Bengal, met with captain Portlock in the road of St. Helena, and received from him every desirable information relative to the trade of the north-west coast, and the profits which might be expected from it, if a ship carried her cargoes of furs to China, and having there met with an advantageous market for them, secured a cargo for her return to Europe. On his arrival at Marseilles, the French captain communicated the important information to the mercantile house of Baux, who with an alacrity which did them honour, immediately suggested the expedition, the particulars of which are related in these volumes, and who opened at their own hazard a new channel of commerce to their countrymen. A ship was constructed of 300 tons burden, and so early as the month of June 1790, every thing was prepared for the equipment; but the dispute which very unseasonably arose at

that time, between Spain and England, concerning the property of Nootka Sound, and which threatened both Europe and America, made it necessary to suspend the expedition. Affairs, however, being soon afterwards amicably settled between the powers of Europe, the project was resumed, and captain Etienne Marchand sailed in the *Solide*, from the harbour of Marseilles, on the 14th of December 1790.

We are concerned to say, that M. Fleurieu has not been able to enrich his narrative with any part of the journal of captain Marchand himself.

"That estimable navigator, after having happily brought back the *Solide* into one of our ports of the Mediterranean, took the command of another ship, bound to the Isle of France, (where he ended his days); and I am ignorant into whose hands his papers may have fallen. But if we have to regret the particular remarks which his own journal might contain, we may consider ourselves as indemnified by the possession of that of captain Chanal, who had been, during the course of the voyage, personally charged with all the surveys that were made, whether of the islands discovered or visited in the great ocean, or of the parts of the north-west coast of America, where the *Solide* traded for furs. Captain Marchand and captain Chanal made to each other daily, a reciprocal communication of their astronomical observations, and of the results which they had drawn from them; and both were inserted, according to their date, in captain Chanal's journal: the latter has, besides, added to his narrative the plans of the harbours and coasts which he himself drew. This journal, kept with method, and presenting in the best order all the incidents of the voyage, unites to the log-book, hourly transcribed, every particular relative to navigation, which the curious reader seeks and wishes to find in a sea journal; and, what is no less valuable, the simple and faithful exposition of every fact, and a picture drawn from nature of men and things, seen without prejudice, and without system."

It appears to have been the intention of captain Marchand, to have proceeded directly from the Cape de Verd islands to the north-west coast of America, a passage of above 4000 leagues, without touching at any port! This project, which seems to have been entertained from a motive of mere vanity, for the purpose of overcoming a difficulty which involved no inconvenience, and the conquest of which would therefore have been attended with no advantage,

was, however, obliged to be abandoned in consequence of the putrescent state of the water, in the casks, towards the middle of May; he shaped his course, therefore, for the islands called Las Marquesas de Mendoza, situated in the parallel of  $10^{\circ}$  south, and about the 141st meridian from Paris. On the 14th of June the *Solide* came to anchor in the bay of La Madre de Dios: part of the crew went ashore on the island Santa Christina, where they were received with caresses by the natives, with whom they bartered for whatever commodities they wanted.

M. Fleurieu takes the opportunity whilst our voyager is at anchor, to enter elaborately upon a general description of the Marquesas, and a particular one of the island of Santa Christina or Wahitôt: he gives an account of the soil, productions, animals, and climate of the island; describes the inhabitants, their persons, dress, and ornaments; their food, industry, manners, characters, customs, &c. &c. This account is drawn up from the narratives of the Spaniards, the English, and the French. The coincident remarks of captain Cook, Messrs. George and Reinhold Forster, captain Chanal, and surgeon Roblet, are noticed; and when any variations occur in their accounts, such variations are reasoned upon, and generally they are satisfactorily reconciled. This digression, for it cannot be considered as strictly relevant to the narrative of the voyage, is ably executed, and very interesting. All agree that the native Mendoçans surpass every other nation in the regularity of their features, the symmetry of their proportions, and the masculine beauty of their limbs. If voyagers have not exaggerated the admiration with which they were struck at the sight of the Mendoçans, we shall think with them that sculpture might take her models at Santa Christina; she would there find Hercules, Antinous, and Ganymede. As to the females, the softness of their skins, their light, graceful motions, the elegance of their form, the easy melting outline, the harmony of their whole contour, and superadded to this assemblage of voluptuous attractions, the fascination of their smiles, and the witchery of their little playful manœuvres, seemed to have called into action all the gallantry of the crew.

The Mendoçan belles are not singular in the liberality with which they confer their favours: we know from the authority of captain Cook, and of others, that in many islands of the Pacific Ocean, or as it is here called the Great Ocean, women seem to consider the offer of their persons to strangers, whom they never saw before, as the mere ordinary pledge of hospitality. There is a circumstance more important, in which navigators who have visited these islands are agreed, namely, that the inhabitants are generally mild in their manners, and friendly in their disposition.

Surgeon Roblet, and captain Chanal, each compiled a separate vocabulary of Mendoçan words, and M. Fleurieu has added a third column, in which are a few words of the same language corresponding to some in the preceding columns, given, upon the authority of captain Cook, according to the English pronunciation.

"The language of the inhabitants of Santa Christina, has the greatest affinity to that of the Society Islands, or rather is the same tongue: which proves that although the two archipelagoes are separated by a space of sea of two hundred and sixty leagues, and although it is presumable that their canoes do not maintain between them an habitual communication, the people who inhabit them must have had a common origin: a native of the Society Islands, who was embarked in the *Resolution*, conversed fluently with the natives of La Madre de Dios; but captain Cook says that the English, who must in their visits to Tahitee have acquired a knowledge of most of the words spoken there, could never succeed in making themselves understood at Santa Christina. \*"

From the anchorage in the bay of La Madre de Dios, there was perceived on the horizon to the west north-west, and north-west by west, a fixed spot which presented the appearance of the summit of a lofty peak: on the next day the same appearance was observed, and it was naturally supposed, although no chart indicates any, and no voyager mentions any, that this spot must be land. On the 20th of June Captain Marchand set sail from the bay, and steered according to the bearing which he had taken, and discovered a new group of islands forming but one archipelago with the Marquesas de Mendoza: these he ex-

\* Cook's second Voyage, vol. i. page 308.

amined and has described, the principal one particularly, which, in honour of the commander, the officers of the *Solide* called *Ile Marchand*. The discovery of this group adds one to the numerous opportunities, none of which M. Fleurieu suffers to escape him, of mentioning captain Cook. It is impossible even for an Englishman to feel a higher respect, one might almost say veneration, towards this undaunted, scientific navigator, and excellent man, than appears to be impressed upon the mind of the able editor of the work which now lies before us. Instead of making it a matter of triumph that this group had escaped the English captain, and instead of indulging any little national pride that they were discovered by the subsequent fortune of his countrymen, he anticipates our surprise, and accounts, not less honourably because truly, for the escape of this group from the observations of Mendana and Cook; who both put into the bay of La Madre de Dios. In the first place captain Marchand was singularly fortunate in the weather: in the seas situated between the tropics where the heat is constant, it is by no means usual to have an horizon sufficiently free from vapours to afford a possibility of distinguishing a small island from a small cloud, or even to perceive it. In the next place the courses which these two navigators steered on quitting the bay, did not put them in a track which could lead them to the discovery. This group of islands, called by M. Marchand *Isles de la Revolution*, occupies  $1^{\circ} 42'$  in latitude and  $44'$  only in longitude, and uniting it to that of the Mendoza islands, it will form an archipelago which will occupy  $2^{\circ} 40'$  in latitude and  $1^{\circ} 47'$  in longitude. The middle of Marchand's island in situation is  $9^{\circ} 21'$  south latitude, and  $142^{\circ} 19'$  west longitude.

On the 12th of August the *Solide* dropped her anchor in the bay of Guadelupa, or Norfolk Sound, after two hundred and forty-two days navigation from the time of her departure from France, of which ten only had been spent at anchor! In this bay, which the natives call Techinkitanay, the captain begun his traffic for furs: the market was well supplied; several beautiful otter-skins, and others of an inferior quality, were purchased, in exchange for pots, pans, and various other utensils and toys. European cloths, however, were in the greatest repute, and otter skins of the first quali-

ty were only to be obtained in exchange for these. Almost all the garments which the natives wore were of English manufacture; these, however, it is conjectured, were brought thither by some vessel belonging to the United States, two copper coins of the province of Massachusetts being recognized while ornamenting the ears of a young man. During the few days which captain Marchand spent at this anchorage he purchased 100 prime otter skins, the greater part raw or half dressed; 250 cub otter skins of a light colour; 36 whole bear skins, and 13 half skins; a considerable quantity of otter skins cut into stripes of an inferior quality, the greater part of them much worn, which might be estimated at 150 skins; 37 seal skins; 60 skins of beavers, racoons, and other animals; a bag containing a few squirrel skins and several otters' tails; a carpet of marmot or mountain rat skins; another carpet composed partly of marmot skins, partly of bear skins.

M. Fleurieu now enters into an elaborate description of the Techinkitanayans, of their arts, their industry, their tools, their manners, customs, and characters; a considerable portion of these physical and moral observations are offered by surgeon Roblet, whose science as a naturalist has much contributed to enrich these volumes. Leaving Techinkitanay, captain Marchand directed his course towards Nootka Sound, reconnoitering in his way Queen Charlotte's islands, and trading for furs with various success. Although our English navigators have frequently touched at these islands, much novel information respecting the manners and habits of the natives remained to be gleaned. Indeed it must be acknowledged, on comparing the journals of captain Douglas and captain Dixon respecting these islands, with that of captain Chanal and surgeon Roblet, that although our navigators discovered the bay and channel and affixed names, yet we are indebted for an account of the productions of the country, and the character of the natives, to the more ample information of the French.

"The natives of this northern part of Queen Charlotte's islands appear endowed with a superior degree of intelligence: an opinion may have been already formed of this from the solidity and arrangement of their habitations; and the make of their canoes, which are no less substantially constructed than skilfully wrought, is another proof of



their spirit of invention and industry. To these qualities, they add foresight: their canoes, when they are not employed afloat, are carefully placed under sheds, and sometimes drawn into the habitation. Their weapons for hunting and their implements for fishing, little different from those of the Techinkitanayans, bespeak pains in the execution. They still employ the paddle to move their canoes; but they have already discovered the utility of the sail, and they have been seen, with the wind aft, to spread a blanket for performing the same office; as they have a spirit of imitation, we may presume that it will not be long before they improve among them the art of rigging and working their little vessels.

"Music seems not to be unknown to these islanders; I am not speaking merely of that chanting, of that music in chorus, which, in some of the tribes of the north-west coast of America, appears to be a species of a religious rite; but surgeon Roblet mentions that he saw, in the habitations, some of those flutes with several pipes, imitating in miniature part of an organ, known among the musical instruments of the ancients, by the name of *Pan's pipe*, and one of the attributes of that divinity. He reckoned on some of those flutes as many as eleven pipes: does this instrument give more than the whole gamut, more than the complete system of seven tones and the octave? Or, what would be more astonishing, is there but one gamut with the half tones necessary for varying modulation?"

To music, these islanders of the north-west coast of America unite some knowledge of architecture, sculpture, and painting: captain Chanal and surgeon Roblet went on shore at North Island in Cox's Channel, and found habitations with two stories, fifty feet in length, thirty-five in breadth, and twelve or fifteen in height: they describe the ingenious and solid frame work and junction of the materials; they describe to us various carved figures of birds, fishes, and other animals; they describe articles of furniture in use among the natives, ornamented with carved work in intaglio and in relief, partly they describe pictures painted on wood, nine feet long by five broad, on which all the parts of the human body, drawn separately, are represented in different colours: in short, so many vestiges of ancient civilization are observable among these savages, as to corroborate the supposition, that these islands of the north-west coast of America were originally peopled from another country. For the purpose of making it appear that that country was Asia, the editor M. Fleurieu has entered into an elaborate and learned discussion, whither we are prohibited

from following him by the necessary limits of our review.

The operations of the fur-trade had been very languid on the northern part of the west coast of Queen Charlotte's island: the English had perhaps exhausted the riches of the country. The hope of procuring furs on the coast of the continent at Nootka Sound, appeared no better founded: these considerations prompted captain Marchand to direct his course towards Berkley Sound, where he assured himself a more abundant harvest: but here he was unfortunate, for the dissipation of the fog which enabled him to steer for the entrance of the sound, discovered to him a three-masted vessel coming out of the harbour where he intended to trade! Having been thus anticipated, he wisely determined, if possible, "to get the start in the markets of China, of the ships which had got the start of him on the coast of America, and to endeavour to compensate for the smallness of the cargo, by the advantageous price that might be obtained for it:" he immediately directed his route for China. On his arrival at Macao, he was informed, that the Chinese government had, under severe penalties, prohibited all introduction of furs into the southern parts of the empire, and particularly that of otter skins: this prohibition, which was supposed to have been made in favour of the Russians, by the new treaty of commerce between the Emperor of China and the Empress of Russia, had already been attempted, without any success, to be evaded by ships from other countries. Thus disconcerted in all his commercial speculations, captain Marchand resolved to proceed without delay to the Isle of France.

In his passage of the China sea, captain Marchand has corrected some hydrographical errors of importance; one in the chart of the China sea by Alexander Dalrymple; another on the general chart of the world by lieutenant Roberts, annexed to captain Cook's third voyage. "The error in Dalrymple's chart lies in the longitude of *Pulo-Sapata*, reverts on that of the *Two Brothers*, and is owing to the difference of meridian on this chart between *Pulo-Sapata* and *Macao* being too great by 50 min. of a degree." "The error in the chart of Cook's third voyage, consists in its placing the *Two Brothers* to the north, about 33 deg. east of *Pulo-Sapata*; whereas, by the route which the Solide follow-

ed, in passing from the former islands to the latter, the *Two Brothers* must be situated to the north about 22 deg. west of *Pulo-Sapata*, nearly in the position in which they are seen in Dalrymple's chart."

After having passed ten weeks at the Isle of France, in order to repair ship, and make preparations for a long voyage, the *Solide* got under way, and came to anchor in the inner road of Toulon, on the 14th of August 1792, having happily completed her voyage round the world.

As to the success of her commercial speculations—baffled at China, "as a sole and wretched resource, the cargo of furs was brought to France. It was immediately sent to Lyons, where the commercial concerns of the place, and the favourable season, might promise no inconsiderable advantages in the sale; but it arrived there only a few days before the period when that unfortunate

city, torn, by civil war, experienced all the horrors of a long siege: in the midst of fire and devastation, the furs belonging to the house of Baux were seized; and, being forgotten under the seals, notwithstanding their remonstrances, which were rendered more urgent by the danger of delay, they became a prey to the worms."

We have already devoted so much space to these volumes, that we can now only allow ourselves to offer a particular recommendation of them to seamen, who will find much useful information as to the velocity and direction of the currents, and their influence on the ship's course: they will find many nautical observations exhibiting much accuracy and science, and will altogether acknowledge, that captain Marchand is an able navigator, and that Monsieur Fleurieu was perfectly qualified to compose the narrative of his voyage.

**ART. II.** *An Account of a Geographical and Astronomical Expedition to the Northern Parts of Russia; by COMMODORE BILLINGS, in the Years 1785 to 1794. The whole narrated from original Papers, by MARTIN SAUER, Secretary to the Expedition, 4to. pages 380, 15 Plates and Maps.*

THE history of this Russian expedition is remarkable: an Englishman's work upon the Russian empire, induced the empress to have her own dominions explored, and the journal of the undertaking is now published in England by an Englishman.

"The extraordinary discoveries of the ever-memorable circumnavigator Cook, inspired all Europe with an enthusiastic desire of being acquainted with the parts of the globe still remaining unknown. Russia, though more interested in these events than any other power, being engaged in different pursuits, did not consider the distant and barren regions belonging to her own empire as of sufficient importance to justify the expense and trouble of exploring them; until the genius of the country was completely roused by the animating intelligence communicated in the "Account of the Russian Discoveries between Asia and America, by the Reverend William Coxe," which the late Catherine the second commanded to be translated for her own perusal, although the original papers were in the archives of the admiralty at St. Petersburg.

"The court of Russia was astonished at the discoveries already made, by its own rising subjects, of islands, and of a continent; of which latter it had indeed an idea, but not the smallest notion of its extent or proximity to its own territories, and only supposed that it might be America. However, these voy-

agers did not ascertain the geographical situations of places, nor explain the advantages that they offered to the country to which they belonged; nor, in short, any thing more than their mere existence.

"The amazing extent of dominion acknowledging the sovereignty of Russia, independent of her late acquisitions by conquest, became now the fashionable topic of conversation at court. Mr. Coxe, being at St. Petersburg, took advantage of the favourable moment to suggest an expedition, to complete the geographical knowledge of the most distant possessions of that empire, and of such northern parts of the opposite continent as captain Cook could not possibly ascertain. The learned Dr. Pallas, then in great favour, undertook to make the necessary representations to her imperial majesty, who, well pleased with the hint, immediately approved of the plan drawn out by these two gentlemen; and count Besborodko was, in consequence, ordered to prepare a mandate for the admiralty: this was in the autumn of the year 1784. Mr. Billings, who had just received a lieutenancy, said, that he had been the astronomer's assistant in captain Cook's last voyage; and he was therefore thought a proper person to conduct the enterprise."

The instructions of her imperial majesty state, that the expedition was designed "for the exact determination of the longitude and latitude of the mouth



of the river Kovima, and the situation of the great promontory of the Tshutski, as far as the East Cape; for forming an exact chart of the islands in the Eastern Ocean extending to the coast of America; in short, for bringing to perfection the knowledge acquired under her glorious reign of the seas lying between the continent of Siberia and the opposite coast of America.

Captain Billings and his company were to proceed by land to Ochotsk. Two vessels were there to be built for his voyage to the Eastern Ocean; while they were preparing, he was to march over to the river Omolon, and from thence proceed to survey the Kovima, and the promontory of the Tshutski to the East Cape; he had therefore two distinct expeditions to attempt.

Nothing worthy of notice occurred on their road to Ochotsk, except, indeed, that admiral Zshemtschuzshnikoff made a point of drinking the king's health at Kazan; such is the orthography of this gentleman's name, that should his majesty be graciously disposed to return the compliment, he would find it very difficult to drink the health of admiral Zshemtschuzshnikoff. The Siberians throughout the whole country are represented as more industrious and independant than the Russian peasantry. A little poem sung by a Yakut Tartar should be quoted:

"In crossing a very boggy spot, our guide sung a melancholy song, which was thus interpreted: 'This is the sad spot that was moistened by the tears of the venerable Tshogonnoi. The worthy old man! most skilful in the chase, and the constant protector of his friend. 'Twas here that, unable to support the fatigues of the journey, his companion, his friend, his last horse, fell. He sat down by the side of his last horse, and vented his anguish in the bitterest of tears: Yes, the bitterest of tears; for he never failed in the duties of a Sochar\*.' He never deserved to weep. (The third day he was relieved by a traveller and assisted home)." The name of the place is Tshogonnoi Utabyta (the tears of Tshogonnoi)."

A few days after their arrival at Ochotsk, they were spectators of a duck chase, which seems to have been upon as extensive a circle of slaughter as one of the great mogul's hunting parties.

"Wednesday the 15th, between three and four o'clock in the morning, the weather being calm and cloudy, about fifty small canoes, with Lamuti, Yakuti, and a few Russians, went out to sea, and returned with the tide at noon, driving before them an immense number of the sea-duck called Turpan. When they were got into the bay of Kutchtui, about a mile from its discharge into the sea, they were surrounded by more than 200 canoes, drawn up in a regular line, forming a crescent. Thus enclosed, the tide left them in about six inches water, and all the canoes were aground. A signal officer (the policy master) appointed by the commandant, gave the word for a general attack, when a scene of the most whimsical confusion ensued. Men, women, and children, plunged in an instant into the water; some armed with short bludgeons, and others with strings and nets. While one knocked on the head all that came in his or her way, others of the same party strung or netted them, all hurly burly, huddling over each other. No field of battle is subject to such a variety of incidents and transitions. An ill-directed blow sometimes lights on the hand of a friend, instead of the head of the foe. Suddenly the shrieks, scolding, and swearing of the women, and wrangling among all, change to peals of laughter and merriment; and the supplication of the ducks, and the noise of myriads of gulls hovering about, form the strangest medley of sounds, perhaps, that were ever heard. The women caught by far the greater quantity; and the whole number destroyed amounted to more than 6500.

"The Turpan is as large as a domestic duck. The neck short; the bill black, short, and narrow, with a callous knob on the nostrils. The feathers black, with dark grey spots. They moult all the quill feathers at once, and consequently cannot fly; being driven, therefore, into shallow water, they are prevented from effecting their escape by diving, and become an easy prey. They taste very fishy, but make an agreeable change of food for the poor inhabitants. When salted and smoke-dried, they are esteemed an excellent whet, with a dram, before dinner."

There are occasional peculiarities in Mr. Sauer's style, which we should attribute to affectation, if that gentleman had not been so long accustomed to speak a foreign language, that his own is probably not quite familiar to him. The *supplication* of the ducks is one of these objectionable phrases. The word *casque* is used for a grenadier's cap. "Nothing grows within five versts of

\* The Yakuti call themselves Sochu, and the singular is Sochar.

the sea. Here stunted and withered larch trees commence scantily." Fish is the chief food, but the *funny* tribe appear late." Numberless instances of such bloated phraseology might be produced, for which we believe we have assigned the right cause.

The city of Ochotsk is a wretched place. It stands upon a neck of land chiefly composed of sand, shingles and drift wood, the whole thrown up by the surf. The town contains "132 miserable wooden houses, a church and belfry, several rotten store houses, and a double row of shops badly stocked." The air is unwholesome in the extreme. Fogs, mists, and chilling winds constantly prevail. The scurvy rages there with great violence, owing, perhaps, as much to want of cleanliness in the people as to the climate. Every spring is a time of scarcity: the dogs then become so ravenous, that it is not uncommon for them to destroy one another; and the first horses that arrive are generally torn to pieces. What a picture! The roasted beef tasted so fishy that the strangers thought it had been basted with train oil. In the afternoon, says Mr. Sauer, we drank tea at the commandant's; this also tasted of fish; and when I mentioned it to our host, he recommended the next cup without cream, which was very good. He told me, that the cattle had been fed for the last ten weeks entirely upon the offals of fish, and that the cows preferred dried salmon to hay.

From this city the party proceeded inland to Virchni Kovima. Mr. Sauer travelled upon a rein-deer, a mode of riding neither safe nor agreeable.

"Having with me the ship-builder and my servant, at three P.M. I left the party, mounted on a beautiful young rein-deer; the saddle placed on its shoulders, without stirrups; no bridle, but a leather thong, about five fathom long, tied round the head of the deer; this is kept in the rider's left hand, that he may prevent its escape if he falls, and, when refreshing, have a little scope to select its food. A strong stick, about five feet long, assists the rider to mount; though the Tungoose, for this purpose, use their bow; standing on the right side of the deer, they put the left leg upon the saddle, lean on the stick with the right hand, and spring up with astonishing apparent ease: we, however, could not effect it by any means without assistance; and, during about three hours travelling, I dare say that we

fell near twenty times. The top of the saddle is square and flat, projecting a few inches over the sides of the deer; the seat is secured by drawing up the calves of the legs towards the thighs, and clinging fast to the projecting parts of the saddle, which at first causes astonishing pain to the thighs: by the third day, however, I became a very expert rider; the ship-builder could not manage it at all, and went for the most part on foot; of course my travelling was not very expeditious."

Our author crossed the track of country over which the Tungoose wander. He asked them, why they had no settled places of residence? They answered, that they knew no greater curse than to live in one place like a Russian or Yakut, where filth accumulates, and fills the habitation with stench and disease. The savages' reply, was more reasonable than Mr. Sauer's own reflection, "the romantic desolation of the scenes that frequently surrounded me, elevated my soul to a perfect conviction, that man is the lord of the creation!" He arrived at Virchni Kovima on the 28th September. Here they built two vessels to proceed down the river, and were detained eight months. Want of provisions was the first evil they endured; all hands reduced to a sorry pittance of bread and salt. The winter set in with severity: the mercury in their thermometer was frequently frozen. Their spirit thermometer never froze; it varied from 32° to 41° below 0 of Reaumur.

"At 37° it was almost impossible to fell timber, which was as hard as the hatchet, except it was perfectly dry; and in the greatest severity, the hatchets, on striking the wood, broke like glass. Indeed it was impossible to work in the open air, which compelled us to make many holidays much against our inclination.

"The effects of the cold are wonderful. Upon coming out of a warm room, it is absolutely necessary to breathe through a handkerchief; and you find yourself immediately surrounded by an atmosphere, arising from the breath and the heat of the body, which encloses you in a mist, and consists of small nodules of hoar ice. Breathing causes a noise like the tearing of coarse paper, or the breaking of thin twigs, and the expired breath is immediately condensed in the fine substance mentioned above. The northern lights are constant, and very brilliant; they seem close to you, and you may sometimes hear them shoot along; they assume an amazing diversity of shapes; and the Tungoose say, that they are spirits at variance fighting in the air."

The scurvy next attacked. Their beasts suffered still more than themselves. The poor horses employed in dragging timber from the woods, exhibited such a picture of misery as perhaps never before existed; they were fed with brush wood and the tops of willows, having neither grass nor hay: they seldom worked longer than a fortnight, then tired, and died. Mr. Sauer recommends the rich to go there to learn the pleasure and advantage of prayer, and the Jacobins to enjoy liberty and equality! On the 25th of May they left this miserable place, and entered the river Kovima, and on June 24th came into the Icy Sea. Captain Billings proceeded but a little way along the coast: the author, and apparently with good reason, thought it practicable to advance: one of the company, M. Sharetskeff, offered to attempt it in the boat with six hands, designing to sleep on shore every night. Major Shmaleff, the ablest of the party, was for proceeding; but the captain appears to have been deficient in all the requisites for such a command, and he accordingly returned without fulfilling this object of his expedition.

In November they arrived at Yakutsk. Here they met with an extraordinary man, whose after-fate is well known.

"At Yakutsk we found, to our great surprise, Mr. Ledyard, an old companion of captain Billings, in Cook's voyage round the world; he then served in the capacity of a corporal, but now called himself an American colonel, and wished to cross over to the American continent with our expedition, for the purpose of exploring it on foot.

"Captain lieutenant Bering, who had been sent the 12th of February last from the Kovima, to superintend the forwarding the necessities for the expedition to Ochotsk, was also here. He had forwarded many articles during the summer, and sent some of the anchors and heavy baggage to the river Mayo, to be transported to Yudomski Krest by the water communication. The guns, medicines, sailors' clothing, &c. weighing upwards of 100 tons, still remained at Irkutsk, where they had lain ever since last winter.

"Captain Billings resolved to go himself to Irkutsk to see these articles forwarded down the Lena, so soon as the river should open in the spring. Accordingly, on the 29th December, he set out with carriages on sledges, which we had made on purpose. Mr. Ledyard, Robeck, Lemun, his first mate, and I, accompanied him; the Russian

secretary, and several necessary hands, were ordered to follow with all possible speed.

"We arrived the 16th January 1788, and I took up my abode with my friend brigadier Troepolski.

"In the evening of the 24th February, while I was playing at cards with the brigadier and some company of his, a secretary belonging to one of the courts of justice came in, and told us, with great concern, that the governor-general had received positive orders from the empress, immediately to send one of the expedition, an Englishman, under guard to the private inquisition at Mosco; but that he did not know the name of the person, and that captain Billings was with a private party at the governor-general's. Now, as Ledyard and I were the only Englishmen here, I could not help smiling at the news, when two hussars came into the room, and told me that the commandant wished to see me immediately. The consternation into which the visitors were thrown is not to be described. I assured them that it must be a mistake, and went with the guards to the commandant. Here I found Mr. Ledyard under arrest. He told me, that he had sent for captain Billings, but he would not come to him. He then began to explain his situation, and said that he was taken up as a French spy, whereas captain Billings could prove the contrary; but he supposed that he knew nothing of the matter, and requested that I would inform him. I did so; but the captain assured me, that it was an absolute order from the empress, and he could not help him. He, however, sent him a few rubles, and gave him a pelisse; and I procured him his linen quite wet from the wash-tub. Ledyard took a friendly leave of me, desired his remembrance to his friends, and, with astonishing composure, leaped into the kibitka, and drove off, with two guards, one on each side. I wished to travel with him a little way, but was not permitted. I therefore returned to my company, and explained the matter to them; but, though this eased their minds with regard to my fate, it did not restore their harmony. Ledyard's behaviour, however, had been haughty, and not at all condescending, which certainly made him enemies."

They proceeded to Ochotsk in September, and finding that their ships could not be ready for sea before the following July, returned to winter at Yakutsk. Here the author employed himself in collecting information concerning the tribe of the Yakuts, or Socha, as they call themselves. The ceremony of consecrating their Koumiss is curious.

"The mares having cast, a short time is allowed the colts to suck, that they may acquire strength; they are then tied up, or

pent up in coops about the hut, to prevent their sucking at will; which is only allowed twice a day, when the mares are milked. The milk is collected in symirs, or large leather buckets, formed like a bottle, wide at bottom, and narrow at the top, each containing about an anker; into this a small piece of the stomach of a calf or colt is thrown, and some water mixed with it. It is then kept in constant agitation by a broad-ended stick, until it ferments, and acquires an agreeable acidity, which is very nourishing; and if taken in great quantities, it has an intoxicating quality. Of this drink, which they call koumis, every one collects as much as he can; and some of the chiefs obtain more than 500 ankers of it. A day is then fixed upon by each chief to consecrate his stock, which is performed as follows:

"A summer hut is built of thin poles of a conical form, covered with the inner bark of birch, on some extensive meadow. It is ornamented inside and out with branches of the birch tree, and a hearth is made in the centre. Relations and acquaintances are invited to the banquet; but all guests are welcome of every nation indiscriminately. The magicians take the head seats; others are seated according to the estimation of their seniority.

"When the hut is full, the elder shaman rises, and commands one of the socha that he knows to be qualified (namely, that has not seen a corpse within the month, and that has never been accused of theft, or bearing false witness against any body, which defiles them for ever, and renders them unqualified for this sacred and solemn task) to take a large goblet, called a tshoron, which is used to drink out of on solemn occasions, and fill it with koumis out of the first symir; then to place himself before the hearth, with his face to the east, holding the tshoron to his breast about two minutes. He then pours koumis three times on the hot embers, as an offering to Aar Toyon. Turning a very little to the right, he pours three times to Kuhey Chatoon; then to the south he offers in the same manner to each of the benevolent gods. With his face to the west, he pours three times to the 27 tribes of aerial spirits; and three times to the north to the eight tribes of the pit, and to the manes of their departed sorcerers. After a short pause, he concludes his libation by an offering to Enachsys, the cowherdess. The sorcerer then turns the man with his face to the east, and commences a prayer aloud, thanking the godhead for all favours received, and soliciting a continuance of their bounty. On concluding his prayer, he takes off his cap, with which he fans himself three times, and cries out aloud, "Oorui!" (grant) which is repeated by all present. The elder shaman then, taking the tshoron, drinks a little, and hands it to his brethren of the same order; from whom it passes to the company as they sit,

except such as are defiled. Women are not admitted into the hut; nor are they, or the disqualified, allowed any of the koumis out of the first symir, which they call sanctified, as possessing the power of purifying and strengthening in a divine sense.

"They all now go out of the hut, and seat themselves on the strewed branches of birch, in half circles, fronting the east. All the symirs are carried out, and placed between the branches of trees stuck in the earth, and they commence drinking; every crescent having their symirs, tshoron, and presiding shaman, who fills the goblet, and pushes it about with the course of the sun. The quantity that they drink is incredible. Tournaments now begin, wrestling, running, leaping, &c.; and if any one carry off the prize in all the achievements, he is esteemed as particularly favoured by the deities, and receives more respect and credit in his testimony than falls to the lot of a common man. When the ceremony is finished, they mount their horses, forming half circles, drink a parting draught, and, wheeling round with the sun's course, ride home."

The strangest of their superstitions is with regard to name. Every Yakut bears two names, and is never called by the right, except in cases of necessity; thus they think they evade the search of the evil spirits bent on tormenting them, as if the devil could be cheated by an alias! The more insignificant a name is, the better they think it, for an elegant name would entice the demon to be perpetually about the child. They never mention the dead, except allegorically, and they leave the hut to ruins wherein any one has expired, thinking it the habitation of demons. Their polytheism is less absurd than that of more polished idolaters.

"BURIALS.—The corpse is first dressed in the best apparel of the deceased, and stretched out; the arms tied tight round the waist; then enclosed in a strong box, with the knife, flint, steel, and tinder; also some meat and butter, "that the dead may not hunger on the road to the dwelling of souls." A shaman presides; the wives and relations accompany the procession to a certain distance; the favourite riding-horse of the deceased is saddled and accoutred, with hatchet, palma, kettle, &c. and led to the place of interment, as is also a fat mare. Two holes are dug under some tree; then the horse is killed, and buried in one, while the corpse is laid in the other. The mare is killed, dressed, and eaten by the guests; the skin suspended on the tree, under which the body lies, with the head to the west. The shaman takes his tambour, and invokes the demons to let the spirits of the departed rest in peace, and

finishes the ceremony by filling up the grave. A shaman is buried with the same ceremony, and his tambour with him."

It is not many years since, a madman in this country, ordered by will that his horse should be killed and buried with him, that he might be mounted at the resurrection!

By the latter end of August both their ships were finished, and ready for sea. The largest was safely carried out of harbour. Captain Billings, with his usual obstinacy, insisted that the other vessel should come out at the spring tide. It then was a heavy swell right on shore, in consequence she struck, and was lost. The resolution was immediately taken to sail in one ship to Kamtschatka, and there build a small vessel, during the winter, of the materials of the lost ship; and not having time to break her up, they burnt her, as the quickest method of getting at her iron work.

"The loss of this ship had been foretold by the superstitious inhabitants of the town, from the following remarkable circumstance: in the spring of the year, a flight of crows were fighting in the air, and making a dreadful noise. One of them was killed by the rest, and fell upon the deck of this ship. The whole swarm immediately descended, and entirely devoured the vanquished bird, leaving no other vestiges than the feathers behind. This very remarkable occurrence, which was related by all our officers, workmen, and inhabitants, happened while I was at Yakutsk."

On October 1, they arrived at St. Peter and St. Paul; here, says M. Sauer,

"I was very happy to meet with a number of the acquaintances of my countrymen in captain Cook's expedition. Nothing in nature could be more pleasant than the glow of friendship which animated their countenances with the liveliest expression of sincere regard, when they mentioned the names of King, Bligh, Philips, Webber, and others; names that will be handed down to posterity by tradition in a Kamtschatka song to their ceremony, with a chorus to the tune of *God save the King*; which is frequently sung in perfect harmony, particularly by the family of Veroshagin at Paratouka, by the different branches of which it was made. They deeply lamented the fate of captain Clerke, whose tomb is now graced with an engraving on a sheet of copper, containing a copy of the superscription painted on the board, and suspended on the tree under which he lies buried; with this addition only, 'Erected by Perouse 1787, commander of the expedition from France.' Near

this place is a half-decayed wooden cross, denoting the place of interment of the naturalist De Lisle de la Croycere, who died in commodore Bering's expedition."

Of this very interesting spot a beautiful engraving is given.

On the 1st of May 1790, they once more embarked. No expedition was ever more absurdly fitted out; not one of the common sailors had ever seen a ship before, and only three of the petty officers. The officers of the three watches were men of good sense, but knew little or nothing of navigation; and the captain himself appears to have been deficient in every quality that a sailor ought to possess.

The first place where they landed was Oonalashka. M. Sauer collected what information he could respecting the customs of the natives, but the stupid conduct of the ship's chaplain had made them suspicious and reserved. This man hearing that some of the crew had seen a cave where many carved masks were deposited, went and burnt them all. He then threatened the natives for worshipping idols, and forced many of them to be baptized, telling them they might worship the Trinity, pray to St. Nicholas, and a cross which he hung round their necks, and that they would obtain whatever they asked for. This savage bigot flogged one of his Tartar guides to death, and another to such a degree, that he lost the use of his arm entirely. It was afterwards known that they had not stolen the provision of which they were suspected; the priest remarked, *there was no harm done, they were not christians!* These people are heavily oppressed by the Russian hunters, who send them to the chase when they please, and take from them such women as they like best, and as many as they choose. They embalm their dead with dried moss and grass. A mother will keep the body of her child thus embalmed for some months in her hut, constantly wiping it dry; and they bury it when it begins to smell, or when they are reconciled to parting with it. They have no marriage ceremony, but purchase as many girls as they can keep; if they repent their bargain, the girl is returned, and a part of her price restored.

They have dresses to wear at sea or in wet weather, made of the intestines of sea animals, the bladder of the halibut,



er the skin of the whale's tongue. This has a hood for the head, and is fastened so closely round the neck and wrists that no water can penetrate. Their needles are made of the wing bone of the gull, with a very nice cut round the thicker end instead of an eye, to which they tie the thread so skilfully, that it follows the needle without any obstruction. They make thread from the sinews of the seal, from the fineness of a hair to the size of a moderate cord. All their instruments are made with uncommon skill and symmetry; but their *baidars* or boats are constructed with wonderful ingenuity, and are far superior to those of any other island.

"If perfect symmetry, smoothness, and proportion, constitute beauty, they are beautiful; to me they appeared so beyond anything that I ever beheld. I have seen some of them as transparent as oiled paper, through which you could trace every formation of the inside, and the manner of the natives sitting in it; whose light dress, painted and plumed bonnet, together with his perfect ease and activity, added infinitely to its elegance. Their first appearance struck me with amazement beyond expression. We were in the offing, eight miles from shore, when they came about us. There was little wind, but a great swell of the sea: some we took on board with their boats; others continued rowing about the ship. Nearer in with the land we had a strong rippling current in our favour, at the rate of three miles and a half, the sea breaking violently over the shoals, and on the rocks. The natives, observing our astonishment at their agility and skill, paddled in among the breakers, which reached to their breasts, and carried the *baidars* quite under water; sporting about more like amphibious animals than human beings. It immediately brought to my recollection, in a very forcible light, Shakespeare's expression—

"He trod the water,  
Whose enmity he flung aside, and breasted  
The surge most swollen that met him."

"These *baidars* are built in the following manner: a keel 18 feet long, four inches thick on the top, not three inches deep, and two inches, or somewhat less, at the bottom. Two upper frames, one on each side, about an inch and a half square, and 16 feet long, join to a sharp flat board at the head, and are about 16 inches shorter than the stern, joined by a thwart which keeps them about 12 inches asunder. Two similar frames near the bottom of the boat, six inches below the upper ones, about one inch square. Round sticks, thin, and about six inches distant from each other, are tied to these frames, and from the sides; for the top thwarts, very strong

sticks, and nearly as thick as the upper frames, curved so as to raise the middle of the boat about two inches higher than the sides. There are 13 of these thwarts or beams: seven feet from the stern is one of them; 20 inches nearer the head is another; a hoop about two inches high is fastened between them, for the rower to sit in. This is made strong, and grooved to fasten an open skin to, which they tie round their body, and it prevents any water getting into the boat, although it were sunk. This frame is covered with the skin of the sea lion, drawn and sewn over it like a case. The whole is so extremely light, even when sodden with water, that it may be carried with ease in one hand. The head of the boat is double the lower part, sharp, and the upper part flat, resembling the open mouth of a fish, but contrived thus to keep the head from sinking too deep in the water; and they tie a stick from one to the other to prevent its entangling with the sea weeds. They row with ease, in a sea moderately smooth, about 10 miles in the hour, and they keep the sea in a fresh gale of wind. The paddles that they use are double, seven or eight feet long, and made equally neat with the other articles."

They next touched at one of the Aleutan islands, where the Russians have an establishment. The population of this and the neighbouring islands consists of about 1,300 grown males, and 1,200 youths, with about the same number of females, now under the direction of Delareff, a Greek, who informed our voyager that he had then 600 double boats of the natives out on the chase for the benefit of the company, each boat containing two or three men, the whole divided into about six parties, each directed by a single Russian. Besides these, small parties are sent out daily to fish. The women are employed in curing and drying fish, in digging, washing, and drying edible roots, in collecting useful plants and berries, and in making dresses for the natives and their Russian master. The men are little satisfied with this state of vassalage, but Shelikoff, who formed the settlement, when he found that they were disposed to resist him, surprised their women as they were gathering berries, and took about 200 as hostages. He exchanged wives for daughters and younger children. The chiefs were thus held in obedience, and the women are perfectly satisfied with the treatment they receive. Formerly every considerable dwelling-place of the natives had large *baidars*, capable of containing 40 or 50 men. Shelikoff purchased all these, and the nation have now



no canoe that can carry more than three persons. The Greek governor is highly commended for the justice and wisdom of his conduct. The hostages are allowed to visit their families in rotation. The young natives are instructed in the Russian language, reading and writing; and the care with which he makes them provide for their winter support, convinces them that the Russians are not their absolute enemies, for they never laid in a winter supply when they were independent. The natives sometimes sacrifice their prisoners. Polygamy is practised; but the most favoured wife is she who has the greatest number of children. Some of the women, dreading the effects of war and the dangers of the chase, bring up their boys in a very effeminate manner, and for a very abominable purpose. They are often drest like women, and taught all their domestic duties. The same vice prevails among the American savages, and with the same custom, and probably maternal fear is the cause.

They proceeded to Prince William's Sound: here Mr. Sauer went on board alone in a *baidar*.

"I left the ship at one o'clock, and paddled with the tide at the rate of about eight miles in the hour, without paying any attention to the distance. On attempting to return, I found the tide too strong against me. I did not see a single native any where, nor any traces of them, and resolved to enter a small cove to wait the return of tide, and to get a draught of fresh water from a brook that I observed. After entering a small inlet, I discovered that my retreat was cut off by some of the natives. My dress was a nankeen jacket and trowsers; and I had a few clasp knives and beads in my pocket, which I gave the natives; particularly a woman whom I observed amongst them in a nankeen cumley, and who addressed me, to my astonishment, in the Russian language; which rather increased the uneasy situation that I found myself in, on account of the complaints that they had made, on board, of Polutoff's company. I found, however, no great difficulty in persuading her that I was not a Russian. She gave me a bowl of water, and treated me with berries upon which the oil of seals had been poured. She told me, that Polutoff had taken her away by force, and kept her above a year, till she had learned the Russian language. After that, she associated with Zaikoff, and returned to the Sound, making herself their interpreter. She said, that Zaikoff, who was a very good man, and behaved well to every body, had favoured her escape, and that they had been well re-

venge upon Polutoff and his crew; for that a boat from each of the vessels had been on shore to cut wood, and had pitched two tents (one for each company) at a small distance from each other. It was in the autumn; the night was dark; and only one man watched at a fire side, sitting on the beach. The natives crawled, unheard, close to the watch at Polutoff's tent, killed him, and, rushing into the tent, murdered every soul there, without molesting Zaikoff's tent, or any of his people.

"She invited me to their dwelling, and assured me that I should be safe. I asked her how far it was. She said, that if I left the ship at sun-rise I should arrive at her dwelling before sun-set; that the habitation was across the straits at the end of the Sound (pointing to the eastward of the north), near the discharge of a large river. This induced me to ask her, if the land about us constituted any part of the continent. After some conversation between her and the chief, she told me, that the openings were all straits. I promised that I would go with her if they would come on board in the morning for me, and that I would give them beads and other trinkets. At half past three it was high water, and I put off, very well pleased to get away; for they all admired my *baidar* so much, that I was much afraid of losing it, and my sensations, when I first discovered myself in their power, were very unpleasant."

One of the natives who came on board here, then gave an account of the coast, which very much impressed Mr. Sauer, and which the commander ought to have ascertained.

"This native farther told us, that at the north extremity of Kay's Island, there was a bay sheltered from the wind; that at the entrance at low water it was as deep as his double paddle (which is about seven foot); and that there are runs of fresh water into it, but no great rivers. A very considerable river, however, falls into the sea a day's journey north of our anchorage, up which the natives travel 14 days to the residence of a different nation, the people of which supply them with knives, copper kettles, and instruments, and make their canoes. That these people trade with others farther inland, and obtain from them knives and other articles; but that his nation never go farther than 14 day's journey. That the articles of their trade are, the skins of sea lions, for boats; oil of sea animals; small shells; and muscle-shells for points to arrows; and that these were a powerful and warlike people.

"Another observation of his, I think it very necessary to mention: it was a positive assertion, that there were straits and islands as far as we could see; and that to the south-east there was "A GREAT SALT WATER,"

with many entrances to it. I repeatedly asked the question, and could not be mistaken in the answer; and I would most willingly have stayed on the coast alone, to explore these unknown parts from tribe to tribe, until I had lost myself, or found my way to Europe through some of these cranny passages. I am aware that I was thought a madman for it; but this madness, this enthusiastic confidence, would, I am certain, have assisted my success; nor would I have left unexplored a river of which we had such confirmed accounts, without good reason for it; for I never met with any men that would refuse assistance to one individual, who, without the means of being their enemy, was at all times in their power. Over and above all this I declare, that I have complete confidence in a Supreme Being, who governs every thought, and inspires means of expression to secure the devotee in exploring his wisdom.

"I hope that my rhapsodies will not offend my readers: they are notes penned at the instant when my feelings were most acute, and not with a view of making them known to the public on a future day.

"Capt. Billings had received intelligence of this river from Mr. Delareff, the director of Shelikoff's companies at Kadiak, Afognak, and Cook's river; who gave the natives the character of good people; and said, that they ate, drank, and slept together in the most friendly manner; and I firmly believe what he said."

The captain now resolved to return to Kamtschatka to forward the building of the other vessel, without which he did not think it safe to navigate seas so little known. He proposes to employ the whole of the next summer and winter in surveying Cook's river and the continent south of it, and also the chain of islands between America and Asia. The summer following might be appropriated to explore the more northern parts. Mr. Sauer was very reluctant to quit this coast. He offered to remain there alone, and meet Captain Billings the ensuing summer at any part of the coast that he would appoint. This permission the captain very properly refused.

"If I may be allowed to hazard a conjecture of my own concerning the land that he saw, it is, that I do not think any one place, except Mount Saint Elias, constitutes any part of the continent; not even Cape Elizabeth; and I have my doubts of Alaska itself. I think that the whole is formed of a close connected chain of islands, separated by straits from the main land. I observed no change in the colour of the water, however close within shore; which must have been the case had any considerable rivers

fallen into it; but we saw none, and our enquiries do not justify the supposition that rivers exist, except beyond the straits; for the rivers were spoken of by the natives as lying behind the islands. I could not perceive any alteration in the taste of the water, not even where we were at anchor, and it was exceedingly pellucid."

In May 1791 they again set sail from St. Peter and Paul. Captain Hall, who was appointed to the command of the new vessel, which had been built at Neishui, was directed to join them at Bering's Island; but in case they should not meet there by the end of that month, then to proceed to Oonalashka. On their arrival at this latter island they did not find him. Captain Billings then declared that he would give up all thoughts of revisiting the American coast, and make directly for the bay of St. Lawrence, where the Russians had been sent from Achotsk in 1789 to wait his arrival, and he left orders for Captain Hall to follow him.

"Nothing in the world could have afforded me less satisfaction than this resolution, which I regarded as the conclusion of an expedition that was set on foot with unbounded liberality by the most magnanimous sovereign in the world; which had raised the expectation of all nations to the highest pitch, and to induce mankind to anticipate the satisfaction of obtaining the most complete knowledge of the geography of this unknown part of the globe, together with a conviction of the existence or non-existence of a north-west passage. But, alas! after so many years of danger and fatigue; after putting the government to such an extraordinary expence; after having advanced so far in the attempt, even at the very time when we were in hourly expectation of our consort, and, as appeared to me, being just entering upon the grand part of the undertaking, thus to abandon it, was the most unaccountable and unjustifiable of actions.

"The remonstrances of captain Saretsheff at the Kovima, on the Icy Sea, &c. &c. and in fact the representations of every officer who had hitherto presumed to have an opinion, were always treated by the commander with petulant and illiberal retorts. I have, indeed, had too frequent opportunities of observing, that rank and power intoxicate the possessor, unless they have been the reward of real merit, or the consequences of seniority in actual service; in which cases, the value of the authority is known, as wealth gained by labour, and not used as the accidental and unexpected inheritance of a prodigal.

"Excepting captain Billings, Mr. Saretsheff was the only naval officer on board; and I can affirm, that the latter was the only sci-

entific navigator in our expedition: a gentleman, who possessed that particular modesty which is always the companion of merit, with feelings the most acute, refined by true sentiments of honour; to which (at one time at least) he had hopes of adding some lustre in the present undertaking. His duty at length got the better of his feelings so far, as to lead him to ask, whether no other person could be sent by land, while captain Billings himself made a second attempt by sea? And, whether it was absolutely necessary for him (Billings) to go? Receiving only evasive answers, however, he entertained hopes of better success if captain Hall's arrival should strengthen his efforts."

Captain Hall, however, did not arrive, and the commander made sail for the bay of St. Laurence, where he found the two Russians; here he abandoned all the objects of his expedition, and set out with eleven companions to cross the country to the Kovima. Saretsheff was left with the command of the ship, and with orders to sail to Oonalashka, and pass the winter in collecting tribute from the islands, and proceed to Kamtschatka in the spring, where captain Billings said he would join him. Similar orders were left for captain Hall. Saretsheff, therefore returned to Oonalashka. Here captain Hall joined him, having followed Billings to the bay of Lausana. They laid up their vessels for the winter, and made their arrangements to pass it as well as they could in that cold situation. Mr. Sauer, and the purser, built themselves a hut and lined it with whales fins. The other officers and the greater part of the crew retained their births on board. Parties were sent out daily in their boats to collect drift wood for fuel. This, however, was in general so sodden with sea-water that it would not burn, and they were fortunate if during the day they collected a day's supply. The nation expecting their return had dried a quantity of fish, and collected berries. "Here," says the author, "we now formed among ourselves a little republic, in perfect congeniality of sentiment, complete friendship and harmony, equal in our manners and way of living; untroubled by severity, yet observing strict order and subordination."

But the scurvy soon attacked them. Mr. Sauer thought the best way to guard against it was to follow the same mode of living as the natives; he, therefore, made the chief part of his diet consist of

raw fish, muscles and limpets. They used every precaution in their power, beer was brewed, spruce made use of, but with no perceptible effect. At the beginning of 1792 Mr. Sauer was the only one of the company who was in no degree affected. Towards the end of February they died rapidly, sometimes three in a day. In March the wind veered to the southward, the spring vegetables began to appear, and the survivors gradually recovered. When they prepared to leave the island they found that the sails, cordage and rigging of every kind had suffered from the climate also; every thing was quite rotten. In the middle of May they left this place, the grave of seventeen of their stoutest hands, where they had remained eight months and sixteen days.

As they could not enter the port of Ochotsk with their largest vessel, the two captains left her at Kamtschatka, and proceeded there with as many hands as they could take on board the other. Mr. Sauer was one of those who remained, waiting for their deliverance the arrival of the transport ship with the annual supply of provision for the peninsula. Here he received tidings that captain Billings and his company, after the greatest hardships, had arrived at the river Anjarke. The natives had destroyed their measuring lines and their writing materials, they had made no observations whatever. Mr. Sauer was directed to join the commandant at Yakutsk as soon as possible. Before he could depart he felt the shock of an earthquake. On the preceding day, a number of swallows of a species never seen there before, were perceived, flying about as if much frightened, and the inhabitants predicted some remarkable event. The people here seem to have suffered much from their Russian masters. The Kamtschadal is scarcely allowed time in the fishing season to collect a supply of food for his own family.

"In 1768 the small-pox carried off 5,368 of the inhabitants; and since the departure of major Behm, the court of the interior (Zemski Sud) has discovered, that the Kamtschadals are indebted to government the whole tribute for the unfortunate sufferers by that disorder, and lay claims at present for the debt. The natives produce receipts; but are told, that an ukase from Irkutsk claims the payment. They appointed a delegate to lay their grievances at the feet of their sovereign;

he, however, only reached Irkutsk, when he was promised redress, and sent back again: he returned last year, and is the chief of Shapinski village, a very intelligent man, and, I thought, very likely to help me to some information as to their former customs and religion, which are now quite abolished; nor is their language pure.

"He told me that the Kamtschadals called themselves Itolmatsh (he says they are the aborigines of the place), and the descendants of Newsteach or Newchatshatsh, and that their god was Newsteachtshitsh. Koutka is his intelligent spirit, the messenger of vengeance to their tormenting demons, and of the rewards to the spirits of benevolence: he travels about in an invisible carriage drawn by flying animals resembling mice, but smaller than the human mind can conceive, and swift as a flash of lightning. "Our sorcerers (said he) were observers of omens, and warned us of approaching dangers, to avert which, sacrifices were made to the demons: we were then wealthy, contented, and free." He continued his discourse, thus, as nearly as I could translate: "I think our former religion was a sort of dream, of which we now see the reality. The empress is god on earth, and her officers are our tormentors: we sacrifice all that we have to appease their wrath, or wants, but in vain. They have spread disorders among us, which have destroyed our fathers and mothers; robbed us of our wealth and happiness. They have left us no hopes of redress; for all the wealth that we could collect for years would not be sufficient to secure one advocate in our interest, who dares represent our distress to our sovereign."

The salaries of the different officers at Kamtschatka are so low, and the price of every thing so high, that they cannot possibly subsist without increasing their income at the expence of the natives.

"One of the captains of the district, who came here with his wife and family, finding himself extremely distressed, appropriated the tribute of one year to his own use, and wrote a letter to the empress; stating, that the severity of the climate, the prices of every article of life, and the wants of his family, had compelled him to make use of the tribute, consisting of such a number of sables and fox skins for their backs and bellies, which he rather chose to do than rob the poor natives (the only alternative). He requested her pardon, and an appointment where he could live upon his salary; and the industry of his family (of no benefit in Kamtschatka) might help to pay the amount of the articles that he had appropriated to his own use.

The empress ordered the governor to give him such an appointment, and pardoned him on account of the good reasons that he assigned; but this pardon was not to be regarded as a precedent; for such mercy was not to be extended to any future person who should dare to act in the same manner.

At length, in August 1793, M. Sauer embarked for Ochotsk, whence he proceeded immediately to Yakutsk, where he joined captain Billings. In January all the officers of the expedition met together at Irkutsk, and thence returned to Petersburg.

Thus terminated an expedition in which neither time nor expence had been spared, a *nine years* expedition, wherein not one of the points for which it was undertaken was ascertained, except the latitude of the mouth of the Kovima. It was the error of Catharine, and it has ever been the error of all despots, to think that every thing is to be accomplished by their almighty fiat. The great autocratrix had been informed by the printed work of an Englishman, that her subjects had discovered new dominions for her of which she knew nothing, scientific voyages were become fashionable, and she too would send out an expedition of discovery. But Catharine had mistaken her element. Soldiers may be made by a law, but sailors cannot. With the bayonet she could drive her boors upon the bayonet, and conquer by the weight of numbers and mere physical force, but neither her decrees nor her knouts, nor even her honorary titles could never make a navigator. To set up a captain Cook was like her own imitation of Shakespeare. It is easier to destroy than to create. This unhappy woman (for what other epithet can be applied to the *dead* Catharine?) could desolate, but she could not people; she could blast the freedom and the intellectual advancement of Poland, but she could not thaw the icy ignorance of Russia. The luxuries of London and the vices of Paris might be transplanted to Petersburg, and would thrive there, but science is not to be so procured. Fruit may be forced in the hot-house, but they who would rear oaks must be content to plant acorns.

ART. III. *Voyages from Montreal, on the River St. Lawrence, through the Continent of North America, to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans, in the Years 1785 and 1793: with a preliminary Account of the Rise, Progress, and present State of the Fur Trade of that Country: illustrated by Maps.* By ALEXANDER MACKENZIE, Esq. 4to. pp. 544.

OUR earliest travellers were all liars, however they differed in religion, country, or profession, Jew or Friar, Venetian or Englishman; in this propensity they all agreed, and every one adopted and embellished the lie of his predecessors. After Vasco de Gama had explored a way to India, and Columbus had discovered a new world, the accounts of distant countries became more numerous, and assumed a different and more respectable character. The adventurers had so much of what was stimulant as well as true to relate, that there no longer existed any motive or temptation to invent; fiction could not be more novel and scarcely more surprising than truth. In general the missionaries are faithful journalists: allow them their saints, their virgin, and the machinery of miracles, and in all else they may be safely trusted. Some knowledge of this kind ambassadors also have communicated to the world, in times when ambassadors were chosen for their personal qualification, not for their family interest. But the best of these works have been produced by mercantile adventurers. Many of our sailors under Elizabeth and James have left their journals, plain and honest, but most interesting details of dangers encountered by manly courage, and sufferings endured with desperate fortitude. For a while Jewellers were our ablest travellers. Tavernier, Bernier, Chardin have not been excelled. In the beginning of the last century English literature was retrograde: a race of little men had succeeded Taylor and Selden, and Bacon and Milton; in eloquence, in erudition, in philosophy, in poetry, we had declined. Our travellers began to quote the classics, to catalogue pictures, to copy inscriptions, and men of enterprise and observation were followed by antiquarians and dilettanti. Letter-writers and anecdote hunters next had their day, dealers in sentiment and scandal, as liberal in revealing their own virtues and fine feelings, as they were in exposing and exaggerating the defects or follies of those who had hospitably entertained them. Trade had produced travels, and at length to write travels became a trade.

In this branch of literature the present

period excels all former ones: To government we owe the discoveries in the Pacific. To one private society we are indebted for the manly and masterly works of Chandler, to another for Mr. Park's simple and affecting narrative. Even men in high official situations have not thought it beneath them to appear as authors, and missions otherwise unimportant have been thus made of lasting interest. Thus we have obtained a magnificent work upon China, some interesting journals of embassies in India, and the account of the Cape by Mr. Barrow, a book which cannot be too highly praised. The spirit of individual and disinterested enterprise has appeared again among us and enlarged our knowledge of Africa. Meantime the wildest parts of America have been explored by adventurers in the fur trade. This trade has given us the characteristic journal of Mr. Cartwright, and Hearne's journey, perhaps the most important of all modern travels, for the picture which it presents of savage man.

Our present traveller was engaged in the same commercial pursuit, and has prefaced his journal by a general history of the fur trade from Canada to the north-west. The importance of this trade was discovered soon after the first settlement of that country by the French. The Canadians who accompanied the Indians into the interior of the country to procure skins, soon adopted the manners of savage life. These men were called *Couvreurs des Bois*, and soon became the agents between the merchants and Indians. Three or four would join their stock, put their property into a birch-bark canoe, which they worked themselves, and accompany the natives, or proceed at once to the country where they were to hunt: these voyages extended at length to twelve or fifteen months. They then returned with a rich cargo, and during the few weeks necessary to arrange their accounts, squandered away their gains in beastly debauchery. As these men brought christianity into disrepute with the natives, the missionaries endeavoured to destroy their intercourse; and in consequence no one was permitted to go up the country to traffic without a licence from the government. These



licences were at first granted only to such as could not be disapproved by the missionaries: they were afterwards bestowed as rewards upon officers or their widows, who were allowed to sell them to the merchants, and thus the *Coureurs des Bois* are again employed. But when military posts were established at the confluence of the different large lakes, the trade became more secure and respectable. Retired officers then carried it on in person, respectable men enlightened enough and virtuous enough to co-operate with the missionaries, whereby they both became respected. Our conquest of Canada destroyed the trade. In 1766 the English attempted to renew it, but the traders conducted themselves with such folly and such atrocious wickedness, that, in the year 1780, the natives formed a resolution to extirpate them.

"Nothing but the greatest calamity that could have befallen the natives, saved the traders from destruction: this was the small-pox, which spread its destructive and desolating power, as the fire consumes the dry grass of the field. The fatal infection spread around with a baneful rapidity, which no flight could escape, and with a fatal effect that nothing could resist. It destroyed with its pestilential breath whole families and tribes; and the horrid scene presented to those who had the melancholy and afflicting opportunity of beholding it, a combination of the dead, the dying, and such as, to avoid the horrid fate of their friends around them, prepared to disappoint the plague of its prey, by terminating their own existence.

"The habits and lives of these devoted people, which provided not to-day for the wants of to-morrow, must have heightened the pains of such an affliction, by leaving them not only without remedy but even without alleviation. Nought was left them but to submit in agony and despair.

"To aggravate the picture, if aggravation were possible, may be added the putrid carcasses which the wolves, with a furious voracity, dragged forth from the huts, or which were mangled within them by the dogs, whose hunger was satisfied by the disfigured remains of their masters. Nor was it uncommon for the father of a family, whom the infection had not reached, to call them around him, to represent the cruel sufferings and horrid fate of their relations, from the influence of some evil spirit who was preparing to extirpate their race; and to incite them to baffle death, with all its horrors, by their own poniards. At the same time, if their hearts failed them in this necessary act, he was himself ready to perform the deed of mercy with his own hand, as the last act of

his affection, and instantly to follow them to the common place of rest and refuge from human evil."

At length, in 1783 the merchants of Canada who were engaged in this trade formed an association under the name of the North-west Company. A few merchants who conceived themselves wrongfully excluded, united to oppose them. Of these Mr. Mackenzie was a partner. He gives a harsh picture of commercial rivalry. "After the severest struggle ever known in that part of the world, and suffering every oppression which a jealous and rival spirit could instigate; after the murder of one of our partners, the laming of another, and the narrow escape of one of our clerks who received a bullet through his powder horn, in the execution of his duty, they were compelled to allow us a share of the trade." This association was very successful. But in 1798 a schism took place and a new opposition was started. The trade is become so important, that Mr. Mackenzie is desirous to see it still farther extended by the countenance and support of the British government.

After this detail Mr. Mackenzie describes the navigation and all its interruptions from Montreal to Fort Chipewyan, latitude  $58^{\circ} 33'$  N. longitude  $110^{\circ} 26'$  W. the place which he made his head quarters for eight years, and whence he departed on both his expeditions.

"Here," says he, "have I arrived with ninety or an hundred men without any provision for their sustenance; for whatever quantity might have been obtained from the natives in the summer, it could not be more than sufficient for the people dispatched to the different posts, and even if there was a casual superfluity, it was absolutely necessary to preserve it untouched, for the demands of the spring. The whole dependance, therefore, of those who remained, was on the lake, and fishing implements for the means of our support. The nets are sixty fathoms in length, when set, and contain fifteen meshes of five inches in depth. The manner of using them is as follows: a small stone and wooden buoy are fastened to the side-line opposite to each other, at about the distance of two fathoms: when the net is carefully thrown into the water, the stone sinks it to the bottom, while the buoy keeps it at its full extent, and it is secured in its situation by a stone at either end. The nets are visited every day, and taken out every other day to be cleaned and dried. This is a very ready operation when the waters are not frozen.



but when the frost has set in, and the ice has acquired its greatest thickness, which is sometimes as much as five feet, holes are cut in it at the distance of thirty feet from each other, to the full length of the net; one of them is larger than the rest, being generally about four feet square, and is called the *bason*: by means of them, and poles of a proportionable length, the nets are placed in and drawn out of the water. The setting of hooks and lines is so simple an employment as to render a description unnecessary. The white fish are the principal object of pursuit: they spawn in the fall of the year, and, at about the setting in of the hard frost, crowd in shoals to the shallow water, when as many as possible are taken, in order that a portion of them may be laid by in the frost to provide against the scarcity of winter; as, during that season, the fish of every description decrease in the lakes, if they do not altogether disappear. Some have supposed that during this period they are stationary, or assume an inactive state. If there should be any intervals of warm weather during the fall, it is necessary to suspend the fish by the tail, though they are not so good as those which are altogether preserved by the frost. In this state they remain to the beginning of April, when they have been found as sweet as when they were caught.

"Thus do these voyagers live, year after year, entirely upon fish, without even the quickening flavour of salt, or the variety of any farinaceous root or vegetable."

Some account is now given of the two chief tribes with whom the traders here are connected, the *Knisteneaux* and the *Chepewyans*. The superstitions of these latter people discover more imagination than is generally to be found in a savage creed.

"The notion which these people entertain of the creation, is of a very singular nature. They believe that, at the first, the globe was one vast and entire ocean, inhabited by no living creature, except a mighty bird, whose eyes were fire, whose glances were lightning, and the clapping of whose wings were thunder. On his descent to the ocean, and touching it, the earth instantly arose, and remained on the surface of the waters. This omnipotent bird then called forth all the variety of animals from the earth, except the *Chepewyans*, who were produced from a dog; and this circumstance occasions their aversion to the flesh of that animal, as well as the people who eat it. This extraordinary tradition proceeds to relate, that the great bird, having finished his work, made an arrow, which was to be preserved with great care, and to remain untouched; but that the *Chepewyans* were so devoid of understanding, as to carry it away; and the sacrilege

so enraged the great bird, that he never has since appeared.

"They have also a tradition amongst them, that they originally came from another country, inhabited by very wicked people, and had traversed a great lake, which was narrow, shallow, and full of islands, where they had suffered great misery, it being always winter, with ice and deep snows. At the copper-mine river, where they made the first land, the ground was covered with copper, over which a body of earth had since been collected, to the depth of a man's height. They believe, also, that in ancient times their ancestors lived till their feet were worn out with walking, and their throats with eating. They describe a deluge, when the waters spread over the whole earth, except the highest mountains, on the tops of which they preserved themselves.

"They believe, that immediately after their death, they pass into another world, where they arrive at a large river, on which they embark in a stone canoe, and that a gentle current bears them to an extensive lake, in the center of which is a most beautiful island; and that, in the view of this delightful abode, they receive that judgment for their conduct during life, which terminates their final state and unalterable allotment. If their good actions are declared to predominate, they are landed upon the island, where there is to be no end to their happiness; which, however, according to their notions, consists in an eternal enjoyment of sensual pleasure, and carnal gratification. But if their bad actions weigh down the balance, the stone canoe sinks at once, and leaves them up to their chins in the water, to behold and regret the reward enjoyed by the good, and eternally struggling, but with unavailing endeavours, to reach the blissful island, from which they are excluded for ever."

Mr. Mackenzie believed it practicable to penetrate across the continent of America, he was confident of his personal qualifications for such an enterprise, and encouraged by his friends and commercial associates to undertake it. Accordingly on June 3, 1789, he embarked at Fort *Chepewyan*, on the south side of the lake of the hills, in a canoe made of birch bark. The crew of the canoe consisted of four Canadians, the wives of two, and a German; an Indian called the English Chief, his two wives, and two young Indians, with their followers, filled two other small canoes. These men were engaged in the twofold capacity of interpreters and hunters. Mr. Le Roux, one of the company's clerks, had the charge of another canoe, which carried provision, clothing, ammunition,

and presents for the savages. The labour of such expeditions, though it is what the fur traders are accustomed to, is exceedingly great. The canoes are to be unloaded at the rapids, and frequently carried across the land. Mr. Mackenzie marks all the reaches of the river with a minuteness which is as tedious as it is useless. "W. N. W. one mile, round an island one mile, N. W. two miles and a half, S. by W. three miles, W. S. W. one mile, S. W. by S. half a mile." Such a journal might be useful to form a chart for the especial use of the traders at Fort Chepewyan, but of what possible utility can it be in any other part of the habitable world? One singular observation occurs in the early part of the voyage which we transcribe with due scepticism. It is a very curious and extraordinary circumstance, that land covered with spruce pine and white birch, when laid waste by fire, should subsequently produce nothing but poplars, where none of that species of tree were previously to be found.

An inland voyage like this through a country almost without inhabitants, must present objects of perpetual interest to the adventurers, but can furnish them with little to relate. Whether the banks are covered with wood, or spread into extensive plains, if the current be strong or slack, if the wind blows north or south, if they get within shot of the water-fowl, or pursue them without success, are events to them of immediate and material importance, but infinitely insignificant when dilated in wide letter-press over a quarto page. The passages which relate to human manners and human feelings are interesting, but a very small volume would contain these. In about a month they came to a village, containing five families, of about twenty-five or thirty persons in all. The information these people gave them concerning the river was altogether fabulous. That it would require several winters to get to the sea, and that old age would come upon them before the period of their return, and that they would encounter monsters of the most horrid shapes and destructive powers. These Indians, indeed, seem remarkably prone to superstition. Mr. Mackenzie passed near a mountain whereon some patches of snow glittered in the sun. He at first suspected they were talc, though they possessed a more brilliant whiteness, but the In-

dians in his company said they were *spirit stones*. An African who had never before seen snow might well have thus accounted for its brightness and disappearance, but in a North American Indian, such a belief can only have proceeded from a love of the wonderful.

One of these people they induced by the promise of some trifling articles to accompany them, but when it was time to embark his resolution failed him, and after the delay of an hour, says Mr. Mackenzie, we may be said to have compelled him to embark. Previous to his departure he cut off a lock of his hair, and having divided it into three parts, he fastened one of them to the hair on the upper part of his wife's head, blowing on it three times with the utmost violence in his power, and uttering certain words, the other two he fastened with the same formalities, on the heads of his two children. Though they had forced away this man it was difficult to retain him: he pretended illness that he might be permitted to return to his family, and to prevent his escape it was necessary to keep a strict watch over him during the night. In a few days they exchanged him for another guide, but to the other also they were obliged to use compulsion. The natives always fled from them. At one place only one old man ventured to approach them; he represented himself as too far advanced in life, and too indifferent about the short time he had to remain in the world, to be very anxious about escaping from any danger that threatened him, but at the same time he pulled the grey hairs from his head by handfuls to distribute among the strangers, and implored their favour for himself and his relations. They learnt from every one the same marvellous account of danger. Behind an opposite island they were told there was a spirit in the river which swallowed every person that approached it. This whirlpool they did not stay to visit.

The continued northerly direction of the river at length convinced Mr. Mackenzie that it must empty itself into the northern sea, to which he determined to penetrate. The journal of the latter part we must extract at length, on account of the conclusion which the author infers from it.

"Though the current was very strong, we appeared to have come to the entrance of the lake. The stream set to the west and

we went with it to an high point, at the distance of about eight miles, which we conjectured to be an island; but on approaching it, we perceived it to be connected with the shore by a low neck of land. I now took an observation, which gave  $69^{\circ} 1'$  north latitude. From the point that has been just mentioned, we continued the same course for the westernmost point of an high island, and the westernmost land in sight, at the distance of 15 miles.

"The lake was quite open to us to the westward, and out of the channel of the river there was not more than four feet water, and in some places the depth did not exceed one foot. From the shallowness of the water, it was impossible to coast to the westward. At five o'clock we arrived at the island, and during the last 15 miles, five feet was the deepest water. The lake now appeared to be covered with ice, for about two leagues distance, and no land ahead, so that we were prevented from proceeding in this direction by the ice, and the shallowness of the water along the shore.

"We landed at the boundary of our voyage in this direction, and as soon as the tents were pitched, I ordered the nets to be set, when I proceeded with the English chief to the highest part of the island, from which we discovered the solid ice, extending from the south-west by compass to the eastward. As far as the eye could reach to the south-westward, we could dimly perceive a chain of mountains, stretching further to the north than the edge of the ice, at the distance of upwards of 20 leagues. To the eastward we saw many islands, and in our progress we met with a considerable number of white partridges, now become brown. There were also flocks of very beautiful plovers, and I found the nest of one of them with four eggs. White owls, likewise, were among the inhabitants of the place: but the dead as well as the living demanded our attention, for we came to the grave of one of the natives, by which lay a bow, a paddle, and a spear. The Indians informed me that they landed on a small island, about four leagues from hence, where they had seen the tracks of two men, that were quite fresh; they had also found a secret store of train oil, and several bones of white bears were scattered about the place where it was hid. The wind was now so high, that it was impracticable for us to visit the nets.

"My people could not at this time refrain from expressions of real concern, that they were obliged to return without reaching the sea: indeed the hope of attaining this object encouraged them to bear, without repining, the hardships of our unrelenting voyage. For some time past their spirits were animated by the expectation that another day would bring them to the *mer d'ouest*: and even in our present situation they declared their readiness to follow me, wherever I should be pleased

to lead them. We saw several large white gulls, and other birds, whose back, and upper feathers of the wing, are brown; and whose belly, and under feathers of the wing, are white.

"We had no sooner retired to rest last night, if I may use that expression, in a country where the sun never sinks beneath the horizon, than some of the people were obliged to rise and remove the baggage, on account of the rising of the water. At eight in the morning the weather was fine and calm, which afforded an opportunity to examine the nets, one of which had been driven from its position by the wind and current. We caught seven *poissons inconnus*, which were unpalatable; a white fish that proved delicious; and another about the size of an herring, which none of us had ever seen before, except the English chief, who recognized it as being of a kind that abounds in Hudson's Bay. About noon the wind blew hard from the westward, when I took an observation, which gave  $69^{\circ} 14'$  north latitude, and the meridian variation of the compass was 36 degrees eastward.

"This afternoon I ascended the hill, but could not discover that the ice had been put in motion by the force of the wind. At the same time I could just distinguish two small islands in the ice, to the north-west by compass. I now thought it necessary to give a new net to my men to mount, in order to obtain as much provision as possible from the water, our stores being reduced to about 500 weight, which, without any other supply, would not have sufficed for 15 people above twelve days. One of the young Indians, however, was so fortunate as to find the net that had been missing, and which contained three of the *poissons inconnus*.

"It blew very hard from the north-west since the preceding evening. Having sat up till three in the morning, I slept longer than usual; but about eight one of my men saw a great many animals in the water, which he at first supposed to be pieces of ice. About nine, however, I was awakened to resolve the doubts which had taken place respecting this extraordinary appearance. I immediately perceived that they were whales; and having ordered the canoe to be prepared, we embarked in pursuit of them. It was, indeed, a very wild and unreflecting enterprise, and it was a very fortunate circumstance that we failed in our attempt to overtake them, as a stroke from the tail of one of those enormous fish, would have dashed the canoe to pieces. We may, perhaps, have been indebted to the foggy weather for our safety, as it prevented us from continuing our pursuit. Our guide informed us that they are the same kind of fish which are the principal food of the Esquimaux, and they were frequently seen as large as our canoe. The part of them which appeared above the water, was altogether white, and they

were much larger than the largest porpoise.

"Being awakened by some casual circumstance, at four this morning, I was surprised on perceiving that the water had flowed under our baggage. As the wind had not changed, and did not blow with greater violence than when we went to rest, we were all of opinion that this circumstance proceeded from the tide. We had, indeed, observed at the other end of the island, that the water rose and fell; but we then imagined that it must have been occasioned by the wind. The water continued to rise till about six, but I could not ascertain the time with the requisite precision, as the wind then began to blow with great violence; I therefore determined, at all events, to remain here till the next morning, though, as it happened, the state of the wind was such as to render my stay here an act of necessity. Our nets were not very successful, as they presented us with only eight fish. From an observation which I obtained at noon, we were in  $69^{\circ} 7'$  north latitude. As the evening approached, the wind increased, and the weather became cold. Two swans were the only provisions which the hunters procured for us.

"Thursday 16. The rain did not cease till seven this morning, the weather being at intervals very cold and unpleasant. Such was its inconstancy, that I could not make an accurate observation; but the tide appeared to rise 16 or 18 inches."

In the preface is this passage. "The first voyage has settled the dubious point of a practicable north-west passage, and I trust, that it has set that long agitated question at rest, and extinguished the disputes respecting it for ever. An enlarged discussion of that subject will be found to occupy the concluding pages of this volume." But the volume contains no such discussion; the north-west passage is never mentioned in the concluding pages, except in this paragraph.

"The discovery of a passage by sea, north-east or north-west from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, has for many years excited the attention of governments, and encouraged enterprising spirit of individuals. The non-existence, however, of any such practicable passage being at length determined, the practicability of a passage through the continents of Asia and America becomes an object of consideration. The Russians, who first discovered that along the coasts of Asia no useful or regular navigation existed, opened an interior communication by rivers, &c. and through that long and wide-extended continent, to the strait that separates Asia from America, over which they passed to the adjacent islands and continent of the latter. Our situation at length, is in some degree similar

to theirs; the non-existence of a practicable passage by sea, and the existence of one through the continent, are clearly proved; and it requires only the countenance and support of the British government, to increase in a very ample proportion this national advantage, and secure the trade of that country to its subjects."

Mr. Mackenzie then has not discussed the subject, and we have extracted all the facts upon which his assertion rests. But how do these facts justify that assertion? he has advanced as far as  $69^{\circ} 14'$  north latitude: the tide flows there; he has seen whales there; and yet he says he has proved by this voyage the non-existence of a practicable north-west passage.

He now resolved to examine the islands in the lake, in the hope of meeting with some of the natives. From one party he learnt that the Esquimaux were now at their lake, which was no great distance off, where they kill rein deer; and that they would soon begin to kill *big fish* for the winter stock.

The next day Mr. Mackenzie questioned another party of Indians respecting the river.

"They declared their total ignorance of it, but from the reports of others, as they had never been beyond the mountains, on the opposite side of their own river; they had, however, been informed that it was larger than that which washed the banks whereon they lived, and that its course was towards the mid-day sun. They added, that there were people at a small distance up the river, who inhabited the opposite mountains, and had lately descended from them to obtain supplies of fish. These people, they suggested, must be well acquainted with the other river, which was the object of my inquiry. I engaged one of them, by a bribe of some beads, to describe the circumjacent country upon the sand. This singular map he immediately undertook to delineate, and accordingly traced out a very long point of land between the rivers, though without paying the least attention to their courses, which he represented as running into the great lake, at the extremity of which, as he had been told by Indians of other nations, there was a Belhoullay Couin, or White Man's Fort. This I took to be Unalascha Fort, and consequently the river to the west to be Cook's River; and that the body of water or sea into which this river discharges itself at Whale Island, communicates with Norton Sound. I made an advantageous proposition to this man to accompany me across the mountains to the other river, but he refused it.

"At four in the afternoon I ordered my interpreter to harangue the natives, assembled in council, but his long discourse obtained little satisfactory intelligence from them. Their account of the river to the westward was similar to that which we had already received; and their description of the inhabitants of that country was still more absurd and ridiculous. They represented them as being of a gigantic stature, and adorned with wings; which, however, they never employed in flying. That they fed on large birds, which they killed with the greatest ease, though common men would be certain victims of their voracity, if they ventured to approach them. They also described the people that inhabited the mouth of the river as possessing the extraordinary power of killing with their eyes, and devouring a large beaver at a single meal. They added that canoes of very large dimensions visited that place. They did not, however, relate these strange circumstances from their own knowledge, but on the reports of other tribes, as they themselves never ventured to proceed beyond the first mountains, where they went in search of the small white buffaloes, as the inhabitants of the other side endeavour to kill them whenever they meet. They likewise mentioned that the sources of those streams which are tributary to both the great rivers, are separated by the mountains."

This was all the information Mr. Mackenzie could procure; he had now turned his face homeward, and arrived at Fort Chepewyan, on the 12th of September, having been 102 days on this expedition.

In October 1792, our traveller departed upon his second attempt to cross the continent, he had resolved to go as far as the most distant settlement of the company. At this place, which is in latitude  $56^{\circ} 9'$  north, and longitude  $117^{\circ} 35' 15''$  west, preparations had been made to receive him, and there he wintered.

"On the 9th day of May, I found that my acrometer was one hour forty-six minutes slow to apparent time; the mean going of it I had found to be twenty-two seconds slow in twenty-four hours. Having settled this point, the canoe was put into the water: her dimensions were twenty-five feet long within, exclusive of the curves of stem and stern, twenty-six inches hold, and four feet nine inches beam. At the same time she was so light, that two men could carry her on a good road three or four miles without resting. In this slender vessel we shipped provisions, goods for presents, arms, ammunition, and baggage, to the weight of 5000 pounds, and an equipage of ten peo-

ple, viz. Alexander Mackay, Joseph Landry, Charles Ducette, Francois Courtois, and Jacques Beauchamp, with two Indians as hunters and interpreters. One of them, when a boy, was used to be so idle, that he obtained the reputable name of Cancre, which he still possesses. With these persons I embarked at seven in the evening. My winter interpreter, with another person whom I left here to take care of the fort, and supply the natives with ammunition during the summer, shed tears on the reflection of those dangers which we might encounter in our expedition, while my own people offered up their prayers that we might return in safety from it."

The immediate scenery is very beautifully described.

"From the place which we quitted this morning, the west side of the river displayed a succession of the most beautiful scenery I had ever beheld. The ground rises at intervals to a considerable height, and stretching inwards to a considerable distance: at every interval or pause in the rise, there is a very gently-ascending space or lawn, which is alternate with abrupt precipices to the summit of the whole, or, at least, as far as the eye could distinguish. This magnificent theatre of nature has all the decorations which the trees and animals of the country can afford it: groves of poplars in every shape vary the scene; and their intervals are enlivened with vast herds of elks and buffaloes; the former choosing the steeps and uplands, and the latter preferring the plains. At this time the buffaloes were attended with their young ones, who were frisking about them; and it appeared that the elks would soon exhibit the same enlivening circumstance. The whole country displayed an exuberant verdure; the trees that bear a blossom were advancing fast to that delightful appearance, and the velvet rind of their branches reflecting the oblique rays of a rising or setting sun, added a splendid gaiety to the scene, which no expressions of mine are qualified to describe. The east side of the river consists of a range of high land covered with the white spruce, and the soft birch, while the banks abound with the alder and the willow."

The difficulties of this voyage were infinitely more formidable than those of the former expedition. They shall be related in Mr. Mackenzie's own words.

"We could now proceed no further on this side of the water, and the traverse was rendered extremely dangerous, not only from the strength of current, but by the cascades just below us, which, if we had got among them, would have involved us and the canoe in one common destruction. We had



no other alternative than to return by the same course we came, or to hazard the traverse, the river on this side being bounded by a range of steep over-hanging rocks, beneath which the current was driven on with resistless impetuosity from the cascades. Here are several islands of solid rock, covered with a small portion of verdure, which have been worn away by the constant force of the current, and occasionally, as I presume, of ice, at the water's edge, so as to be reduced in that part to one fourth the extent of the upper surface, presenting, as it were, so many large tables, each of which was supported by a pedestal of a more circumscribed projection. They are very elevated for such a situation, and afford an asylum for geese, which were at this time breeding on them. By crossing from one to the other of these islands, we came at length to the main traverse, on which we ventured, and were successful in our passage. Mr. Mackay, and the Indians, who observed our manœuvres from the top of a rock, were in continual alarm for our safety, with which their own, indeed, may be said to have been nearly connected; however, the dangers that we encountered were very much augmented by the heavy loading of the canoe.

"When we had effected our passage, the current on the west side was almost equally violent with that from whence we had just escaped, but the craggy bank being somewhat lower, we were enabled, with a line of sixty fathoms, to tow the canoe, till we came to the foot of the most rapid cascade we had hitherto seen. Here we unloaded, and carried every thing over a rocky point of 120 paces. When the canoe was reloaded, I, with those of my people who were not immediately employed, ascended the bank which was there, and indeed, as far as we could see it, composed of clay, stone, and a yellow gravel. My present situation was so elevated, that the men who were coming up a strong point could not hear me, though I called to them with the utmost strength of my voice, to lighten the canoe of part of its lading. And here I could not but reflect, with infinite anxiety, on the hazard of my enterprise; one false step of those who were attached to the line, or the breaking of the line itself, would have at once consigned the canoe, and every thing it contained, to instant destruction: it, however, ascended the rapid in perfect security, but new dangers immediately presented themselves, for stones, both small and great, were continually rolling from the bank, so as to render the situation of those who were dragging the canoe beneath it extremely perilous; besides, they were at every step in danger, from the steepness of the ground, of falling into the water.

"We now, with infinite difficulty, passed

along the foot of a rock, which, fortunately, was not a hard stone, so that we were enabled to cut steps in it for the distance of twenty feet; from which, at the hazard of my life, I leaped on a small rock below, where I received those who followed me on my shoulders. In this manner four of us passed and dragged up the canoe, in which attempt we broke her. Very luckily a dry tree had fallen from the rock above us, without which we could not have made a fire, as no wood was to be procured within a mile of the place. When the canoe was repaired, we continued towing it along the rocks to the next point, when we embarked, as we could not at present make any further use of the line, but got along the rocks of a round island of stone, till we came to a small sandy bay. As we had already damaged the canoe, and had every reason to think that she soon would risk much greater injury, it became necessary for us to supply ourselves with bark, as our provision of that material article was almost exhausted; two men were accordingly sent to procure it, who soon returned with the necessary store.

"Mr. Mackay, and the Indians who had been on shore, since we broke the canoe, were prevented from coming to us by the rugged and impassable state of the ground. We, therefore, again resumed our course with the assistance of poles, with which we pushed onwards till we came beneath a precipice, where we could not find any bottom; so that we were again obliged to have recourse to the line, the management of which was rendered not only difficult but dangerous, as the men employed in towing were under the necessity of passing on the outside of trees that grew on the edge of the precipice.

"At the break of day we entered on the extraordinary journey which was to occupy the remaining part of it. The men began, without delay, to cut a road up the mountain, and as the trees were but of small growth, I ordered them to fell those which they found convenient, in such a manner that they might fall parallel with the road, but at the same time not separate them entirely from the stumps, so that they might form a kind of railing on either side. The baggage was now brought from the water-side to our encampment. This was likewise from the steep shelving of the rocks, a very perilous undertaking, as one false step of any of the people employed in it would have been instantly followed by falling headlong into the water. When this important object was attained, the whole of the party proceeded, with no small degree of apprehension, to fetch the canoe, which, in a short time, was also brought to the encampment; and as soon as we had recovered from our fatigue, we advanced with it up the mountain, having the line doubled and fastened success-



sively as we went on to the stumps; while a man at the end of it hauled it round a tree, holding it on and shifting it as we proceeded; so that we may be said, with strict truth, to have warped the canoe up the mountain."

Narrations of difficulties overcome by manly perseverance are always interesting, however unimportant in their consequences; but in such a narrative it is vexatious to be perpetually interrupted by the abominable accuracy of the bearings; let the reader take a short sample of what repeatedly occurs, and sometimes page after page.

"The course now veered south, south-west by west three quarters of a mile, east by south a quarter of a mile, south half a mile, south-east by south half a mile, south-west a quarter of a mile, east by south a quarter of a mile, veered to west-north-west a quarter of a mile, south-west one-eighth of a mile, east-south-east one quarter of a mile, east one-sixth of a mile, south-south-west one-twelfth of a mile, east-south-east one-eighth of a mile, north-east by east one-third of a mile, east by north one-twelfth of a mile, north-east by east one-third of a mile, east one-sixteenth of a mile, south-east one-twelfth of a mile, north-east by east one-twelfth of a mile, east one-eighth of a mile, and east-south-east half a mile, when we landed at seven o'clock, and encamped."

And in this way has Mr. Mackenzie thought it expedient to detail a voyage through the continent of America by quarters and eighths, and twelfths and sixteenths of a mile!

Struggling with such fatigues, and such difficulties and dangers, it is not surprising that Mr. Mackenzie's people became disheartened and discontented. Many of them began openly to execrate the voyage, and it required all his address and resolution to induce them to persevere. The Indians whom they met were not the timid race who had always fled from them on their former expedition. One party took to the woods on discovering them, but two men of the party took their stand on a rising ground to dispute the landing, and threatened to discharge their arrows if the strangers attempted to come over before they were fully satisfied of their peaceful intentions. These people they soon conciliated; the fugitives returned, and were questioned respecting the country. They said there was a river from whence they were just arrived, over a carrying place of eleven days march; and that there, in

exchange for beaver and dressed moose skins, they obtained iron work from the people who inhabited the banks of that river, and of an adjacent lake. They represented the latter as travelling during a moon to the country of other tribes, who live in houses, with whom they traffic for the same commodities; and that these extend their journeys to the sea coast, or, as they call it, the Stinking Lake, where they trade with people like Mr. Mackenzie, that come there in vessels as big as islands. They knew of no river that discharged itself into the sea. This intelligence perplexed him. At one time he thought of quitting the canoe, and attempting to reach the sea by this direction; but the obstacles were too formidable. The next morning, however, one of the Indians gave him more encouraging intelligence. He knew of a large river that runs towards the mid-day sun, a branch of which flowed near the source of that they were now navigating; and there were only three small lakes, and as many carrying places, leading to a small river which emptied itself into the greater stream; but this he said did not empty itself into the sea. The inhabitants built houses, lived on islands, and were a numerous and warlike people. He delineated the road to this river with a piece of coal on a strip of bark. Mr. Mackenzie confidently imputed his opinion to ignorance, that it did not run to the sea, and induced one of these Indians to guide him to the first inhabitants.

This guide had conceived a very exalted opinion of Mr. Mackenzie; when the interpreter was encouraging him and exhorting him not to desert in the night, he replied, "How is it possible for me to leave the lodge of the great spirit? When he tells me that he has no further occasion for me, I will then return to my children." His opinion was soon altered, and he became restless and anxious to return. On the fourth day after their departure the canoe was wrecked; they themselves narrowly escaped, and their whole stock of balls was lost. The people did not regret this misfortune, which they thought would make it impossible to proceed. Their leader did not attempt to reason with them while they were wet, and cold, and hungry. After they had made themselves warm and comfortable with

a good meal, and rum enough to raise their spirits, he addressed them, and they resolved to repair the canoe, and follow him wherever he pleased to lead. By the end of the following day their shattered vessel was repaired with bark, some pieces of oil-cloth, and plenty of gum. The next morning they proceeded, part by land carrying part of the lading, for they were fearful of overloading the canoe in its present weak state. It was necessary to open a road for these men; nor were those in the canoe less painfully employed. After fourteen hours hard labour, they made only three miles, the course of the stream was so obstructed. One man now refused to proceed farther; he was shamed out of this resolution. A hole was broken in the canoe's bottom. When this was repaired, they were obliged to carry her through morasses, and almost impenetrable woods. The guide deserted in the night. When they reached the river, the drift wood again blocked it up. The canoe was again unloaded, and carried three quarters of a mile through a continued swamp, where in many places they waded up to the middle of their thighs; but this effort was successful; "and at length," says Mr. Mackenzie, "we enjoyed the inexpressible satisfaction of finding ourselves on the bank of a navigable river, on the west side of the first great range of mountains."

The next party of Indians whom they encountered discharged a volley of arrows at them. Seeing that these people had sent a canoe down the stream, as he supposed to communicate alarm, and procure assistance, Mr. Mackenzie proceeded, with equal prudence and courage, to conciliate them. He placed one of his men in ambush, and advanced alone to the bank, holding out glasses and beads to tempt some of them over. This succeeded; two of the natives came over, and a friendly intercourse was soon established. They represented the course of the river as rapid, and in some places impassable; and the natives, their next neighbours, as a savage race, to whom they would certainly fall a sacrifice if they proceeded. Two, however, of these people consented to accompany him some way. The information obtained from the next party convinced Mr. Mackenzie that it was hopeless to follow this river. They de-

scribed the distance across the country to the Western Ocean as very short; and he himself thought it could not be above five or six degrees: he therefore resolved to attempt this route. It was necessary to return some way up the river, to the spot where the Indians were accustomed to strike inland. They built a new canoe, reached this spot in her, and left her there; and buried some provision and ammunition, which they could neither carry, nor trust to the Indians.

"We carried on our backs four bags and an half of pemmican, weighing from eighty-five to ninety pounds each; a case with my instruments, a parcel of goods for presents, weighing ninety pounds, and a parcel containing ammunition of the same weight. Each of the Canadians had a burden of about ninety pounds, with a gun, and some ammunition. The Indians had about forty-five pounds weight of pemmican to carry, besides their gun, &c. with which they were very much dissatisfied; and, if they had dared, would have instantly left us. They had hitherto been very much indulged, but the moment was now arrived when indulgence was no longer practicable. My own load, and that of Mr. Mackay, consisted of twenty-two pounds of pemmican, some rice, a little sugar, &c. amounting in the whole to about seventy pounds each, besides our arms and ammunition. I had also the tube of my telescope swung across my shoulder, which was a troublesome addition to my burden. It was determined that we should content ourselves with two meals a day, which were regulated without difficulty, as our provisions did not require the ceremony of cooking. In this state of equipment we began our journey."

After travelling a fortnight, they procured two canoes from a friendly tribe, and embarked on another river. They were evidently approaching the sea, and on the 20th of July they reached it, near the Cape Menzies of Vancouver. They landed at King's Island. A savage here became very troublesome, and indeed dangerous. White people had been there before; one of them, whom he called Macubah, had fired on him and his friends; and another, called Bensins, had struck him with the flat part of his sword. When these natives were offered, in exchange for an otter skin, what they did not choose to accept, they distinctly answered, no, no. Here our traveller ascertained his latitude,  $52^{\circ} 20' 48''$ , and inscribed, with vermilion and grease, upon a rock, this brief

memorial: "Alexander Mackenzie, from Canada by land, July 22, 1793."

On the 4th of August they arrived at the place where they had left their canoe, which, with the property they had left, and the stores which they had buried, they found perfectly safe. While upon this land-journey they had lost their dog, who went howling about the village ever since they left it, but only came into it at night to eat the fish he could find about the houses. "As we were continuing our route," says the author,

"We all felt the sensation of having found a lost friend at the sight of our dog; but he appeared, in some degree, to have lost his former sagacity. He ran in a wild way backwards and forwards; and, though he kept our road, I could not induce him to acknowledge his master. Sometimes he seemed disposed to approach, as if he knew us; and then, on a sudden, he would turn away, as if alarmed at our appearance. The poor animal was reduced almost to a skeleton, and we occasionally dropped something to support him, and by degrees he recovered his former sagacity."

They encountered fewer difficulties on their return, and on the 24th of August reached the place from whence they had set out. From the following passage, which is dated only two days before their return, it should seem that the adventurers were noways impaired in health by the fatigues of their enterprise.

"To give some notion of our appetites, I shall state the elk, or at least the carcase of it, which we brought away, to have weighed 250 pounds; and as we had taken a very hearty meal at one o'clock, it might naturally be supposed that we should not be very voracious at supper; nevertheless a kettle full of the elk-flesh was boiled and eaten, and that vessel replenished, and put on the fire: all that remained, with the bones, &c. was placed, after the Indian fashion, round the fire to roast; and at ten next morning the whole was consumed by ten persons, and a large dog, who was allowed his share of the banquet. This is no exaggeration; nor did any inconvenience result from what may be considered as an inordinate indulgence."

Some curious facts respecting the Indians and their country are contained in this volume. "I myself observed," says the traveller, "in a country which was in an absolute state of nature, that the climate is improving; and this cir-

cumstance was confirmed to me by the native inhabitants of it." The information alluded to is remarkable.

"An Indian, in some measure, explained his age to me, by relating that he remembered the opposite hills and plains, now interspersed with groves of poplars, when they were covered with moss, and without any animal inhabitant but the rein-deer. By degrees, he said, the face of the country changed to its present appearance, when the elk came from the east, and was followed by the buffalo; the rein-deer then retired to the long range of high lands that, at a considerable distance, run parallel with this river."

One part of the country is described to be so crowded with animals, as to have in some places the appearance of a stall-yard, from the state of the ground, and the quantity of dung scattered over it. There is one tremendous account of a storm.

"About seven, the sky to the westward became of a steel-blue colour, with lightning and thunder." We accordingly landed to prepare ourselves against the coming storm; but, before we could erect our tents, it came on with such violence, that we expected it to carry every thing before it. The ridge-pole of my tent was broken in the middle, where it was sound, and nine inches and an half in circumference; and we were obliged to throw ourselves flat on the ground to escape being wounded by the stones that were hurled about in the air like sand. The violence of the storm, however, subsided in a short time, but left the sky overcast by the appearance of rain."

The picture of savage life is disgusting, and evidently faithful.

"About sun-set I was under the necessity of shooting one of their dogs, as we could not keep those animals from our luggage. It was in vain that I had remonstrated on this subject, so that I was obliged to commit the act which has been just mentioned. When these people heard the report of the pistol, and saw the dog dead, they were seized with a very general alarm, and the women took their children on their backs and ran into the woods. I ordered the cause of this act of severity to be explained, with the assurance that no injury would be offered to themselves. The woman, however, to whom the dog belonged, was very much affected, and declared that the loss of five children, during the preceding winter, had not affected her so much as the death of this animal. But her grief was not of very long duration; and a few beads, &c. soon assuaged her sorrow. But as they can without difficulty get rid of their affliction, they can with equal ease assume it, and feign

sickness, if it be necessary, with the same versatility. When we arrived this morning, we found the women in tears, from an apprehension that we were come to take them away. To the eye of an European they certainly were objects of disgust; but there were those among my party who observed some hidden charms in these females which rendered them objects of desire, and means were found, I believe, that very soon dissipated their alarms, and subdued their coyness.

"On the 12th the hunter arrived, having left his mother-in-law, who was lately become a widow with three small children, and in actual labour of a fourth. Her daughter related this circumstance to the women here, without the least appearance of concern, though she represented her as in a state of great danger, which probably might proceed from her being abandoned in this unnatural manner. At the same time without any apparent consciousness of her own barbarous negligence; if the poor abandoned woman should die, she would most probably lament her with great outcries, and, perhaps, cut off one or two joints of her fingers as tokens of her grief. The Indians, indeed, consider the state of a woman in labour as among the most trifling occurrences of corporeal pain to which human nature is subject, and they may be, in some measure justified in this apparent insensibility from the circumstances of that situation among themselves. It is by no means uncommon in the hasty removal of their camps from one position to another, for a woman to be taken in labour, to deliver herself in her way, without any assistance or notice from her associates in the journey, and to overtake them before they complete the arrangements of their evening station, with her new-born babe on her back.

"At half past four o'clock this morning I was awakened to be informed that an Indian had been killed. I accordingly hastened to the camp where I found two women employed in rolling up the dead body of a man, called the White Partridge, in a beaver robe, which I had lent him. He had received four mortal wounds from a dagger, two within the collar-bone, one in the left breast, and another in the small of the back, with two cuts across his head. The murderer, who had been my hunter throughout the winter, had fled; and it was pretended that several relations of the deceased were gone in pursuit of him. The history of this unfortunate event is as follows:—

"These two men had been comrades for four years; the murderer had three wives; and the young man who was killed becoming enamoured of one of them, the husband consented to yield her to him, with the reserved power of claiming her as his property, when it should be his pleasure. This connection was uninterrupted for near three years, when, whimsical as it may appear,

the husband became jealous, and the public amour was suspended. The parties, however, made their private assignations, which caused the woman to be so ill-treated by her husband, that the paramour was determined to take her away by force; and this project ended in his death. This is a very common practice among the Indians, and generally terminates in very serious and fatal quarrels."

Puberty, Mr. Mackenzie says, sometimes commences as early as at 11 or 12. This is extraordinary in so cold a latitude. Polygamy is practiced, and produces its constant train of vices. The people are jealous, and their anger then knows no bounds, yet they make no scruple to lend their wives. A party with whom the travellers fell in, retired with their children into the woods to sleep, and resigned their beds and the partners of them to Mr. Mackenzie's followers. With a single exception, none of these people knew his own age! They are indeed below the level of brutes, inasmuch as the reason they possess is uniformly directed to mischievous purposes. In all animals cleanliness seems an instinct; even ducks and swine are only filthy when domesticated. These Indians live amid their own excrement without annoyance. Mr. Mackenzie proposed to one of his guides to sleep with him, being fearful that he would desert in the night. He had no covering except a beaver garment, and that was a nest of vermin. "However," he says, "I spread it under us, and having laid down upon it, we covered ourselves with my camelot cloak. My companion's hair being greased with fish oil, and his body smeared with red earth, my sense of smelling as well as that of feeling, threatened to interrupt my rest, but these inconveniences yielded to my fatigue, and I passed a night of sound repose." The men of one tribe have a small stick hanging by a string from one of the locks, which "*they employ to alleviate any itching or irritation in the head.*" This, however, is not altogether so unlike civilised custom; our old ladies of the last century used to employ a little band, neatly carved in ivory, *to alleviate any itching or irritation in the back.*

The tribes who dwell nearer the sea, seem to be a better race. The description of their temples even indicates some degree of art.

"Near the house of the chief I observed

several oblong squares, of about 20 feet by eight. They were made of thick cedar boards, which were joined with so much neatness, that I at first thought they were one piece. They were painted with hieroglyphics, and figures of different animals, and with a degree of correctness that was not to be expected from such an uncultivated people. I could not learn the use of them, but they appeared to be calculated for occasional acts of devotion or sacrifice, which all these tribes perform at least twice in the year, at the spring and fall. I was confirmed in this opinion by a large building in the middle of the village, which I at first took for the half finished frame of an house. The ground plot of it was 50 feet by 45; each end is formed by four stout posts, fixed perpendicularly in the ground. The corner ones are plain, and support a beam of the whole length, having three intermediate props on each side, but of a larger size, and 8 or 9 feet in height. The two centre posts, at each end, are two feet and a half in diameter, and carved into human figures, supporting two ridge poles on their heads, at 12 feet from the ground. The figures at the upper part of this square represent two persons with their hands upon their knees, as if they supported the weight with pain and difficulty: the others opposite to them stand at their ease, with their hands resting on their hips. In the area of the building there were the remains of several fires. The posts, poles, and figures, were painted red and black; but the sculpture of these people is superior to their painting.\*

Age, so cruelly abandoned by the Indians about Hudson's Bay, is among these people an object of great veneration. One party were carrying an old woman by turns on their backs, who was quite blind and infirm from the very advanced period of her life. They also weed the graves of the dead, a custom to which they are particularly attentive; the more northern tribe, on the contrary, destroy every thing belonging to a deceased person, except what they bury with him, that he may not be brought to their recollection. They are said not to be polygamists, and the women are therefore better treated. The men took a greater share in their toil, and they lived in a state of comparative comfort. They boil water in a basket by throwing hot stones in it.

One of the Indians surprised Mr. Mackenzie by a very unexpected ques-

tion in return, when he had been interrogated respecting the country.

"What," demanded, he "can be the reason that you are so particular and anxious in your inquiries of us respecting a knowledge of this country: do not you white men know every thing in the world?" This interrogatory was so very unexpected, that it occasioned some hesitation before I could answer it. At length, however, I replied, that we certainly were acquainted with the principal circumstances of every part of the world; that I knew where the sea is, and where I myself then was, but that I did not exactly understand what obstacles might interrupt me in getting to it; with which he and his relations must be well acquainted, as they had so frequently surmounted them. Thus I fortunately preserved the impression in their minds of the superiority of white people over themselves."

The importance which Mr. Mackenzie in his preface annexes to his discoveries, excited expectations in us which the work itself certainly has not answered. His first voyage\* has by no means disproved the existence of a north west passage; on the contrary, it has rather made it more probable that such a passage may actually exist. His second, we think, has as little proved the practicability of a commercial communication through the continent of North America, between the Atlantic and Pacific Ocean. The course which he himself has taken is evidently too difficult, and the one which he recommends is known only by the report of the Indians; another voyage is therefore necessary to ascertain it. What then has the traveller discovered? that going sometimes by land and sometimes by water, it is possible to penetrate from fort Chepewyan to the Pacific. But who ever doubted this?

The book itself, though in many parts interesting, wants perspicuity. Sometimes the author is provokingly minute; but when he arrives at the Icy Sea, he is as provokingly inaccurate. It is impossible not to compare his journal with that of Mr. Hearne, an adventurer in the same trade, travelling in the same country; and compared with that excellent work, this is indeed miserably meagre.

\* We use Mr. Mackenzie's own word. Voyage with us has been exclusively applied to sea journeys; and for this mixed kind of travelling we want a word.



**ART. IV.** *Account of the English Colony in New South Wales, from its first Settlement in January 1788 to August 1801, with Remarks on the Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the native Inhabitants of that Country: to which are added some Particulars of New Zealand.* Compiled, by Permission, from the MSS. of Lieutenant-Governor KING; and an Account of a Voyage performed by Captain FLINDERS and Mr. BASS, by which the Existence of a Strait separating Van Diemen's Land from the Continent of New Holland was ascertained. Abstracted from the Journal of Mr. BASS, by Lieutenant-Col. COLLINS, of the Royal Marines, late Judge Advocate and Secretary of the Colony. vol. 2d. 4to. pp. 335.

THE first volume of Mr. Collins's account of the English colony in New South Wales, was published in 1798, and contained the journal of that settlement up to the 29th of September 1796: from which date the narrative is here continued, in a similar form to the month of August 1801. The history is of that detailed circumstantial kind which the importance and novelty of the subject required. It is because we have no such minute accounts of the original settlements of the West Indian and North American provinces, that so much labour in vain, so much evitable difficulty, so much fruitless expenditure is incurred by every new enterprize of the kind. The experience of preceding colonists has in too great a degree been lost to our use; and, instead of profiting by the past miscarriages, we are often obliged, through ignorance of their precise causes, to repeat the old blunders in order to detect them.

After the perusal of this most valuable and micrological information, it will probably be thought doubtful whether criminal population forms the cheapest raw material of settlement or colonization. If the expence necessary to transport, to protect, and to educate anew grown felons, was employed in patronizing the voluntary removal of adventurous paupers, it is likely that agriculture and the simpler arts would be more speedily introduced, and more skilfully practised, than if persons unused to such occupations are, by military superintendence, compelled to attempt them, and after seven or fourteen years of involuntary apprenticeship, are suffered to withdraw their incipient utility. The facility of acquiring wealth is said to be great in New South Wales. This is a temptation strong enough to produce the wanderings of frugal industry, were not the expence of the migration so heavy. Examples of prudence and good conduct, docility to instruction, sleight in the mechanic arts, reverence

for property, these are the elements of nascent civilization and durable prosperity: but thrift-spending, and intemperance, and indolence, which characterise almost all convicts, can only tend to render their own maintenance a perpetual burden, and the children they rear an unproductive anarchic mob.

The savages of nature, however, are still more indisciplinable than those who wilder back into savagism from the nurseries of cultivated society.

"It was distressing to observe, that every endeavour to civilize these people proved fruitless. Although they lived among the inhabitants of the different settlements, were kindly treated, fed, and often clothed, yet they were never found to possess the smallest degree of gratitude for such favours. Even Ben-nil-long was as destitute of this quality as the most ignorant of his countrymen. It is an extraordinary fact, that even their children, who had been bred up among the white people, and who, from being accustomed to follow their manner of living, might have been supposed to ill relish the life of their parents, when grown up, have quitted their comfortable abodes, females as well as males, and taken to the same savage mode of living, where the supply of food was often precarious, their comforts not to be called such, and their lives perpetually in danger. As a proof of the little personal safety which they enjoyed, a young woman, the wife of a man named Ye-ra-ni-be, both of whom had been brought up in the settlement from their childhood, was cruelly murdered at the brick fields, by her husband, assisted by another native, Cole-be, who first beat her dreadfully about the head (the common mode of chastising their women), and then put an end to her existence by driving a spear through her heart.

"When spoken to or censured for robbing the maize grounds, these people, to be revenged, were accustomed to assemble in large bodies, burn the houses of the settlers, if they stood in lonely situations, and frequently attempted to take their lives; yet they were seldom refused a little corn when they would ask for it. It was imagined that they were stimulated to this destructive conduct by some run-away convicts who were known to be among them at the time of

their committing these depredations. In order to get possession of these posts, a proclamation was issued, calling on them by name to surrender themselves within fourteen days, declaring them outlaws if they refused, and requiring the inhabitants, as they valued the peace and good order of the settlement, and their own security, to assist in apprehending and bringing them to justice. The governor also signified his determination, if any of the natives could be detected in the act of robbing the settlers, to hang one of them in chains upon a tree near the spot, as a terror to the others. Could it have been foreseen, that this was their natural temper, it would have been wiser to have kept them at a distance, and in fear, which might have been effected without so much of the severity which their conduct had sometimes compelled him to exercise towards them. But the kindness which had been shewn them, and the familiar intercourse with the white people, in which they had been indulged, tended only to make them acquainted with those concerns in which they were the most vulnerable, and brought on all the evils which they suffered from them."

At page 63 occurs a coloured engraving of the ornithorhynchus, or duck-billed amphibious mole, an animal peculiar to the lagoons in New South Wales: its manners have not yet been sufficiently studied to ascertain whether it can be employed to catch fish, or render other services to man.

An anecdote related in the seventh chapter, well portrays the vindictive manners of the native blacks.

"December.] A circumstance occurred about the beginning of this month, that excited much interest in the town of Sydney, and great commotion among the natives. Two of these people, both of them well known in the settlement, (Cole-be, the friend of Ben-nil-long, and one of the Ye-ra-ni-bes) meeting in the town, while their bosoms were yet swelling on occasion of some former difference, attacked each other. Cole-be had always been remarked for his activity, but Ye-ra-ni-be had more youth than his adversary, and was reckoned a perfect match for him. On closing on each other, with their clubs, until which time Cole-be had not gained any advantage over Ye-ra-ni-be, the handle of Ye-ra-ni-be's shield drew out, and it consequently fell from his grasp: while stooping to take it up, the other struck him on the head with a club, which staggered him, and followed his blow while he was in that defenceless situation.

"Cole-be knew that this would ensure him the appellation of jee-run, or coward, and that the friends of Ye-ra-ni-be would as certainly take up his cause. As the conse-

quences might be very serious if he should die of the blow, he thought it prudent to abscond for a while, and Ye-ra-ni-be was taken care of by some of his white friends. This happened on the 10th, and on the 16th he died. In this interval he was constantly attended by some of his male and female associates, particularly by his two friends, Collins (for Gnung-a-Gnung-a still went by the late judge advocate's name), and Mo-roo-bra. On one of the nights when a most dismal song of lamentation had been sung over him, in which the women were the principal performers, his male friends, after listening for some time with great apparent attention, suddenly started up, and seizing their weapons, went off in a most savage rage, determined on revenge. Knowing pretty well where to meet with Cole-be, they beat him severely, but would not kill him, reserving that gratification of their revenge until the fate of their companion should be decided. On the following night, Collins and Mo-roo-bra attacked a relation of Cole-be's, Boo-ra-wan-ye, whom they beat about the head with such cruelty, that his recovery was doubtful. As their vengeance extends to all the family and relations of a culprit, what a misfortune it must be to be connected with a man of a choleric disposition!

"Ye-ra-ni-be was buried the day after his decease, by the side of the public road, below the military barracks. He was placed, by his friends, upon a large piece of bark, and laid into a grave, which was formed by them after our manner (only not so deep), they seeming in this instance to be desirous of imitating our custom. Ben-nil-long assisted at the ceremony, placing the head of the corpse, by which he stuck a beautiful war-ra-taw, and covering the body with the blanket on which he died. Being supplied with some spades, the earth was thrown in by the by-standers, during which, and indeed throughout the whole of the ceremony, the women howled and cried excessively; but this was the effect of the violent gusts of passion into which the men every moment threw themselves. At this time many spears were thrown, and some blows were inflicted with clubs; but no serious mischief ensued. On the death of Cole-be all seemed determined; for the man whose life he had in so cowardly a manner taken away, was much beloved by his countrymen.

"With this design, a number of natives assembled, a few days afterwards, before the barracks, breathing revenge; at which time a young man, a relation to the object of their vengeance, received so many wounds, that he was nearly killed; and a lad, who was also related to him (Nan-bar-ray, the same who formerly lived with Mr. White, the principal surgeon), was to have been sacrificed; but he was saved for the present by the appearance of a soldier, who had been

sent to the place with him for his protection; and it was thought that when the present tumult against his uncle (for Cole-be was the brother of the boy's father) had subsided, nothing more would be thought of him.

"Cole-be finding that he must either submit to the trial usual on such occasions, or live in the continual apprehension of being taken off by a midnight murder and a single hand, determined to come forward, and suffer the business to be decided one way or the other. Having signified his resolution, a day was appointed, and he repaired, armed, to the place of rendezvous. The rage and violence shewn by the friends of the deceased were indescribable; and Cole-be would certainly have expiated his offence with his life, but for the interference of several of the military, before whose barrack the affair took place. Although active, and extremely *au fait* in the use of the shield, he was overpowered, and, falling beneath their spears, would certainly have been killed on the spot, but several soldiers rushed in, and prevented their putting him to death where he lay; he himself, from the many severe wounds which he had received, being wholly incapable of making any resistance. His friends, the soldiers, lifted him from the ground, and between them bore him into the barracks.

"Ben-nil-long, the particular friend and companion of Cole-be, was present at this meeting; but, it was supposed, without intending to take any part in it either way. The atrocity of his friend's conduct had been such, that he could not openly espouse his quarrel; perhaps he had no stomach to the fight; and certainly, if he could avoid it, he would not, by appearing against him, add to the number of his enemies. He was armed, however, and unencumbered with clothing of any kind, and remained a silent spectator of the tumultuous scene, until the moment when the soldiers rushed in to save the life of Cole-be. His conduct here became inexplicable. On a sudden he chose to be in a rage at something or other, and threw a spear among the soldiers, which dreadfully took effect on one of them, entering at his back and coming out at the belly, close to the navel. For this he would instantly have been killed on the spot, had not Mr. Smith, the provost marshal, interfered and brought him away, boiling with the most savage rage; for he had received a blow on the head with the butt end of a musquet.

"It became necessary to confine him during the night, as well to prevent the mischief with which he threatened the white people, as to save him from the anger of the military, and on the following morning he quitted the town."

The XIVth. chapter contains a very interesting account of the return of the  
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Norfolk sloop, from a coasting voyage of discovery, and enumerates many small islands, bays and creeks, whose position and produce was in some degree ascertained by the enterprise. To Mr. Bass, who had the conduct of this expedition, geography is indebted for the new information that a strait separates Van Diemen-land from the continent of New-Holland. This whole narrative, too long for our transcription, seems worth publishing in a separate pamphlet.

Mr. Collins mentions, that in May 1800, some propositions were received from the Bengal government respecting the transportation of Indian convicts to New South Wales. This measure could not be acceded to without consulting the British ministry; but it has no doubt received by this time their sanction; as it will offer motives for a regular intercourse with Hindostan, which cannot fail to secure many commercial accommodations and useful instructions to the colonists. It will be a means too of stocking the settlement with a far more various and mixed population, some of whom will, no doubt, introduce habits of life more adapted to the region and climate, than natives of Britain can be expected to carry out, or, by the short experience of a single generation, to acquire. A first principle of colonization is,—stock your settlement with the greatest possible variety of races and ranks of men, and after observing attentively their relative thrift, seek your recruits chiefly in those races and ranks, which are found then and there to prosper.

"It was proposed by the government of Bengal to victual and maintain their convicts for one year after their landing; after which they were to be supported by the settlement. As such a description of people might be very usefully employed there, and would be far more manageable than the convicts from England or Ireland, it was hoped that the plan might meet the approbation of his majesty's ministers.

"It should seem that some favourable ideas of the settlement had been obtained in India; for by the same conveyance three gentlemen of respectability addressed the governor, stating to him their desire of embarking their families and property, and becoming settlers; but as they required a ship to be sent for them, to be furnished with a certain number of convicts for a limited time, and a quantity of live stock, all of which must be attended with a considerable expence to the crown, the governor, though

well aware of the advantages which the colony would derive from having such persons resident among them, found himself compelled to lay their proposals before the secretary of state."

A curious anecdote occurs in p. 299, illustrative of the superstitions and manners of the natives.

"Information had some time before this been received of the death of Wilson, known among the natives by the name of Bun-boë. This young man, while a convict, and after he had served the period of his transportation, preferred the life of a vagabond to that of an industrious man. He had passed the greater part of his time in the woods with the natives, and was suspected of instructing them in those points where they could injure the settlers with the greatest effect, and most safety to themselves. In obedience, however, to a proclamation from the governor, he surrendered himself, and promising amendment, as nothing but a love of idleness could be fixed upon him, was forgiven; and being supplied with a musquet and ammunition, he was allowed to accompany such parties as made excursions into the woods, and at other times to shoot kangaroos and birds. By him, the first bird of paradise ever seen in this country had been shot; and it was his custom to live upon the flesh of such birds as he killed, bringing in with him their skins.

"With the wood natives he had sufficient influence to persuade them that he had once been a black man, and pointed out a very old woman as his mother, who was weak and credulous enough to acknowledge him as her son. The natives who inhabit the woods are not by any means so acute as those who live upon the sea coast. This difference may perhaps be accounted for by their sequestered manner of living, society contributing much to the exercise of the mental faculties. Wilson presumed upon this mental inability; and, having imposed himself upon them as their countryman, and created a fear and respect of his superior powers, indulged himself in taking liberties with their young females. However deficient they might be in reasoning faculties, he found to his cost that they were susceptible of wrongs; for, having appropriated against her inclination a female to his own exclusive accommodation, her friends took an opportunity, when he was not in a condition to defend himself, to drive a spear through his body, which ended his career for this time, and left them to expect his return at some future period in the shape of another white man."

In a very interesting letter from the intelligent, respectable, and unfortunate Mr. Palmer, whom the undistinguishing intolerance of a once domineering faction drove to New South Wales, a similar circumstance is mentioned.

"Seven convicts," he says, "lived five years among the natives. I have repeatedly conversed with them. They were received and supported with singular kindness and hospitality. If these people are to be believed, they took the whites to be the ghosts of their departed friends, whom death had made white. They enquired very particularly after their fathers, mothers, and all their relatives, and how they employed themselves." This letter is dated the 14th of August 1797.

An amusing parody of the alarm in England took place in September 1800.

"September.] In the beginning of this month, rumours being circulated, that the prisoners lately sent from Ireland for the crime of sedition, and for being concerned in the late rebellion in that country, had formed a plan for possessing themselves of the colony, that their arms (pikes manufactured since their arrival) were in great forwardness, and their manner of attack nearly arranged; a committee of officers was appointed by the governor to examine all suspected persons, and ascertain whether any such murderous design existed.

"In the course of their inquiries, the committee saw occasion to imprison Harold, the Roman Catholic priest, who, from his language and behaviour, was suspected of being concerned in the intended insurrection. He then confessed that the reports of it were founded in truth, and engaged to discover where the weapons were concealed, of which it was said many hundreds had been fabricated. In his confession he implicated several of his countrymen, who, on being questioned, in their turn accused several others; and the committee adjudged them all to be deserving of punishment; but Harold was never able to fulfil his engagement of producing the weapons. These he first said were buried in the ground belonging to a settler, which he pointed out; but on minutely searching every part of it, nothing like a pike could be found. Failing in this, he then said they were sunk in the lower part of the harbour; but even here they could not be discovered. He tampered with an Irishman to make a few that he could produce in support of his assertion; but the man had, unfortunately for him, been transported for having been a dealer in pikes, and declared that he would not involve himself a second time for them. He at last found a man to fabricate one out of an old hinge of a barn door, but this bore too evidently the marks of imposition to go down with every one; and his tale met with little or no credit. There was evidently a design to create an alarm; and this man Harold, from declaring that he alone, through his influence as their priest, was able to come at the facts, was

supposed to be aiming solely at making himself of consequence in the colony. He had applied to the governor for permission to officiate as their priest; and if well affected to the government, of which there were but too many doubts, he might have been of much use to the colony in that capacity.

"In consequence of these alarms, and as much as possible to do away their effects, by increasing the armed force of the colony, a certain number of the most respectable inhabitants were formed into two volunteer associations of fifty men each, and styled the Sydney and Parramatta Loyal Associated Corps. Each was commanded by a captain, with two lieutenants, and a proportionate number of non-commissioned officers. The whole were supplied with arms and ammunition, of which they were instructed in the use by some sergeants of the New South Wales corps, and their alarm-post was fixed at the front of Government House\*."

At p. 316 occurs a register of all the shipping which has visited Port Jackson, from various parts of the globe, whence it appears, that in however insignificant a point of view the colony may in general have been held, individuals have found in it a convenient port of refreshment and an advantageous market for speculation. Many remarks occur which tend to infuse the suspicion that for want of causing the country to be pro-

perly surveyed by able naturalists previous to the establishment of any settlement, very improper situations have been chosen. In most cases the mouth of the largest discoverable river, or rather the highest part of it, to which merchant ships can ascend conveniently, is the place, which will eventually concentrate the produce of the interior and the importations from abroad, and become the seat of communication and government.

The excellent annalist of the colony in New South Wales spent in that country the nine years of its infancy, and assisted to overcome the first difficulties and deterring hardships, with which in that rude state it required no common fortitude and patience to struggle, no common judgment and skill to struggle with success. Yet he laments in his concluding paragraph, that this eventually proved the destruction of his brightest prospects, and that by his services there he was precluded from succeeding to the proper situation in his professional line. We are happy to hear that Mr. Addington has repaired the long neglect of his predecessors, by conferring on Mr. Collins an adapted and distinguished appointment.

ART. V. *Travels in Spain in 1797 and 1798.* By FREDERICK AUGUSTUS FISCHER; with an Appendix on the Method of Travelling in that Country. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 420.

"In this work the author's object was to exhibit the first impressions of a traveller, and to give a living picture of the country. He has endeavoured to note those particulars which have escaped other writers, and on which the plan of Bourgoanne only permitted him slightly to touch, as for instance the present state of literature in Spain, and the mode of travelling there, which is the subject of the appendix. The reader will therefore consider these sheets as a series of practical notes to that and other works, and in this point of view the author hopes his labours may be associated with those of that distinguished writer."

BOURGOANNE's travels were translated soon after their first publication. The author who has since been ambassador to Madrid, has so materially altered and improved them, as almost to make a

new work. The latter edition is certainly the best account of Spain.

The present traveller embarked on board a Dutch vessel from Rotterdam, sailing under Prussian colours. They were thrice brought to by our cruisers; the first, M. Fischer says, bade them pass and be damned! The boatswain of the second, a privateer, who searched them, was contented with some bottles of gin, a dozen pipes, and a Dutch cheese. The third time they were in more danger of detection.

"On a sudden we descried to leeward a frigate, which by her manner of sailing we judged to be English. Our captain wishing to escape her, endeavoured this time to take advantage of the wind and set two more sails, but in spite of all our exertions, the frigate

\* As these were formed upon the footing of the volunteer corps in England, it is to be wished that they may as fully entitle themselves to the praise and thanks of the community which they were raised to defend, as those honourable associations have merited and gained from theirs.



manœuvred better than us, and in less than two hours we were within gun-shot, when she made a signal to drop astern, which, however, on account of the violence of the wind, we could not immediately comply with. They fired therefore a second gun with ball, and our old captain was half dead with fright. Upon this the mate, as a sign of submission, hauled up the foresail, while part of the frigate's company got into her long-boat, and we having now wore the ship, saw sixteen men rowing towards us.

"At first the captain gave up all for lost. He concealed a small purse of money in his woollen wig, put a tin case containing his *papers of resource*, as he called them, into his large breeches, drank three glasses of gin, one immediately after another, and with an air of melancholy and despair, and in a cold sweat, waited the arrival of the enemy.

"Their leader was a little well-dressed man, who came on board with six of his people. According to custom he perused all our papers, repeating aloud, as he read over our manifest, *ten barrels of beer*, and asked us with a sarcastic air, "What have the French no more wine? At length, after reading our passports three times, he said in a friendly voice, "Very well, you may pursue your voyage." On hearing these words, our captain, who had till then been rooted to the ground, and trembled like an aspen leaf, recovered his speech, : "Would you like," said he with a smile, "to take any thing, some biscuit and cheese, or a glass of double distilled gin?" The Englishman, however, refused, and quitted our ship, to the great disappointment of his men, who had been reckoning upon a good share of prize-money, "Now," said our captain, with an air of triumph, "I hope those rogues will not trouble us any more. I have plenty to stop their mouths with."

This anecdote may be useful to our naval officers in another war; however plausible neutral papers may appear at first, it seems that if they go to the *bottom* in their examination, they may find arguments *a posteriori* for seizing the vessel.

Mr. Fischer travelled by land from Bourdeaux to Bayonne. Resin candles are used in this country. This fact, which has escaped M. Fischer's notice, is mentioned, because the society for the encouragement of arts and manufactures have offered a premium for such an invention. When the Spanish army were by Fontarabia, these candles were supplied to the troops, on account of the rancidness of their train oil.

From Bayonne he embarked in a *chasse-marin*, bound for Bilbao. The weather was unfavourable; and obliged

them to put into the little port of Guetaria.

"This village resounded with tambourines; in the balconies towards the sea were women in veils; and the boats in which we crossed the bay were full of young girls singularly dressed, and whose hair floated in long brown tresses. The appearance of a crowd of monks, in large black cloaks, and covered with immense round hats, walking on the dyke, the dress of our pilots, their culottes adorned with ribbons and black velvet, their red waistcoats, and *redecillas*, or hair nets: in a word, a total change in every appearance, and innumerable sensations, which I cannot describe, apprised me I was in Spain.

"The captain proposed to take me to an inn, to which I consented. Having landed, we passed through an arch-way without gates into a small square, where the people were dancing the fandango, though it was now so dark I could scarcely see; and my guide recommended me to an old woman, whom we found in a smoky kitchen, whither I entered with a firm resolution to accommodate myself to whatever I should find.

"In the province of Biscay it is well known, that the ancient Cantabrian language is preserved, and the Castellano, or Spanish, is spoken very little, or very ill; so that it was with the greatest difficulty that my landlady and myself could make ourselves understood. However, I had no sooner answered her first enquiry, whether I was a Christian, by which is meant a Catholic, in the affirmative, than she was so pleased with me, that she brought me a stone bottle of delicious wine, and a large loaf of bread, made of flour and maize in equal quantities; but of a very pleasant taste. She had nothing else to offer, except a dozen fried sardines, or sprats, with which I was obliged to be contented.

"When I retired to rest, I found no other bed than a pailasse of maize leaves, laid on vine twigs, and two blankets; and soon after four muleteers (*arrieros*) came in, and occupied the two other beds. One of them spoke French tolerably well, was extremely pleased to find I was a *Christian*, and I could not refuse tasting his wine.

"Next morning I found, in the kitchen, a woman younger than the former, but scarcely at all handsome. This was the old woman's daughter, and mistress of the house. She spoke Castellano with tolerable purity, and knew so well how to ask me questions, that my monosyllabic answers sufficed to inform her of the object of my journey. "Senor," said she, "la grazia de Dios acompañará a om, Espana es el mejor pays del mundo. Las almas Christianas se alegrarán de ver a un hermano, y le ayudarán a om, en todas sus empresas." The grace of God, sir, will accompany you. Spain is

the best country in the world. The souls of Christians will rejoice in seeing a brother, and will aid you in all your undertakings.

"She then led me into the sala, or great room, which was tolerably neat. Meanwhile her husband returned, and addressed me in bad French. Besides being an inn-keeper, he was the surgeon of this small place; and, in the last war with France, had learned a little French of the soldiers who had been quartered in his house. I looked over his books, among which I found translations of Dr. Buchan's Domestic Medicine, and of Tissot's *Avis au Peuple*, a Complete Treatise on Surgery, a Treatise on the Materia Medica, and a Dissertation on Midwifery. All this convinced me of the progress of knowledge in Spain, which I observed with pleasure."

Guetaria contains near 300 inhabitants only, and of these ten are ecclesiastics! The only well built house there belongs to an *Indiano*; that is, a man who has made a fortune in America: he is worth about a thousand dollars per annum; but his countrymen believe him possessed of millions. His house is the only one that has glass windows, iron balconies, drinking glasses, arm chairs, or pewter plates. Two girls carry him in a sedan when he goes out; and his only enjoyment seems to consist in smoking the best Havannah segars, of which he has above 200 weight in his house. M. Fischer was detained here six days, and his bill amounted only to two dollars.

When the wind changed, our traveller soon reached the flourishing town of Bilboa.

"Every object around me here has something very singular in its appearance, and their forms are quite original and foreign. The rooms are covered with floor-cloth representing bull-fights; the seats mean, old fashioned, and extremely low; the floors are brick, and the walls full of saints and crucifixes.

"In the old town the houses are built mostly of wood; in the new, of brick. The former are destitute of art or convenience; but in the latter we find a prodigious improvement of taste: in lieu of the heavy balconies of wood, they are of iron, and very neatly manufactured; and in lieu of the wooden shutters, and small round panes of glass used in the old houses, we find large panes, and Venetian blinds. The only thing that astonishes and disgusts foreigners, is the finding certain conveniences placed in the kitchen, and close to the chimney."

If Bilboa had been the last place in Spain which M. Fischer visited, instead of the first, he would have been asto-

nished to find such conveniences anywhere.

Bilboa is beautifully situated in a valley, close to the river Ibeyzabal, about three hours distance from the sea. The surrounding scenery has a Swiss character, and the mountains every where bear testimony to the mildness of the climate, and the industry of the people. The town contains about 13,000 inhabitants, crowded in high houses. A very small apartment, with an alcove, lets for fifty dollars a year. New houses were building every day, because the war compelled the rich capitalists so to employ their money.

The great festival of the Corpus Domini was celebrated when M. Fischer was here.

"I am now to give you a description of some festivals that were celebrated soon after my arrival here.

"The first was the Corpus Domini, or Holy Thursday, one of the principal Roman Catholic festivals, built on one of the most important dogmas of that religion, and at the same time the most lucrative for the clergy. It is this popular religious fete, that gives date to the most important civil transactions, and the principal domestic events. It also gives occasion, or affords a pretext, for a multitude of public and private amusements; and for that reason, as well as for many others, is in high veneration with the peculiar protégés of Saint Anthony, I mean the taylor.

"On the eve of this day, all the church towers were illuminated, large fires were lighted on all the mountains, and, from two in the morning, all the bells were in motion. At six the streets were full of people, crowding round the altars, which were richly decorated, and the balconies were loaded with spectators; but the procession did not begin till near ten o'clock.

"Four gigantic figures, two men and two women, dressed up in a ridiculous manner, began the march. They had long periwigs made of flax, and coiffures of red oiled cloth, ancient dresses, such as copes, and other strange and grotesque habiliments. They had snuff-boxes as large as a plate, and fans an ell long. They pretended to be about to embrace the spectators in the balconies, which they almost reached, and, at the corner of every street, danced a very pretty fandango. "But how," you will ask, "could all this be contrived?" Nothing more easy. The figures, except the head and arms, are mere machines dressed up, beneath which are men who give them motion.

"After these came a band of music, and a multitude of angelos, or little boys and girls, mostly in rich dresses, with long pasteboard wings, covered with satin. It is

a fashion for good families thus to dress up their children for this procession.

"The superstition and the vanity of parents are alike deeply concerned, and make every one rival his neighbour, and endeavour, if possible, to surpass him. The children are loaded with jewels, and their heads are shaded by a tower of hair, in order to have long tresses floating between their wings. They are covered with every possible decoration, caresses are lavished on them, their pockets filled with sweatmeats, and every one beholds them with a sort of respect, which the little creatures seem to command by their proud and magisterial air.

"After these came the various confraternities, with their respective saints, mostly in wood, and tolerably well sculptured. They were dressed in velvet or silk, and crowned with flowers. A second band of music, and clouds of incense, announced the *VENERABLE*, that is, the host, and a crowd of men and women, dressed in gala, closed the procession.

"If the morning was consecrated to devotion, the afternoon was appropriated to the *corrida*, or bull-fight. This species of popular festival will be the more interesting to you, as it is but little known in Germany. The expectation excited by this amusement, the preparation of the scene of action, and the arrival of the bulls, had thrown all Bilbao into a ferment; nor was there any thing spoken of but the *Corpus Domini*, and the bull-fight, and the great and little children thought of nothing but the approaching combat, and amused themselves with jousting at artificial bulls. During the last three days, the bulls were led about the town in grand procession, amid the acclamations of the populace; and at night in particular the square was filled with an innumerable crowd of people.

"At each end of the square an amphitheatre was erected, and the whole inclosed with high palisades. The benches and balconies on either side bent under the weight of the spectators; the church steeples, the roofs of the houses, the neighbouring bridge, the buildings beyond the river, even the hills and Franciscan convent upon the height, were all full of people; and in the square itself was a crowd of *aficionados*, or amateurs, who came there to be active in striking the bulls, but so as to escape, in case of need, by leaping over the palisades.

"In speaking of this diversion, we must observe a distinction between the *corridas de toros*, and the *corridas de novillos*; the former are the great bull-fight, properly so called, in which the combatants are on horseback, and the bulls must be killed; descriptions of which every where abound. There are also engravings, published in twelve plates, of various sizes, representing the twelve principal scenes of a bull-fight. These are taken

from nature, and express the minutest details. There is a copy of them, in small, in the last (German) edition of Bourgoanne's travels. The *corridas de novillos* are combats of young heifers, in which the beast only receives slight wounds, and is irritated and provoked into fury. But to return to my description.

"The square was covered with sand, and the place where the bulls were kept was by the side of one of the amphitheatres. It was open at top, and each bull had a separate stall. Here several *aficionados* mounted on the planks, and irritated the bulls to make them furious. At length the *corregidor*, or mayor, gave the signal, when a serjeant, dressed in white, opened the inclosure, and had scarcely leaped out of the way before the bull furiously rushed into the arena.

"Several men on foot expected him with *banderillas*, or darts, but he ran impetuously toward the four sides of the square, seeking a way out. In the middle of the crowd, who held out pikes, hay-forks, sticks, and parasols, the *aficionados* were distinguishable, emulating each other, and striving who first should place his hat or his cloak on the horns of the beast, or strike him. But one could scarcely avoid laughing at the agility and ridiculous postures with which they scrambled over the balustrades, as soon as the bull seemed seriously to aim at them. But the *banderillas* were soon infinitely multiplied, and in a short time the bull had no retreat; he was covered with them, and flew away several times, roaring and shedding torrents of blood. The spectators, desirous of varying their amusement, now cried on all sides for the dogs (*los perros! los perros!*) and at length a great bull-dog was let loose at him.

"A new combat now commenced, in which the different instinct of the two animals was apparent, the one endeavouring to conquer by art, the other by force. The dog always attacked his enemy sideways, and turned off at every motion of the bull, who always kept his horns ready to toss him in the air, which he frequently did. If the dog avoided the blow, and at length succeeded in seizing the bull; the latter dragged him along in fury, and struggled to trample him under foot, or dash him in pieces against the inclosure. Another dog was then set at him, and he remained without defence. He still dragged the dogs indeed along, but the latter kept their hold, and continued to hang by his ears.

"To separate them, eight very strong men advanced into the arena, seized the bull by the tail, to deprive him of the use of his strength, then took him by the hind feet, threw him down, and pinched him in a tender part. Thus he lay quite faint and lifeless, and the dogs immediately quitted their hold. A few minutes after the bull rose again, roaring, trembling, and seeming again

to seek the enemy. At this moment some cows were sent into the area, and he followed them very readily into the stalls. Another bull was then turned out, and the same scene renewed six or seven times successively. During the fight no music was heard, except that a few beats of the drum announced, from time to time, a change of scene. During the intervals, the spectators took their refreshments (*merienda*). They showed their impatience by shaking in concert their handkerchiefs in the air, and applauded any masterly address (*golpos excelentes*) by acclamations of *bien! bien!*

"Surely nothing but early habit and education can attach the Spaniards to this cruel diversion; nothing but a mistaken ambition, a want of cultivation, and the ignorance of man's true pleasures, can nourish this barbarous and inhuman passion; and we ought to blush for mankind, when we behold our brethren making a festival of such atrocity.

"At night I was witness to a very comic scene. The square was illuminated with faggots of fir, and some barrels, covered with whale oil, in the middle, and the place was crowded with people, when all on a sudden, a young bull was let loose among them, with his horns tipped with leather (*embolado*); and the fires, the crowd, and the music, so terrified him, that he rushed among the spectators, and threw them down by dozens. At length a cloak was thrown over him, rockets and squibs were fastened on him, and this peasantry, which at first appeared likely to prove serious, contributed to the diversion of the people."

The political constitution of Biscay is slightly touched upon. That province is not properly subject to, but only under the protection of the Spanish crown. The king of Castile, Leon, Arragon, &c. is only lord of Biscay. It has neither garrisons, custom-houses, stamps, nor excise; nor can any order of the Spanish government be executed there, till it has been ratified by the provincial government. Our traveller however remarks, that the privileges of the provinces, and the pretensions of the crown, are very often in opposition, and that the former are not always victorious. Every Biscayan is an Hidalgo: the ancient Cantabrian nobility, they say, has been preserved there uncontaminated by any Moorish or foreign-mixture. We wish Mr. Fischer had passed a longer time in this province. An accurate account of a people who, though Spaniards, are free, and cleanly and industrious, would be exceedingly interesting. Their language too should be studied; it is one of the oldest languages in Europe, and is

certainly neither Celtic nor Teutonic in its origin.

The account of Mr. Fischer's journey to Madrid is minute, and animated; and bears every mark of accuracy. The magnificent mountain scenery, the slow travelling, the misery of the *fosadas*, the motley guests, the superstition, and the liveliness of the peasantry, are all admirably, and we know enough of the country to add, faithfully painted. Madrid has been often described, but never so painted to the life as by this German, who possesses all the vivacity of a Frenchman. He and Bourgoanne, indeed, seem to have exchanged their national characters, and we find in the French writer that patient and laborious research which is the honourable characteristic of the Germans. Let us look at this camera-obscura picture, this *panoramic* description of the Spanish metropolis.

"Let us now take a view of one of the most animated streets; as for instance, the Red de San Luis. What a varied crowd! What a confusion of sounds! Women in black, and veiled; men in long cloaks; water-carriers, fruit-sellers, magnificent equipages, dusty diligences, light calesas, waggons drawn by mules, and groaning under an enormous weight; a multitude of asses, with their pack-saddles and bells, and herds of goats, with peasants going from door to door to milk them. Further on, blind musicians, singing their *tornadillas*, or popular songs, and *alguazils* crying the orders of police; a crowd of gallegos, or porters, processions of chaplets, guards following the drum, or confraternities escorting a funeral, and singing psalms; the tinkling of bells at all the neighbouring churches; and lastly, the solemn procession of the *venerable*, or host, when the bells of the children of the choir being heard, every one kneels down; all tongues are silent, and all hats off; all the carriages stop, and the tumultuous mass seems instantaneously petrified; but two minutes are scarcely elapsed before the accustomed clangor is renewed.

"It has struck eleven, and a troop of officers of the guard with brilliant accoutrements, monks in black cloaks, charming women, in veils embroidered with gold, holding the arms of the *cortejos*, and a party-coloured crowd of all kinds wrapped up in their cloaks, pour from every street to read the advertisements and posting bills (*noticias sueltas*): "To-day there will be a sermon and music at the Franciscans; there will be an opera, and such and such plays: to-morrow there will be a bull-fight, or the novena of San Felipe commences: lost yesterday, at the Prado, a little girl; and this morning,

chaplet: stolen, three days ago, such and such a jewel; if it has been taken through want, and if the thief will restore it by his confessor, he shall receive a handsome reward: the day after to-morrow will be sold, by auction, a large crucifix, an image of the Madonna, and a nacimiento (or case containing the infant Jesus, with the two other persons of the Trinity, in wood, plaster, &c.): this evening the procession of the rosary will set out about eight o'clock."

"Meanwhile the square is constantly filling, so that it becomes very difficult to pass. Here are criers of journals, stunning the passengers with their noise; people reading the gazette for a quarto (a farthing); Walloon and Swiss guards offering goods for sale; hackney-coaches plying for fares; old clothesmen, cobblers, sharpers, sellers of images and segars, and hucksters of all kinds tormenting the passengers; there a numerous circle crowd round an ingenious memorialista, or notary, a very profitable occupation, and abounding in every street, for nothing is to be obtained by verbal applications, even to a passport, for which a *memorialito* must pass through an infinity of offices; and there a lot, with a dial to be pulled; next him a juggler, with dancing monkeys; and farther on goods selling by auction: women ogling the passengers also mingle in the crowd, while capuchins, with long beards, parade with gravity and solemnity. Here you are attacked by a couple of ballad-singers, and there annoyed by an importunate beggar; to all which is added the noise of carriages and calesas, and of the neighbouring fountain, re-echoing with the loud hallooing voices of the water-carriers.

"But it strikes *one*, and the crowd disappears; the porters range themselves near the houses to sleep the siesta, or eat their dinner; all the shops are shut; at the corners of the streets the hucksters cover their stalls, and stretch themselves beside them on the pavement: the place is cleared, the most noisy streets are quite deserted and dead, and a solitary passenger is rarely seen. But no sooner do the bells ring for vespers, than all is life again, and at four o'clock the place is crowded anew.

"At this time come the venders of cool water (*aguadores*) crying, "Agua fresca! agua fresquita! quien bebe? quien quiere? Aora viene de la fuente!" "Cool water, nice cool water! who drinks? who wants any water, just fresh from the fountain?" These men carry on their shoulders a large stone pitcher, fastened on with leather thongs, and keep goblets in tin vessels to drink out of; it is sold at a farthing the glass. Also orange-girls (*naranjeras*) crying, "Naranjas, naranjas! dos por tres quartos! por tres quartos dos!" "Oranges, oranges! two for three farthings, for three farthings two!"

"And lastly, the beggars; "Senor, una limosina! por Maria santissima! una limo-

sina a este pobrecito, que no puede ganar! una limosina por los dolores de Maria santissima!" "Sir, your charity, for the love of the holy virgin! your charity to a poor man that cannot work! your charity, by the pains of the holy virgin!" Then by degrees the various equipages go to the theatres, or the Prado, and on all sides company in chariots, on mules, and on borricos. At length it is twilight; the bells ring for the angelus, the lamps are lighted before the madonas, and in the houses, while the wine-sellers and lemonade-sellers light up their shops, and every where are seen little tables, with French rolls, and paper lanterns, "Que ricos! que tiernecitos! que blanditos!" "How rich! how fresh! how soft!" The noise of the passengers, the rumbling of carriages, increases every moment, and the whole square is full of people. Here guitars and voleros are heard, there a ballad-singer singing the last new ballad, and stories of men hanged; then a vigorous copper-coloured missionary preaching to a penitent populace, while his audience are appointing assignations."

The moral picture of this capital is sketched with the same freedom, and the same lively likeness. Of the present state of literature in Spain a favourable account is given. Mr. Fischer has added a list of all the journals and periodical works published in the kingdom. The Memorial Literario, a monthly publication, Miscellanies, instructive and curious, or Annals of Literature, Science, and Art; two monthly journals, printed at Salamanca and at Murcia; these are the chief works of this kind. A list of the most important publications of the last eight years is annexed. These form a very respectable catalogue, though necessarily an imperfect one. It will not be long before Spain will resume her rank in literature among the enlightened nations of Europe. There are no less than twenty-one public institutions in Madrid for the purpose of instruction and improvement; and sixty-one patriotic economical societies in the kingdom. The advancement of knowledge has been very rapid during the present and preceding reigns: arts, science, manufactures, have been uniformly encouraged by the government. Spain has been long diseased, but not with a mortal sickness. Her territory is yet whole; and the recollection which she cherishes of the great men whom she once could boast of, will produce others worthy to be their descendants. Her fortunes have long been ebbing, we believe the flow is at hand.



From Madrid our traveller proceeded, by way of Badajoz, to Seville and Cadiz. In speaking of some Portuguese drivers whom he met on the road, he says, "their jargon had the same effect on Spaniards, as that of Lower Saxony upon the inhabitants of the Upper." But the word jargon conveys a very unjust idea. The Portuguese and Spanish may be considered as the Ionic and Attic dialects of one language, both equally regular, and equally legitimate, the Portuguese the elder, and the more musical of the two. In his account of Badajoz, Mr. Fischer has inserted the following passage:

"It is well known, that at the commencement of the year 1797, England took into her pay several Portuguese regiments, formed of emigrants and Germans, calling themselves Swiss. These were sent to Trieste, Ancona, Civita Vecchia, and Corsica, and, when that island was evacuated, to Gibraltar and Lisbon. Desertion would have been impossible, had not the Portuguese assisted; but the husbandmen pointed out to the deserters the mountain-paths, and the frontier guards at Elvas suffer them to pass freely into Spain. They even do more; for, if they are musicians, or artists, they take them into their service. There were several of these at Elvas, when the English caused a demand to be made at Lisbon to have them delivered up. Upon this they were instantly sent with recommendations to Badajoz, where they soon found employment."

"It will therefore not seem matter of surprise, if I say, that they are seen to arrive here by dozens. The regiments were made up of vagabonds, of the common people, and of the wretched victims of fraud, who, from various motives, seek to recover their liberty; and they all join in complaining of the barbarous treatment of the English officers. As they arrive almost always nearly in a state of absolute wretchedness, a picket of wallon guards from Madrid, has been posted here, who, without difficulty, entice them into a new slavery for the most trifling compensation."

Mr. Fischer should not have reported this calumny, as ridiculous as it is false. That deserters should attempt to excite pity by inveighing against their officers is very probable, and, considering their situation, very excusable; but it is not excusable that an enlightened traveller should credit and publish their complaints; nor is it excusable that a *German* should libel English discipline. He might have given us a more authentic, and a more interesting military anecdote,

in the history of the Austrian soldiers taken in Italy, and sold by the French government to the Spaniards to work in the South American mines. This story a German ought to have related, and to have related with due indignation.

We have a yet heavier cause of complaint against this traveller.

"Those who disdain not to study the effect of climate on the character and manners of mankind, observe very sensible gradations from the most northern parts of Spain, to the southern extremity of Andalusia. The vivacity of the French on this side the Pyrenees is very remarkable; but the fire of the northern Spaniards changes in the south into a devouring flame. In Andalusia every thing bears the stamp of a burning climate; every sensation is strong and impetuous; every thing tends to extremes; every thing is immoderate, and without restraint; and, above all, in what regards the sexes."

"The beauty of the Andalusian women, their vivacity, their exalted fanaticism, their extreme sensibility, appear at Cadiz to exceed every thing observed elsewhere; but no where do the sexes seek each other with equal eagerness; in no part do the pleasures of sense seem so indispensable; in no part does the influence of the climate so easily disarm the severest moralists."

"But it is when the solano blows, that this impulse becomes most impetuous; for then the very air they breathe is on fire, and all the senses are involuntarily inebriated; the imagination is bewildered, and an irresistible instinct becomes authorized by example, and is excited by solicitation."

These geographical philosophists, these wretched reasoners, who would make morality depend upon degrees of latitude, cannot be too severely reprobated. Were the physical fact true, it would overthrow the moral order of the universe. Upon his own system we earnestly recommend Mr. Fischer to try the effect of a Kamtschatka climate; his morals are evidently relaxed, and require bracing. The same unpardonable spirit appears in his description of the *volero*. "How can such a dance," he says, "which refers so strongly to a passion that animates the whole of nature, and which alone can counterbalance the selfish principle, not be preferred to all other amusements?" The reader should be informed, for we will not transcribe Mr. Fischer's brothel-like description, that this dance is designed to portray what he calls the mysteries of love; that it is a relic of Moorish immorality, an invention of eastern lasciviousness, to sti-

mulate the appetite of impotence and age. This is the object of Mr. Fischer's enthusiastic admiration; and, as if to prove that his metaphysics are as feeble as his morals, he tells us gravely, that lust, the most intensely selfish of all passions, alone can counterbalance the selfish principle. It is mortifying to meet with passages so detestable, and so mischievous, in a work which would else have merited the warmest and most unqualified approbation.

From Cadiz Mr. Fischer proceeded to Xeres and Cordova. He merely passes through this latter city, and scarcely mentions its magnificent cathedral. Of a place so famous, and so interesting, in history, we could have wished a fuller account. Crossing the Sierra Morena, he came to Guarda Romana, one of the German towns.

"Had we not known, that this town formed a part of the well known colony, and that it was inhabited in great measure by Germans, we should have immediately guessed it: the little gardens before the houses, the vines that adorned the entrance, the flower-pots at the windows, the arbours at the house doors, the spinning-wheels, the form of dress, the neatness of the whole, a superior cultivation, fields of oats and barley, in short, every thing characterised the labours and industry of Germans.

"The ground still rose more and more, and the views became more varied and romantic: fields, olive plantations, and vineyards, were seen in all parts; the lands were irrigated by narrow streams of water, conveyed through wooden pipes; on all sides were plenteous meadows, full of cows, colts, horses, and young mules; and at length, by a broad and magnificent road, planted with poplars, aloes, fig trees, and olive trees, we arrived at Carolina, the metropolis of all the colonies on the Sierra Morena. In the neighbourhood of this place, the trees are separated from the road by stone fences. There are fountains, statues, and bridges, and we seemed approaching some great city: and, indeed, we were surprised to see these straight streets, and so large a number of well built houses; yet a certain air of melancholy, in the general appearance, recalls some painful remembrances.

"We met an old Alsatian, who was one of the first colony that came here thirty years ago. By his account, the wild appearance of the country at that period exceeded all that can be conceived, and the whole was covered with thick forests of fir, and infectious marshes. When the settlers perceived, that instead of the boasted land they were promised, they were to people a horrid desert, and instead of the abundance described,

did not even find tolerable water, many of them died of grief within the first year or two, and a still greater number of epidemic diseases. The regret with which this old man still spoke of his country, and the story he told us of his misfortunes, affected us much, and drew tears from our eyes."

La Mancha is in a wretched state, but every thing improved as the traveller approached the frontiers of Murcia.

"The olive plantations, the fertile fields that surround this place, announced the vicinity of the fine province which we here enter. From the summit of the mountain we saw that charming valley, which displayed itself before our eyes like a terrestrial paradise, and we hastened to arrive there.

"Here the air seemed softer, and the heavens more serene; the roads were bordered with gooseberry bushes, olive trees, vegetables, corn fields, melon grounds, gourds, and a great number of almond and mulberry trees. Every thing was in bloom, and luxuriantly fertile. A vast number of little channels, made according to a certain system, irrigate the soil, the exuberant profusion of which produces flowers and strawberries without even requiring cultivation.

"The roads that lead through this immense, this enchanting garden, are the finest in Spain. Magnificent bridges, well situated ventas, beautiful houses on the road side, the variety of the landscape, the gaiety of the husbandmen, every thing combines to make the traveller forget the fatigue and distance of his journey. Add to this the animated manners of the inhabitants, which give life to this enchanting scene. We were charmed with their unaffected cordiality, their neatness, and comfortable appearance.

"The men only wear a white shirt, or smock-frock, Scotch filibegs of the same colour, packthreaded shoes (alpargatas), and bluish sandals. To complete their dress, they put on a small black or scarlet jacket, so that the sleeves remain loose. The women wear blue calico petticoats, corsets trimmed with broad ribands, and twist their hair in a circle, in the Greek manner, upon the back part of the head. Round the neck they wear a string of large blue beads, with several little gold counters, and other ornaments that hung down upon their bosom. Their elegant and close dresses seem invented expressly to show their beautiful forms.

"At night we arrived at a venta, which may be compared, on account of its charming situation, with one of the most beautiful country-houses in the Vallais, the surrounding parts being covered with orange and fig trees, vineyards, and olive trees. Behind this inn is the small town of Moxente, half buried among gardens and bushes, and separated from the road by a rivulet, which was almost dry. The interior of this

town had an extremely cheerful appearance, and we fancied ourselves transported to Brigancieres, in Provence. All the inhabitants were sitting before their doors, and we heard people singing every where. We bought some oranges for a few quartos, but our purchase was unnecessary, for we might have gathered and eaten as many as we pleased beneath the trees themselves; though it is forbidden to take any away, that being considered as a theft."

In speaking of the popular ballads, one interesting and valuable fact is mentioned. For some time past, we are told, songs, at once moral and satirical, have been in circulation. It should seem as if some men of talents had attempted by these means to enlighten the common people. Mr. Fischer does not mention that pasquinades are by no

means uncommon in Spain; some of these, which were circulated during the war with England, were written with great severity, and considerable power.

From Valencia Mr. Fischer travelled to Barcelona, and thence embarked for Genoa. An appendix is added on the mode of travelling in Spain. The advice which it contains is sensible, except where it relates to religion. He recommends the traveller to conform to whatever the established system may require; this is by no means necessary. Every man of sense will show due respect to the religion of the country wherein he is travelling; but he may travel in Spain, and feel no inconvenience from eating meat on fast-days, or from neglecting mass.

ART. VI. *Journal of a Party of Pleasure to Paris, in the Month of August 1802; by which any Person intending to take such a Journey, may form an accurate Idea of the Expense that would attend it, and the Amusement he would probably receive: together with Thirteen Views from Nature, illustrative of French Scenery, aquatinted by J. HILL, from Drawings by the Author. 8vo. pp. 102. London 1802.*

THIS party of pleasure were in Paris barely a fortnight: but whilst some persons travel with their eyes shut, there are others who catch, at a single glance, "the living manners as they rise." One man will penetrate deeper into the character of the Parisians by once crossing the Pont Neuf, by a single dinner at the table d'hôte, and a lounge in the evening at the Palais Royal or Frescati, than another Milord Anglois who for a month together spends his money, and goes to sleep at the magnificent Hotel Grange Bateliere. The present amusing journal shews how much may be seen in a few days, if a man is determined to make the most of his time and the most of his money: it contains some useful directions for the English traveller, and will put him on his guard against the many impositions to which he will be exposed on his journey.

Our tourists took their own carriage over the water: a very expensive, inconvenient, and dangerous plan. The road from Calais to Paris, indeed, is very good, but the pavé is rough, and few English carriages are calculated to bear the *fatigue* even of this journey: if the intention is to proceed beyond Paris, and penetrate into the interior of the country, we do not hesitate to pronounce it absolutely impossible for an English carriage of the ordinary strength and

construction to complete the journey. Our "party of pleasure" found it necessary to repair one of the wheels on the road; and were compelled to pay sixty livres for a job which an English smith would have thought himself well paid for by a crown! The party applied to the mayor, who, it was very obvious, had it not in his power to enforce any abatement. Smollet would have knocked the fellow down, and got off for thirty livres. Within the last twelve-month we have ourselves travelled several hundred leagues in France, and although the cane was never actually applied to the shoulders of an impudent or an imposing rascal, we have more than once found immediate redress from shaking it over his head. Experience taught us, that the best way was to agree before-hand for whatever repairs may be necessary. At every town where you stop, half a dozen smiths instantly beset your carriage, and, without any solicitation, examine it with astonishing keenness. You may almost make your own terms with any of them before the job is done; and if you do not, they will make their own terms with you afterwards.

The views to this little book are admirably sketched; and our recollection enables us to vouch for the exact similitude of most of them.

ART. VII. *Voyage Pittoresque et Physico-Economique dans le Jura : par J. M. LEQUINIO. A Picturesque and Physico-Economical Excursion among the Mountains of Jura : by J. M. LEQUINIO. 8vo. 2 vol. about 500 pages each.*

M. LEQUINIO has all the ardour and animation of the most ardent and animated of his countrymen: after a smile of contempt at those numerous travellers who hurry along the roads without casting an eye of observation on the right hand or on the left; who traverse lakes and rivers; who pass over torrents, and toil through forests, with equal inattention; to whom the art of travelling is only the art of scattering money among inns, &c.; after a venial sneer at such persons, M. Lequinio contrasts with theirs his own feelings on the eve of his excursion. "I longed with impatience to examine a country of mountains; a country where, whilst the snows yet lodge on their lofty and deserted summits, the gardens at their feet are smiling with the ripening melon and various other fruits. Lakes at the loftiest heights, fountains at the summit of precipices, torrents which wear rocks away and make the atmosphere resound, vallies where day-light scarcely ever is seen, and dark forests, ever verdant, through whose thick foliage the sun and wind can scarcely penetrate—never could I think of these things but I burned with the ambition of beholding them."

Of books of travels, many read only the picturesque and descriptive: the more sluggish but more solid interest of others, is only to be excited by useful information on commercial and economical subjects. For this latter class a minuteness of detail and a severe exactness are essential, which the other, whose sole object is amusement, would be tired and disgusted with. In order to accommodate both these classes of readers, M. Lequinio has divided his work into two parts: the last and least of which he has strictly devoted to what he calls the *physiognomy* of the country, including in that comprehensive word, the geographical position of the department of Jura, its mountains, rivers, roads, and forests; the state of its agriculture and manufactures; its cultivated and spontaneous productions; its animals, wild and domestic; its vegetables, its minerals, and, in short, whatever appertains to its natural history, as well as to

its moral and physical constitution. "Should any female be induced to read my book, her particularly do I request, not to fatigue herself with the perusal of this second part: it will, indeed, be shorter than the first, but far less inviting. Stripped of its flowers, but little will it deserve the regards of a sex so justly avaricious of enjoyment, since it yields so much, and knows so well how to inspire it." If this is republican gallantry, of what could that of the old court be composed?

In the first part the author gives unrestricted play to his imagination and his feelings: Lequinio, like the exiled duke in "As you like it,"

"Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,  
Sermons in stones, and good in every thing."

Every mountain moralizes, and every stream gives inspiration. Interesting anecdotes, tales, and episodes of every description, enliven and embellish this animated production. "The mother of a family, solicitous to perform herself the sweetest and most important duty towards those young beings to whom her love has given birth, will here find the amusing and the easy method of familiarising her offspring to the instructive contemplation of nature; of disposing them, without severity, to meditation; and insensibly of instilling into their young minds the principles, at once, of the strictest and most engaging morality, by the influence of example alone, without apprehension of disgusting them by the dryness of precept."

One of the avowed objects, indeed, of this work, and it is an object of considerable importance, is to habituate young persons to observation: if a flower is to be gathered by going out of the road, M. Lequinio is never too fatigued or too indolent to go after it: his vigilance is unremitting, his taste is cultivated, and those who read his book will probably often find something to admire, yet new to them, which they have passed by, perhaps, unheedingly, a hundred times.

ART. VIII. *Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape: by*  
JOSEPH ACERBI. 4to. 2 vols. pp. 800, 17 plates.

IT is somewhat honourable to the literature of our country, that an Italian should thus have published his travels in the English language. The lands which he has visited are interesting, and almost unknown to English readers. Mr. Coxe's volumes are statistic and historical, and must be read for profit, not pleasure; that gentleman has always contented himself with hewing in the quarries, and providing materials for some future architect. Whitelock's valuable journal is consulted chiefly as a work of historical reference. The most modern work that treats of Sweden, is the letters of Mrs. Wollstonecraft, a delightful work which derives its chief interest from the perpetual presence of the writer. Of Finland and Lapland still less is known: neither the travels of Maupertuis, we believe, nor the book of Leems the missionary, have been translated.

Travelling in Sweden appears to be exceedingly inconvenient. The roads are good, but the inns are very bad; and a Swedish writer, who says that you may travel as well, and be as well accommodated in Sweden as in England, or France, or Italy, advises the traveller to provide himself with a carriage, as well as with bread and wine, and other provisions. The horses are small and weak; strength, therefore, must be supplied by number. At one time Mr. Acerbi had seven horses to his *viennoise*. Five or six peasants, who had each a horse in the number, attended, each flogging his neighbour's to spare his own, and quarrelling and fighting in consequence. The horses understood only the Swedish sounds, it seems, but Mr. Acerbi and his fellow travellers talked Italian to them, and, unluckily, the very sound which is used to quicken them in Italy, is the signal to halt in Sweden, so that this unhappy defect in the traveller's memory, and in the horses' education, occasioned some embarrassment and some danger. That Mr. Acerbi should not readily acquire the proper sound, is by no means surprising; it consists, he says, in so extraordinary a motion or vibration of the lips; and he spells it *tschpruu*.

From Helsingburg Mr. Acerbi took the road through Gottenberg and Trol-

hatta to Stockholm. The canal at Trolhatta, he says, is as a work of art, and of bold and persevering design, the first in the world. The length is not quite three miles, the width thirty-six feet, the depth in some places above fifty. But this was wrought through the midst of rocks by means of gunpowder. Charles XII. began the work; happy had it been for Sweden, if his mighty enterprizes had been all as useful: but it was planned by a greater than Charles, by Gustavus Vasa, whose project was to make a communication between the Baltic and the North Sea. Some very trite and worthless remarks are introduced in this part of Mr. Acerbi's work, upon the utility of canals, and the origin of navigation. An Album is kept at this place.

"This book is one of the most curious miscellanies any where to be seen; and is, in my mind, of more value than many other books, for the light it throws on the subject of human nature. Throughout the whole of this collection there reigns a particular humour; I mean a particular turn or temperament of mind, and what the French call *penchant*; an affectation of wit and singularity, and, above all, an effort of self-love, or self-consequence, which unveils, not obscurely, the true character and weakness of man. Like those epitaphs which lose sight of the dead to speak of the living, almost all the inscriptions in this, as well as in other memorials of the same kind, are more characteristic of their authors than of the subjects to which they refer. One takes an opportunity to show that he can make verses; a second gives some account of his travels; a third exalts his own opinion on the ruin of that of others; a fourth sets down his name merely for the purpose of displaying his title; while another, from a vanity of an opposite nature, writes his name simply, and nothing more. There is one Englishman who tells you, that he went to see the cataracts by candlelight: another traveller of the same nation says, that neither the cataract nor the labour by which the canal was accomplished, is good for any thing; that the Swedes are all slaves, crouching under the lusts of their masters; and, in order to express his contempt, subscribes these remarks by a very indecent name. A third Englishman, more enlightened as well as candid, rejoices to see gunpowder applied to better purposes than those of war, though at the same time he is not of opinion, that the condition of the people is bettered by commerce. The French emigrants recount all



their own misfortunes, and as well suited to the subject of Trolhatta, those also of the king of France. One emigrant produces a long invective against the patriots. An Englishman writes nothing more than "what will you have us say?" The following, "*Dieu benisse cette bonne et brave nation!*" is signed Kosciusko. An immense number of pedants make flourishes of Latin, Greek, Hebrew, Syriac, and Arabic. In a word, the writers of inscriptions at Trolhatta, become sometimes so digressive from their subject, that travellers are found mutually reviling, and making personal allusions to one another."

*Honi soit qui mal y pense.* We are assured that this "very indecent name" is only the title of a young English nobleman, which Mr. Acerbi has not very creditably mistaken.

The travellers reached Stockholm at nine at night, and were greatly embarrassed because there are *no inns* in that metropolis. "There was, indeed, one set up by a Frenchman, but having made a fortune in a few years, this man retired from business, and left his house to a Swede, who knew not how to manage it. "*When we arrived at this inn,*" says the writer, "all the apartments were occupied." We do not suppose that Mr. Acerbi can have written this work himself, and this figure of speech makes us suspect that he has employed a native of the sister kingdom to put his journal into English. By good fortune, while they were thus perplexed, they met "the most amiable and obliging man in all Sweden," who procured lodgings for them, sent them an excellent supper, and shewed them the city that same night. Some striking frost scenery at Stockholm is well delineated.

"There is no part of this great mass of water that is not arrested and subdued by the frost, except the current under the north bridge, and on the south, near the king's stables. Here the water, which during the keenest frost dashes and foams with great noise through the arches of the bridge, sends up majestic clouds of vapour to a considerable height in the atmosphere; where, in the extreme rigour of winter, being converted by the intenseness of the cold into solid particles, they are precipitated down through their weight, and presenting their surface to the sun, assume the appearance of a shower of silver sand, reflecting the solar rays, and adorned with all manner of colours.

"In the winter 1799, I beheld at Stockholm a spectacle of a very uncommon nature, and such as I never, in all probability,

shall see a second time. It was a sugar house on fire in the suburb, on the south side of the city. The accident being announced by the discharge of cannon, all the fire engines were immediately hurried to the aid of the owners. The severity of that winter was so great, that there was not a single spot near, where the water was not frozen to the depth of a yard from the surface. It was necessary to break the ice with hatchets and hammers, and to draw up the water as from a well. Immediately on filling the casks, they were obliged to carry them off with all possible speed, lest the water should be congealed, as, in fact, about a third part of it was, by the time it could be brought to the place where it was wanted. In order to prevent it as much as possible from freezing, they constantly kept stirring it about with a stick; but even this operation had only a partial effect. At last, by the united power of many engines, which launched forth a great mass of water, the fire was got under, after destroying only the roof, the house itself being very little damaged. It was in the upper stories of the building, that the stock of sugar was deposited; there were also many vessels full of treacle, which being broken by the falling-in of the roof, the juice ran down along the sides of the wall. The water thrown up to the top of the house by the engines, and flowing back on the walls, staircases, and through the windows, was stopped in its downward course by the mighty power of the frost. After the fire was extinguished, the engines continued for some time to play, and the water they discharged was frozen almost the instant it came in contact with the walls already covered with ice. Thus a house was formed of the most extraordinary appearance that it is possible to conceive. It was so curious an object, that every body came to gaze at it as something wonderful. The whole building, from top to bottom, was incrustated with a thick coat of ice: the doors and windows were enclosed up, and, in order to gain admission, it was necessary with hammers and hatchets to open a passage; they were obliged to cut through the ice another staircase, for the purpose of ascending to the upper stories. All the rooms, and what remained of the roof, were embellished by long stalactites of multifarious shapes, and of a yellowish colour, composed of the treacle and congealed water. This building, contemplated in the light of the sun, seemed to bear some analogy to those diamond castles that are raised by the imagination of the poets."

A print is annexed of a water cart in winter, but it by no means equals the description.

"The horse was wrapped up, as it seemed, in a mantle of white down, which under his breast and belly was fringed with points

and tufts of ice. Stalactical ornaments of the same kind, some of them to the length of a foot, were also attached to his nose and mouth. The servant that attended the cart had on a frock, which was encrusted with a solid mass of ice. His eye-brows and hair jingled with icicles, which were formed by the action of the frost on his breath and perspiration."

Every year a tournament is held at Drottningholm, an island six miles from Stockholm, where the king has a palace. This apish mockery of chivalry was instituted by the late king; during the regency it was wisely discontinued, but his present majesty has thought proper to revive the festival, which is at his expence. The crown herald, at a jubilee ball, proclaimed, in the name of Gustavus IV. the most puissant king of the Swedes, Goths, and Vandals, that he, with a number of his knights, was ready, armed at all points, to maintain, *that the laws of honour, enlivened by those of love, acquire double force in the hearts of valorous knights.* Certain knights hereupon accepted the defiance, and pledged themselves to maintain, *that the laws of honour have sufficient power of themselves in the hearts of valorous knights, and that, so far from receiving any additional force from love, it is on the contrary, by uniting with chivalry, that love obtains its splendour and duration.* The costume of chivalry was preserved in this fête, and the prizes were distributed on the last day, under the direction of the queen. If children should think proper to divert themselves with such a game, it would be sufficiently excusable; but kings and nobles should have something better to do than to play at tournaments.

The moral picture of the inhabitants of Stockholm is not very favourable. The women are said not to feel such strong sentiments of friendship, tenderness, and love, as the natives of warmer climates; their principal object is dress, and on this they bestow their time and attention, not from a wish to please the men, but from an envious desire to outshine their rivals. They unite vanity and coldness with coquetry. It is more charitable to suspect Mr. Acerbi of forming too hastily a general judgment from particular characters, than to believe that such a representation can be accurate. The habits of savage life, indeed, will pervert all the instincts, and all the feelings of our nature; but in civilized countries, that have been agitated by no

political tempest, the variations of the moral thermometer can never be very great. Wherever comfort and security exist, friendship, tenderness, and love, must exist also, and necessarily flourish. Mr. Acerbi mistakes the outward and visible sign, for the inward and spiritual grace; he did not perceive French smoke or Italian flame, and he did not remember, that neither flame nor smoke indicate the intensity of the fire.

Of the passion of the Swedes for cards, a singular anecdote is related.

"A nobleman of great rank having waited longer than usual for his dinner, and seeing that no preparation was made for it, went down to call his servants to an account, and to examine into the reason of the delay. He found his household, in imitation of their superiors, deeply engaged at cards. They excused themselves to their master, by telling him, that they were now at the most interesting point of the game; and the butler, who had the greatest stake, took the liberty of explaining the case to his excellency, who could not in conscience but approve his reasons. However, being unwilling to wait for his dinner till the game was decided, he sent the butler to lay the cloth, while he himself sat down with the other servants, and managed the interest of that individual in his absence."

The account of the court of Stockholm, and the characters of the leaders, are mentioned by the author himself in his preface, as "too bold, perhaps, to meet the public eye." He adds, "but to have recomposed and softened it by the suppression of some particulars, however personally prudent for the author, would have been to withhold from the reader a just and accurate idea of the state of facts. It was incumbent upon him to sacrifice all inferior considerations to a respect for the public and for the truth." There is a danger that Mr. Acerbi, by acting upon this principle, may occasion some inconvenience to travellers who visit those countries after him. Some trifling inconveniences he himself experienced in consequence of Mr. Cox's book-making inquiries. Nor would the reader have been deprived of any valuable information if the facts whereto he alludes had been suppressed. The anecdotes of the court and academies form the least interesting portion of the work. We will follow Mr. Acerbi on his journey, where he appears to more advantage.

Enveloped in pelices of Russian bears

skin, with fur caps, and fur gloves, the travellers set out in sledges for Finland, in the middle of March. They crossed the gulph of Bothnia upon the ice, forty-three English miles: the passage is terrific, and Mr. Acerbi has described it well.

"The sea, at first smooth and even, became more and more rugged and unequal. It assumed, as we proceeded, an undulating appearance, resembling the waves by which it had been agitated. At length we met with masses of ice, heaped one upon the other, and some of them seeming as if they were suspended in the air, while others were raised in the form of pyramids. On the whole they exhibited a picture of the wildest and most savage confusion, that surprised the eye by the novelty of its appearance. It was an immense chaos of icy ruins, presented to view under every possible form, and embellished by superb stalactites of a blue green colour.

"Amidst this chaos, it was not without difficulty and trouble that our horses and sledges were able to find and pursue their way. It was necessary to make frequent windings, and sometimes to return in a contrary direction, following that of a frozen wave, in order to avoid a collection of icy mountains that lay before us. In spite of all our expedients for discovering the evenest paths, our sledges were every moment overturned to the right or to the left, and frequently the legs of one or other of the company, raised perpendicularly in the air, served as a signal for the whole caravan to halt. The inconvenience and the danger of our journey were still further increased by the following circumstance. Our horses were made wild and furious, both by the sight and the smell of our great pelices, manufactured of the skins of Russian wolves, or bears. When any of the sledges was overturned, the horses belonging to it, or to that next to it, frightened at the sight of what they supposed to be a wolf or bear rolling on the ice, would set off at full gallop, to the great terror of both passenger and driver. The peasant, apprehensive of losing his horse in the midst of this desert, kept firm hold of the bridle, and suffered the horse to drag his body through masses of ice, of which some sharp points threaten to cut him in pieces. The animal, at last wearied out by the constancy of the man, and disheartened by the obstacles continually opposed to his flight, would stop; then we were enabled to get again into our sledges, but not till the driver had blindfolded the animal's eyes; but one time, one of the wildest and most spirited of all the horses in our train, having taken fright, completely made his escape. The peasant who conducted him, unable any longer to endure the fatigue and pain of being dragged through the ice, let go his hold of the bridle. The horse

relieved from this weight, and feeling himself at perfect liberty, redoubled his speed, and surmounted every impediment. The sledge, which he made to dance in the air, by alarming his fears, added new wings to his flight. When he had fled to a considerable distance from us, he appeared from time to time as a dark spot, which continued to diminish in the air, and at last totally vanished from our sight. Then it was that we recognized the prudence of having in our party some spare horses, and we were fully sensible of the danger that must attend a journey across the gulph of Bothnia, without such a precaution. The peasant, who was the owner of the fugitive, taking one of the sledges, went in search of him, trying to find him again by following the traces of his flight. As for ourselves, we made the best of our way to the isles of Aland, keeping as nearly as we could in the middle of the same, still being repeatedly overturned, and always in danger of losing one or other of our horses, which would have occasioned a very serious embarrassment. During the whole of this journey, we did not meet with, on the ice, so much as one man, beast, bird, or any living creature. Those vast solitudes present a desert abandoned, as it were, by nature. The dead silence that reigns is interrupted only by the whistling of the winds against the prominent points of ice, and sometimes by the loud crackings occasioned by their being irresistibly torn from this frozen expanse; pieces thus forcibly broken off are frequently blown to a considerable distance. Through the rents produced by these fractures, you may see below the watery abyss; and it is sometimes necessary to lay planks across them, by way of bridges, for the sledges to pass over."

When they left Abo, a partial thaw had rendered the roads very bad. The want of inns was a less serious inconvenience in a hospitable country. Hospitality is one of the virtues which commerce destroys. The comforts and advantages of civilization are not to be had gratuitously; many a violet has been rooted up by the plough. The Finlanders appear to be a kind-hearted people, whose happiness will not be increased by any political improvement of their country. They received the travellers with great hospitality, and furnished them with whatever provisions they could supply, which in general was *only* fresh and curdled milk, salt herrings, and perhaps salt meat, but this is no despicable fare for a traveller. At Malmö they met a blind old man, with a long white beard, and a bald forehead, singing verses to the children; but the children forsook their Homer to gaze

at the strangers and laugh at them, and the poor skald begged their charity.

Near the little village of Yervenkye they visited a noble cataract.

"It is formed by the river Kyro, which, issuing from a lake of the same name, precipitates itself through some steep and rugged rocks and falls, so far as I could guess, from a height of about seventy yards. The water, dashing from rock to rock, boils and foams till it reaches the bottom, where it pursues a more tranquil course, and after making a large circuit, loses itself again between mountainous banks, which are covered with fir trees. That we might have a more commanding view of the picture, we took our station on a high ground, from which we had a distant prospect of a large tract of country, of a varied surface, and almost wholly covered with woods of firs, the pleasing verdure of which acquired additional lustre from the solar rays, and formed an agreeable contrast with the snow and masses of ice hanging from the margin over the cascade.

"The fall presented us with one of those appearances which we desired much to see, as being peculiar to the regions of the north, and which are never to be met with in Italy. The water, throwing itself amidst enormous masses of ice, which here and there have the aspect of gloomy vaults, fringed with curious crystallizations, and the cold being of such rigour as almost to freeze the agitated waves and vapours in the air, formed gradually two bridges of ice across the cascade, of such solidity and strength, that men passed over them in perfect security. The waves raging and foaming below with a vast noise, were in a state of such violent motion, as to spout water now and then on the top of the bridge; a circumstance which rendered its surface so exceedingly slippery, that the peasants were obliged to pass it creeping on their hands and knees.

The scenery of the country is very striking.

"The dreary silence and obscurity of a thick wood, whose branches forming a vaulted roof, cut off the traveller from a view of the skies, and admit only faint and dubious rays of light, is always an imposing object to the imagination; the awful impression the mind experiences under this majestic gloom, this dismal solitude, this desertion of nature, is not to be described. The temperature of the air is much milder in the interior of this wood, than the external atmosphere; a difference which is extremely perceptible to one who like us enters the wood after traversing a lake or open plain. The only noise the traveller hears in this forest, is the bursting of the bark of the trees, from the effect of the frost, which produces a loud but dull sound.

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"I saw in this forest the disastrous wreck of one of those conflagrations which had devoured the wood through an extent of six or seven miles, and which exhibited a most dismal spectacle. You not only saw trunks and large remains of trees lying in confusion on the ground, and reduced to the state of charcoal, but also trees standing upright, which, though they had escaped destruction, had yet been miserably scorched; others black and bending down to one side, whilst in the midst of the ruins of trunks and branches, appeared a group of young trees, rising to replace the former generation; and, full of vigour and vegetable life, seemed to be deriving their nourishment from the ashes of their parents.

"The devastations occasioned by storms in the midst of those forests, is still more impressive, and presents a picture still more diversified and majestic. It seems wholly inconceivable in what manner the wind pierces through the thick assemblage of those woods, carrying ruin and desolation into particular districts, where there is neither opening nor scope for its ravages. Possibly it descends perpendicularly from heaven, in the nature of a tornado, or whirlwind, whose violence nothing can oppose, and which triumphs over all resistance. Trees of enormous size are torn from their roots; magnificent pines, which would have braved on the ocean tempests more furious, are bent like a bow, and touch the earth with their humbled tops. Such as might be thought capable of making the stoutest resistance are the most roughly treated; and those hurricanes, like the thunder of heaven, which strikes only the loftiest objects, passing over the young, and sparing them, because they are more pliant and flexible, seem to mark the strongest and most robust trees of the forest, which are in condition to meet them with a proud opposition, as alone worthy of their rage. Let the reader fancy to himself three or four miles of forest, where he is continually in the presence of this disastrous spectacle; let him represent to his imagination the view of a thick wood, where he can scarcely see one upright tree; where all of them being thus forcibly inclined, are either propped by one another, or broken in the middle of the trunk, or torn from their roots and prostrated on the ground; every where trunks, branches, and the ruins of the forest, interrupting his view of the road, and exhibiting a singular picture of confusion and ruin.

"Before we reached Wasa, we were still not without some apprehension from travelling on the rivers of Finland. Hitherto the ice being covered with snow, of a dirty surface, and far from shewing the smallest transparency, made us for the most part forget that we went upon water; we were now to learn what sort of sensation we should experience in passing over a river where the ice,

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transparent as crystal, discovered under our feet the whole depth of the element below, insomuch that we could see even the smallest fishes. In the first moment of surprise, having had no previous notice of the change, we fancied ourselves inevitably lost, and that we should be swallowed up, and perish in the awful gulf. Even the horse himself was startled at the novelty of his situation; he suddenly stopped short, and seemed unwilling to go forward. But the impulse he had acquired in travelling, pushed him forward in spite of himself, and he slid, or rather skated upon his four jointless legs, for the space of eight or ten yards. This strange mode of travelling with a skating horse, upon an element where we could count the fishes under the sledge, and under the horse's feet, was not very amusing to us, though we were already accustomed to a road of ice. I was at some pains to satisfy myself as to the reason why the ice was so clear and pellucid in particular parts of the river only; and I think I discovered it in the united action of the solar rays, and of the wind. The wind having swept away the snow, and cleared the surface of the ice, the sun, at the end of March and beginning of April, having acquired a considerable force, had melted and rendered smooth the surface, which at first is always somewhat rough and uneven; this being frozen during the night, formed a mirror of the most perfect polish. The lustre of the ice on this river is very remarkable; had it not been for the little shining and perpendicular fissures, which shewed the diameter of the ice's thickness, it would have been utterly impossible for us to distinguish it from the water below. Where the river happened to be of a profound depth, we could perceive our vast distance from the bottom only by an indistinct greenish colour: the reflection that we were suspended over such an abyss, made us shudder. Under this terrifying impression, the vast depth of the river, and dazzled by the extraordinary transparency and brilliancy of the ice, we crept along the surface, and felt inclined to shut our eyes, or turn away our heads, that we might be less sensible of our danger. But when the river happened to be only a yard or two deep, we were amused to be able to count the pebbles at the bottom of the water, and to frighten the fishes with our feet."

At Wasa, a flourishing little town, they found a very intelligent clergyman, who had known Linnæus: if the anecdotes which he related be true, and there is no reason to doubt them, the vanity of the naturalist seems to have been as monstrous as was that of sir Godfrey Kneller. He was exhibiting his museum to a lady, who, in her admiration, exclaimed "I no longer wonder that Linnæus is so well known over the whole

province of Upsala!" He, who had expected to hear the whole universe, instead of the whole province, was so mortified that he would show her nothing more. The sun of botanists, the man who had put nature to the rack to discover her dearest secrets, the ocean of science, the moving mountain of erudition; these phrases of impudent ridicule were not too gross for his greedy vanity.

From Wasa they travelled 190 miles along the shores of a flat country to Uleaborg, crossing the rivers and arms of the sea.

"We have before observed, that the frost is here so intense, as to arrest the sea in its waving motion. The sun becoming more powerful with the advancement of the season, melted considerably the ice on the surface. The water thus produced during the day, collected in the cavities or furrows, and formed little pools or rivulets, which we were under the necessity of traversing in our sledges; and as they were always a considerable depth in the middle, we saw ourselves descending we knew not where, and actually thought we should sink to the bottom of the ocean. The intrepidity, or rather indifference with which the Finlander made his way through those pools, encouraged us a little; but the recollection that we were upon the sea, and a consciousness that the water was entering our sledge, excited at first frightful apprehensions, and a continued disagreeable feeling.

"In nights of severe and intense cold, such as frequently occur at that time of the year, a crust of ice is formed over those pools, insomuch that the water becomes inclosed between two plates of ice: in this case the sledge, as it passes over the upper crust, which is generally but of a brittle texture, breaks it, and suddenly falls into the water, which bubbles up all about the sledge, nor does it stop till it gets to the second layer of ice. This unexpected fall produces a horrible sensation; and though there are rarely more than two feet of distance from one stratum of ice to the other, yet the sight of the water, the plunging of the horse, &c. are exceedingly alarming."

Uleaborg, considering the country in which it stands, is a flourishing and populous town; it contains about 3800 persons; exports a considerable quantity of tar, butter, tallow, dried fish, and planks; and imports wine, oil, lemons, and salt; it sends four ships to the Mediterranean; the public revenue which it supplies, is about 8000 rix-dollars yearly. There are mineral springs here, and



the travellers found three or four foreigners, who had visited that end of the world for the purpose of drinking the waters. Mr. Acerbi found the society at Uleaborg so pleasant, that he was induced to lengthen his stay, and wait here till the summer came on. A gentleman of this town, he says, going by sea to Stockholm, dropt a silver spoon into the sea, which was swallowed by a salmon, carried in his belly to Uleaborg, and so found its way to the gentleman's wife, who immediately concluded that the apparition of the silver spoon announced the shipwreck of her husband. He returned, however, in time to prevent any ill consequences from the belief. This Mr. Acerbi relates as a well authenticated fact. Did he never hear the story of the watch dropt in latitude  $46^{\circ} 30'$ , longitude  $20^{\circ} 15'$  by a gentleman of veracity, then passenger in an outward bound West-India packet, and recovered from the belly of a shark, to the westward of the Bermudas, by the same gentleman, on his return, uninjured, going, and right by the observation at noon?

Mr. Acerbi's credulity has made us incredulous. He met baron Silfverkielm here, one of the greatest proficients among the disciples of Mesmer; he himself was incredulous, and not susceptible of the magnetic influence; but he adds, "I saw my fellow-traveller, as incredulous as myself, fall into a profound sleep by the mere motion of the magnetiser's fingers. I heard him speak in his sleep, and reply to whatever questions I proposed to him: I saw him again awake by the simple motion of the magnetiser's fingers, while I was unable to rouse him from his somnolency, though I brought fire close to his hand, an experiment to which he was as insensible as a dead body." It was the baron's theory, that the spirit of the person asleep went to the other world, where the souls of his forefathers are all enjoying themselves, and all dressed in white jackets! Yet Mr. Acerbi is evidently disposed to believe in animal magnetism; he thinks it not impossible that as we have discovered the electric and galvanic fluids, so we may discover some other fluid or material substance which will explain the baron's experiments.

At Uleaborg the travellers seem to have enjoyed every northern luxury, and

at no extravagant expence; their hostess killed calves, pigs, and oxen, expressly on their account, and yet the weekly expences for two persons and a servant, did not amount to two guineas. There happened to be two strangers in the town who understood music: with their assistance Mr. Acerbi and his companion performed a quartetto. "A quartetto at Uleaborg was a phenomenon no less out of the ordinary course of things, than the appearance of the most astonishing meteor." "The good people," he says, "looked up to us as the gods of music; it is impossible to convey an idea of the impression our music made, as we realized the fabulous times of Greece; our spectators presented a most interesting picture, worthy of the pencil of the most celebrated painter."

"The very beggars of other countries live in ease, and even luxury," says Mr. Acerbi, "compared to the peasantry of the north; but the northern peasantry are a far happier, and far more respectable race than the poor of more civilized countries; they are industrious, and their industry can always procure enough to support life with comfort; that abject degree of poverty is not known there, which destroys industry by destroying hope. They have a curious mode of fishing: when the fisherman observes a fish under the ice, in shallow water, he strikes the ice forcibly, immediately over the fish, with a club, and the fish, stupefied by the blow, rises to the surface. They use a spear to kill the bear, or, as they call him, the old man in the pelice: a cross bar is fixed about a foot from the point of the spear, as otherwise the bear might fall upon the spearsman: the beast, feeling himself wounded, holds the spear fast, and presses it more deeply into the wound. The proverbs of the Finlanders bear testimony to their industry and hospitality."

"The good man spareth from his peck,  
"but the wicked will not give from a bushel.

"The wise man knoweth what he shall do, but fools try every thing.

"There is no deliverance through tears;  
"neither are evils remedied by sorrow.

"He who hath tried, goeth immediately to the work; but he who hath no experience standeth to consider.

"The wise man gathereth wisdom every where; he profiteth by the discourse of fools.

"A man's own land is his chiefest delight; the world is most pleasant that is his.

"The stranger is our brother; he who comes from afar off is our kinsman.

"When the morn breaketh forth, I know the day which followeth; a good man discovereth himself by his looks.

"The work is ended which is begun; there is time lost to say, what shall I do?

"The tool of the industrious man is sharp; but the ploughshare of the fool wanteth grinding."

Their poetry is alliterative without rhyme. The specimens translated are very interesting. The first extract was composed by a peasant upon his brother's death,

"The word went forth from heaven, from Him, in whose hands are all things. Come hither, I will make thee my friend; approach, for thou shalt henceforth be my champion. Come down from the high hill; leave the seat of sorrow behind thee; enough hast thou suffered; the tears thou hast shed are sufficient; thou hast felt pain and disease; the hour of thy deliverance is come; thou art set free from evil days; peace hasteneth to meet thee; relief from grief to come.

"Thus went he out to his maker; he entered into glory; he hastened to extreme bliss; he departed to enjoy liberty; he quitted a life of sorrow; he left the habitations of the earth."

The following is the production of a girl who could neither read nor write.

"Oh! that my beloved were now here; that his well-known figure were but before me! How should I fly into his arms, and kiss him though his face were besmeared with the blood of a wolf! How should I press his hand, even though a snake were twisted round it!

"Alas! why have not the winds understanding? And why is the breeze bereft of speech? The winds might exchange sentiments betwixt my love and me. The breezes might every instant carry my words to him and bring his back to me.

"How then would the delicacies of the rector's table be neglected! How inattentive should I be to the dress of his daughter! I should leave every thing to attend on my beloved, who is the dear object of my summer-thoughts and winter-cares."

The metrical version of this poem is truly abominable. A foreigner, like Mr. Acerbi, cannot be supposed to understand the merits of English poetry; but the English *manufacturers* of these volumes, whoever he be, should have been ashamed

to insert such doggerel, which is neither common rhythm, nor common grammar, nor common sense. The tale of the Paldamo Pasty has been versified in the same miserable and disgraceful manner.

The last specimen is the fragment of a lullaby song; it is singularly wild.

"Sleep on, sleep on, sweet bird of the meadow; take thy rest, little red-breast, take thy rest; God shall awake thee in good time; He has made thee a little bough to repose thee on; a bough canopied with the leaves of the birch tree; Sleep stands at the door, and says; Is there not a little child here; lying asleep in the cradle; a little child wrapped up in swaddling cloths; a child reposing under a coverlet of wool."

The last species of poetry, of which we shall make mention, is that which is both common to the Finns and Laplanders; we mean those runic verses which are supposed to be endowed with magical and extraordinary virtues. These songs, which owe their rise to the darkness of gentilism, were not silenced when those nations became enlightened by the gospel; they were even interpolated in the times of papal superstition, for the purpose of deluding the people; and these will probably be the last of the runic verses that will be forgotten, as notwithstanding all the industry of the clergy to root out such prejudices from the minds of the people, the Finns still privately favour and countenance these songs, being strongly of opinion, that they are possessed of secret virtues, and have a superior degree of efficacy when employed.

In point of composition they are considered by many as inestimable monuments of antiquity, and perfect models of genuine runic poetry. They are distinguished by their admirers from the common runic verses sung at public meetings, which by them are accounted profane. Some of a species named *lugut*, or lectures, are never sung, but delivered privately in a low murmuring voice, accompanied with hoid gesticulations.

The Finns have many runic verses which are supposed to contain healing powers, and those are styled *sanat*, or charms; as *madan-sanat*, charms for the bite of a serpent; *tulzan-sanat*, charms to cure scalds or burns; *raudan-sanat*, charms to heal wounds, &c. &c.

These charms, as has been already observed, are very numerous; and though not much esteemed by the inhabitants of the sea coast, are in the highest repute amongst those who dwell in the interior and mountainous parts of the country. This is likely to continue to be the case as long as the practice of physic remains in the hands of itinerant empirics and ignorant old women.

They jointly with charms use some simple remedies, as salt, milk, brandy, lard, &c. but attribute the cures they perform to the superior efficacy of the verses they sing during the application; the chief theory and foundation of their practice consisting in a belief, with which too they impress their patients very strongly, that their complaints are occasioned by witchcraft, and can only be removed by means of those incantations.

"Of these charms it is not easy to obtain specimens, as they who are versed in them are unwilling to communicate them to literary men, especially when they see them prepare to commit them to writing, as they fear to be reported to the magistrate or clergyman, and punished, or at least chided for their superstition. It is a pity the clergymen will not be at the pains of discriminating betwixt the verses which are the production of superstition, and those of an innocent nature. So far are they from attending to this particular, that they do their utmost to discourage runic poetry in general, and without exception; which partly on that account, and more owing to the natural changes which a length of time brings about in all human affairs, are rapidly falling into disuse, and in a few years will be only found in the relations of travellers."

The intention of the travellers to reach the North Cape was regarded at Uleaborg as a wild and impracticable scheme. They could obtain no information as to the manner or even possibility of summer travelling in Lapland. Even the missionaries had resided there only in the winter. Notwithstanding this discouraging want of intelligence, two adventurers joined their party. Mr. Julien, the one, was a good naturalist; the other, Mr. Castrein, was minister of Kemi, and had the superintendence of a country comprehending about 900 square English miles. His love of botany induced him to undertake so fatiguing an expedition. At Tornea, Dr. Deutsch, an excellent etymologist, joined them, but as his profession would not admit of a long absence, he engaged to go no farther than Kengis-bruk. The party, however, soon diminished. At Upper Tornea they were lodged at the clergyman's. Throughout all Sweden, except upon the great road, it is the custom for travellers to go directly to the clergyman's house, and ask for a chamber, as they would do at an inn. The clergy are for the most part wealthy, and being always superior to the people among whom they are settled, they gladly welcome strangers. Their host

here had an organ in his church, the most northern church in Europe that has such an instrument. He gave them rein-deer which had been frozen eight months in his cellars; the meat was perfectly good. Here Mr. Castrein left them and turned back.

They were now in a country where there was no land travelling, neither roads, nor horses, nor carriages of any kind. The rivers are the only means of communication, and the difficulties which these present are very formidable.

"Having arrived at Kattila Koski, the boatmen took down their sail and shewed us their address in ascending against the rapid current of the cataracts. Kattila Koski is a long series of water-falls, formed by the stony bed of the river, and by huge rocks which rise above the surface of the water. These cataracts are particularly famous on the map, as being the place which corresponds to that division of the globe known by the name of the Polar Circle. To ascend in a small boat such a formidable succession of cataracts, where the water is almost every where rolling down in a foam, would at first sight seem impossible; but nothing is impossible to man, whom habits have rendered familiar to danger. Those Finnish Laplanders, besides an address peculiar to themselves, have what perhaps is of still more consequence—the most perfect coolness and apathy. They take their places, one at the head and the other at the stern of the canoe, and with a long pole which they thrust to the bottom of the river, find their point of resistance, and thus push the boat against the stream. This pole is made of a pine, and about fifteen feet long; they are obliged to throw it with all their strength to the bottom, in order to overcome the current which constantly impels it backwards. It is an Herculean labour; besides, it requires infinite practice to guide and manage the boat, forming, as circumstances demand, many a sharp angle, amidst a multitude of obstacles. The most disagreeable, and at the same time the most dangerous situation is, the man resting by accident the end of his pole upon a rock of a smooth or round surface, in the moment that he applies to it the whole weight and force of his body; if the pole slips from under him, he falls in an instant headlong into the river, and the passenger immediately gives himself up for lost. The Laplander, however, quickly recovers himself, and prepares to repeat the same operation; but it sometimes happens that the current gets the ascendant and drives the boat astern. In this critical juncture the whole address of the boatman is exerted to keep the head of the boat directly opposed to the stream, till he is again in a condition to push her forward; and above all, to prevent her laying her side

to the current, as in that position, by presenting a larger surface to the water, she would instantly be overset."

At Kengis three more of the party took their leave, only colonel Skioldebrand with his servant remaining with Mr. Acerbi. Even their resolution was shaken the next stage, when a thick smoke was kindled in the room as the only defence against the gnats. In the Album at Jukasjervi they had read an ominous sentence, written by a Frenchman on his return from Lapland. *Multum fui et terris jactatus & cataractis, multum quoque et culicibus passus.* From this stage to Muonionisca is sixty-six miles by the river, in opposition to the current and to continued cataracts. The ascent is terrific, but on their return the travellers ventured to descend this tremendous stream.

"Let him imagine a place where the river is so hemmed in by narrow banks, and so compressed with rugged and shelving rocks, that the current is doubled in its rapidity; let him moreover represent to his mind the formidable inequalities in the bed of the river, occasioned by those rocks, which can only be passed by a sort of leap, and consequently make the water extremely turbulent; let him conceive that, for the space of an English mile, this river continues in the same state: and let him, after all this, consider the hazard to which a boat must be exposed that ventures itself on such a surface, where both the nature of the channel, and the amazing velocity of the current, seem to conspire to its destruction. You cannot perform this passage by simply following the stream; but the boat must go with an accelerated quickness, which should be at least double to that of the current. Two boatmen the most active and robust that can be found, must use their utmost exertions in rowing the whole time, in order that the boat may overcome the force of the stream; while one person is stationed at the helm to regulate its direction as circumstances may require. The rapidity of this descent is such, that you accomplish an English mile in the space of three or four minutes. The man that manages the rudder can, with difficulty, see the rocks he must keep clear of: he turns the head of the boat directly in the line of the rock he means to pass, and when he is in the very instant of touching it, he suddenly makes a sharp angle and leaves it behind him. The trembling passenger thinks he shall see the boat dashed in a thousand pieces, and the moment after he is astonished at his own existence. Add to all this, that the waves rush into the boat from all sides, and drench you to the skin; while at other times, a billow will dash over the boat from side to side, and scarcely touch you. It is a situation which

presents danger in such frightful shapes, that you could hardly open your eyes and refrain from trembling, though a person with the greatest certainty should assure you that you would not suffer any harm. Several people, however, have perished in this place; and there were but two men in the village of Muonio who thought themselves qualified to conduct the descent; these were an old man of sixty-seven years of age, and his son of twenty-six. The old boatman had known this passage twenty years, and navigated it always with success, and in the course of that period he had taught his son his own dangerous calling. It is impossible to conceive any thing more striking and interesting than the collected and intrepid expression of the old man's countenance in the progress of the passage. As our resolution to descend this cataract was not adopted rashly, but after a minute inquiry and cool reflection, we were prepared to observe the detail of our adventure in its most trifling circumstances. The old man never sat down, but stood upright, holding the rudder with both hands, which was tied on purpose for the occasion to the stern of the boat. In passing the smaller cataracts, they descend with the rudder untied, which they hold between their arms, and sit all the while. When we were in the most critical moments of the passage, we had only to cast our eye on the old man's countenance, and our fears almost instantly vanished. In places of less difficulty he looked round to his son, to observe if he had proceeded with safety. It was plain his thoughts were more occupied about his son than himself; and indeed the young man grazed the rocks on two different occasions. As soon as all danger was over, we drew in to the shore to repose and enjoy the triumph of our success. It was then that we remarked that the son, who had piloted the second boat, looked extremely pale through terror; and my companion's servant, who had been in the boat, informed us that they had received two violent shocks, and that upon both occasions he gave himself up for lost."

Muonionisca is a village containing about sixteen houses. The parish extends about 200 square miles. So thinly peopled, indeed, is this country, that whoever is disposed to establish himself there, must fix himself at the distance of six miles from the bounds of the nearest villages, and all the land for six miles round him becomes his own by right of possession. The clergyman of this place had lost his library and his wardrobe by a fire, from which he had saved none of his clerical paraphernalia except a pair of black breeches. It is very much to the credit of the Swedish clergy that this is the only one of the fraternity of whom

Mr. Acerbi does not give a favourable character.

The weather was now so hot that the travellers determined to rest by day and pursue their journey by night. They left Muonionisca on the 1st of July about ten at night, and proceeded up the river to a little settlement called Pallajovenio, the proper boundary of Lapland. From hence they continued their voyage up the Muonio. Here the scenery became completely Laplandish.

"The moss on which the rein-deer feeds covers the whole ground, which is flat, and only skirted by hills at some distance; but these hills are also clothed with this moss. The colour of the moss is a pale yellow, which, when dry, changes to white: the regularity of its shape, and the uniform manner in which the surface of the ground is decked with it, appears very singular and striking: it has the semblance of a beautiful carpet. These plants grow in a shape nearly octagonal, and approaching to a circle; and as they closely join each other, they form a kind of mosaic work, or embroidery. The white appearance of the country, which thence arises, may for a moment make you imagine that the ground is covered with snow: but the idea of a winter scene is done away by the view of little thickets in full green, which you perceive scattered here and there, and still more by the presence of the sun and the warmth of his rays. As this moss is very dry, nothing can possibly be more pleasant to walk upon, nor can there be any thing softer to serve as a bed. Its cleanness and whiteness is tempting to the sight, and when we had put up our tent, we found ourselves in every respect very comfortably lodged. I had many times before met with this moss, but in no place had I found it so rich. It was the only produce here, which nature seemed to favour and support: no other herb was growing near it, nor any other vegetable on the spot, except a few birch-trees, with their underwood, and some firs, dispersed on the hill by the river side. All these seem to vegetate with difficulty, as if deprived of their nourishment by the moss, and appeared withering and stunted. Some trees, indeed, which grow very near the water, had the appearance of being in a flourishing state, perhaps owing to the moisture they derived from the river: but, in short, this moss appeared to be the royal plant, which ruled absolute over the vegetable kingdom of the country, and distributed its bounty and influence amongst a particular race of men and animals."

Gnats appear to be as much the plague of this country as ever they were of Egypt. The travellers were obliged to cover their faces with a veil, and to

wear thick woollen cloth, though almost suffocated with heat. They could not rest in the huts of the natives, nor in their own tent, but when surrounded with smoke; a thick smoke, says Mr. Acerbi, is an object of great luxury in this part of the world. Some of the Laplanders besmear their faces with tar to protect themselves.

From Lappajervi to Kauto Keino, their next great stage, was a difficult journey of seventy miles. There were several lakes to cross, rivers to ascend and descend, and difficult swamps to pass, and no habitation on the way nor chance of meeting a human creature. Here their Finlanders left them, and they trusted themselves to the guidance of some Laplanders, a very inferior race of men, filthy, provokingly phlegmatic, and caring for nothing but fermented liquors. Mr. Acerbi had already accustomed himself to one of their luxuries, raw salmon cut into transverse slices, and kept three days in salt and water; this, he says, is delicious eating, and for travelling in Lapland it is certainly very convenient cookery. The Laplanders now taught him to enjoy the chief luxury of the north, the plant angelica, which is deemed a powerful antiscorbutic. I am fully convinced, he says, that I owe to this plant the uninterrupted good health which I enjoyed during all the time I was in those parts, where we had nothing else for our subsistence than fried or salted fish, the dried flesh of the rein deer, hard cheese, biscuit and brandy. These guides were exceedingly curious to know whom they were serving; was either of them the king? or the son of the king? or a commissary of the king? They could not conceive that strangers could come among them without some interested motive. At midnight the travellers lit their pipes by means of a burning lens. This they supposed would procure them the character of sorcerers, but the people seemed to have none of those ideas of sorcery which we have been taught to expect in Lapland.

These guides conducted them safely to Kauto Keino, they then took their leave with a song, of which both the music and poetry were remarkable; the music, without meaning and without measure, time or rhythmus, was terminated only by the total waste of breath, and the length of the song depended entirely on the largeness of the stomach



and the strength of the lungs. A good journey, my good gentlemen—gentlemen—gentlemen—gentlemen—a good journey—journey—journey—journey, my good gentlemen—gentlemen—gentlemen—a good journey—journey—journey—journey, and so on, as long as they were able to breathe.

Kauto Keino is inhabited by four families and a priest; an annual fair is held here, which is frequented by the neighbouring Laplanders, and by the merchants from Tornea, who exchange coarse flannel, brandy, tobacco, meat and salt, for furs and rein-deer skins. Alten-Gaard was their next stage; the solitary habitation of a Norwegian merchant in sight of the Frozen Ocean. Here they were hospitably and indeed magnificently entertained, and hence they were advised to proceed by sea to the North Cape. Their host procured them an open boat with four oars, and stored it abundantly. They coasted from the Monday noon till the night between Friday and Saturday following, and arrived at the North Cape, the extremest point of Europe exactly at midnight.

"The North Cape is an enormous rock, which projecting far into the ocean, and being exposed to all the fury of the waves and the outrage of tempests, crumbles every year more and more into ruins. Here every thing is solitary, every thing is sterile, every thing sad and despondent. The shadowy forest no longer adorns the brow of the mountain; the singing of the birds, which enlivened even the woods of Lapland, is no longer heard in this scene of desolation; the ruggedness of the dark grey rock is not covered by a single shrub; the only music is the hoarse murmuring of the waves, ever and anon renewing their assaults on the huge masses that oppose them. The northern sun, creeping at midnight at the distance of five diameters along the horizon, and the immeasurable ocean in apparent contact with the skies, form the grand outlines in the sublime picture presented to the astonished spectator. The incessant cares and pursuits of anxious mortals are recollected as a dream; the various forms and energies of animated nature are forgotten; the earth is contemplated only in its elements, and as constituting a part of the solar system.

"Having made drawings of those rocks

under various aspects, we landed from our boat, and scrambled upon the top of them. We there found some pieces of wood thrown up by the sea, with which we kindled a fire in the face of the Frozen Ocean, and began to prepare a repast. In looking about for a place to which we might retire with some comfort, we discovered a grotto formed by three rocks, whose smooth and polished sides indicated that they had heretofore been washed for many ages by the waves of the sea. In the midst of these rocks was a large roundish stone, under which there ran a small stream of water. As we were tracing the course of this stream, which had its source in a neighbouring mountain, we found on its margin some plants of angelica. This we regarded as a great acquisition to our table, because we had found it to be a very refreshing and salubrious vegetable. The grotto was so convenient, that it had the appearance of being the work of art. The stone in the centre served for a table, around which we could place ourselves; and we had only to stoop down to replenish our bowl with water, perfectly fresh and sweet, though we were within a few paces of the salt sea. We regretted much that we had no iron implement wherewith to engrave some motto, or at least our names on those rocks."

The travellers returned in their boat to Alten, and thence to Tornea and Uleaborg.

The greater part of the second volume is filled with general remarks concerning Lapland, chiefly extracted from the work of Leemius de Lapponibus, a book less rare in this country than Mr. Acerbi imagined.

The engravings in this work are very poorly executed, and the subjects chosen with little discrimination. Views, or representations of dresses, are what we require to illustrate a traveller's narration, and not prints of a frozen pump at Stockholm, of a Finlander killing a bear or shooting a squirrel, or of Mr. Acerbi himself peeping at the naked women in the vapour bath. We must not, however, dismiss the work without asserting that its merits greatly overbalance its defects. The traveller has sometimes said too much respecting individuals, but we have never any reason to complain that he says too little; the narrative is always full, lively, and interesting.

ART. IX. *Travels in the Crimea. A History of the Embassy from Petersburg to Constantinople, in 1793, including their Journey through Kremenetsuck, Oczakow, Walachia, and Moldavia; with their Reception at the Court of Selim the Third. By a Secretary to the Russian Embassy. 8vo. pp. 393.*

IF the author of this work had not impressed upon us, in his preface, that one of the "most interesting parts of his narrative" was that of his journey across the Crimea; we should have been very likely to have passed it over, almost forgetting that it had made any part of his tour. Of a peninsula, which at different times has been under the dominion of the Hungarians, the Cossacs, and the Tartars, the Genoese, the Turks, and the Russians, which had once a population of 200,000 men of different nations and tongues; of a peninsula concerning which we know so little, but that it abounds with salt marshes and lakes, and where the narrator, by a residence of four months, had the opportunity of acquiring every sort of information quite at his leisure, we had a right to expect a more circumstantial and a profitable account. The whole of that which is before us is comprized in five and twenty pages: the description must of necessity be extremely vague and general: we have no account whatever of the nature of the soil, of what minerals are contained in its bosom, or of what other animals than sheep depasture on its surface. Scarcely a word about the policy, manners, customs, superstition, &c. of the people.

But it is an ungrateful task to censure; and as a list of the *desiderata* would, in the present instance, occupy more room than a list of the *collectanea*, we cannot hesitate to present our readers with the latter.

Mr. Secretary was received with the greatest courtesy at Sympheropol, by the governor, general Tschigulin, and dined several times at his table, in company with different Tartars of distinction. We are informed that these latter have some difficulty to accustom themselves to European manners, and to the new domination of the Russians, notwithstanding the continual and soothing attentions and kindness of the governor, who endeavours to make the yoke sit as lightly upon them as possible. The majority of the inhabitants adopt the Turkish manner of living, and rarely apply themselves to learning the Russian language with any accuracy. "I have had

opportunities," says our author, "of remarking frequently among them traits of sublime generosity and mildness, a noble and truly patriarchal simplicity, and an eagerness of hospitality that deserves the highest commendation." This is all the niggardly information he gives us of the characters of the Crim Tartars. One sentence, and but one, is devoted to their internal policy: "In this country, every village is governed by its *mursa* or chief, whom it has the right of electing; the *mursa* pronounces upon all controversies that arise in the affairs of his district."

By the polite and friendly assistance of general Tschigulin, our author took some excursions into the interior of the country: he visited Batchisarai, the ancient residence of the khans of the Crimea, and slept in the palace. The rocks which surround this town present a singular configuration, some are rounded like a ball, others are triangular or squared; many of them have the form of a tower, and others present the image of old ruins, &c. Among them is a place called *the fort of the Jews*, "which was so named, partly on account of the class of men and partly from the nature of its position, which is such as to render all attempts to reduce it unavailable. This fort appears to the eye nothing more than a small insignificant village, on the point of the rock, whence it commands all the adjacent country by a superiority of elevation of several hundred feet, and is accessible only by a narrow path, hewn in the rock, wide enough for one passenger. In this spot, from time immemorial, a colony of Jews have lived a peaceful life, sheltered from the vexations to which their race has every where else been exposed: here they freely exercise their religion, surrounded by trees of extraordinary height and beauty."

The breed of Crimea sheep, so celebrated for the beauty of their wool, and for the durability and delicacy of their skin, has suffered greatly from the numerous emigrations occasioned by the Russian conquests in this country.

Our traveller took a second excursion, from Sympheropol to Sudak, which is

represented as one of the most delightful towns in all Taurida. The mountains which surround it are planted with vines, the culture of which is making a rapid progress, on account of the excellence of the wine, which is esteemed one of the best produced in the peninsula, and is highly prized in Russia.

Mr. Secretary took a third excursion in order to visit Tsherderdak, "one of the highest mountains of the Crimea:" this "*enormous* mountain" is "half as high again as *all* [any of] the other mountains of the Crimea, which are themselves very elevated."—"We were three whole hours reaching the summit; but the enchanting prospect it afforded amply recompensed the fatigues of the journey." What an *enormous* mountain must Tsherderdak be!!

From Sympheropol our traveller proceeds to Petersburg: "As we advanced by degrees in the southern provinces of Poland, we were sensibly struck with the difference between the numerous population and laboured culture of this country, in comparison with what we had observed in the desolate provinces of Russia." At Petersburg he resided seven months, and devotes four pages to the description of it! Perhaps, like ourselves, he was in haste to attend the embassy.

In the beginning of the year 1793, the empress having determined to send an extraordinary embassy to Constantinople, her majesty bestowed this honorary mission on general Kotusow: "The Russian embassy, composed of a train of nearly 700 persons, and which presented a spectacle of truly Asiatic luxury, consisted, strictly speaking, of a single caravan. A detachment of infantry and cavalry opened and closed their march; they advanced by very slow stages; every evening an encampment was formed according to all their rules of military art; and every third day was devoted to relaxation and rest. It was not till the sixth month after they left Petersburg that they arrived at Constantinople, and their ceremonial entry was in an uncommon degree memorable and brilliant."

The Dneister forms the line of demarcation between the two states, and as an ambassador was proceeding from the court of Constantinople to that of St. Petersburg, it was agreed that the passage of this river should be performed

at the same time by the suites of both the embassies.

"Nothing could be more strikingly contrasted than the appearance of the Turkish embassy and our own. The one was seen covered with wealth, gold, silver, and costly ornaments; while the other exhibited the greatest simplicity, and the most martial and impressive appearance. Here every thing was in brilliant confusion; Turkish horses richly caparisoned, covered with housings of immense value, which reached to the ground; mean and beggarly carriages; and the Turks themselves in their oriental costume, and advancing with the greatest irregularity:—there, on the contrary, all was order and propriety; not a step that was not regulated, not a manoeuvre that was not performed with the greatest precision. Deafened as we were with tumult, with horrid cries, and the discord of a barbarous music, we preserved the most perfect tranquillity; and our music was soothing, rich, and delicious. On either bank of the Dniester was a flat-bottomed boat, fitted up with the utmost magnificence, and destined for this ceremony. It was in these boats that the two envoys took their departure from their respective territories, in the midst of the volleys of artillery and the firing of musquetry by the troops placed on the two shores, and of the sound of all the Russian and Turkish instruments of music. The suite of the two embassies embarked in petty shallops, less costly in their decorations, and more simple than those which had served to transport the persons of the envoys."

The very profound attentions paid to the Russian embassy on its march gave it rather the appearance of a triumphal procession than of a customary pacific fête: towns yet reeking with the blood of Turks welcomed the warriors who had slain them; and the inhabitants were content to lose, for a moment, the consciousness of their wretchedness amidst the festivities which surrounded them. Wherever the procession halted, the embassy and the Turkish officers of the place who received it, vied with each other in the sumptuousness and splendour of their entertainments.

The embassy made its entrance into Constantinople on the 7th of October; the day fixed for the audience with the Grand Vizier was the 9th of November, and for that with the Grand Signior, November 12. The following is a description of the audience given by the latter:

"At four o'clock in the morning we assembled at the ambassador's, and at day-break advanced with equal order and magnificence, on the horses which had been equipped for the purpose, towards Stamboul.

Arrived at the first gate of the seraglio, we found it guarded by a large number of troops and janissaries, dressed in their habits of ceremony, and placed in two ranks, in the middle of which we advanced. After waiting some moments, which on such occasions is customary with the Turks, who think that by these means they give a high idea of their grandeur and dignity, we went through two gates, and were introduced into a large court, planted with cypress trees, at the extremity of which we perceived the palace of the grand signior. Having entered a hall richly decorated, situated in the front part of the buildings composing this edifice, we found in it the grand vizier, with the captain pacha, seated on a form covered with green cloth, and employed in the distribution of justice. All foreign ambassadors are obliged to wait a considerable time in this hall, whilst these two officers dispatch different affairs, receive the complaints of the subjects, and settle their disputes. Their motive in this is, to give strangers a favourable idea of the Turkish government, and of the strictness with which justice is administered. We remarked, that they were assisted by two Turks dressed in rich habits, and who had numerous attendants; and that all complaints and petitions were first put into the hands of these two Turks, who afterwards delivered them to the grand vizier and to the captain pacha. The sitting had lasted some time, when, at length, the grand vizier dispatched the reis-*effendi* to the grand signior with some words he wrote to his highness, demanding his permission to introduce the ambassador. The reis-*effendi* returning some moments after to the hall with a favourable answer to the request that had been made, tables were immediately furnished; and after treating the embassy in the Turkish manner, pelices and cafetans\* were presented to the most distinguished persons of the embassy. The ambassador partook of the refreshments *à tête-à-tête* with the grand vizier, and put on his fur pelice a little later than the other persons. When he had reached half-way towards the sultan's apartments, he was presented with a stool decorated with gold cloth, on which he remained seated till the moment when the vizier led him to the apartment of the grand signior. At the door of the audience chamber, in which was the sultan, were ranged in lines the principal *bostanges*, holding the presents of her imperial majesty. As soon as the ambassador had entered this room, the capigi pacha, took him by the arm, whilst the pelices and cafetans were distributing to the other officers of his suite. After three times saluting the grand signior, who was seated on his throne, he approached and addressed him with a discourse exactly

of the same nature as that he had already pronounced to his first minister.

Having given to the captain pacha the empress's letter, he presented it to the vizier, who delivered it to the sultan, who placed it by his side, at the same time saluting the ambassador by an inclination of the head. When he had finished speaking, he pronounced some words aloud to the grand vizier, in reply to the harangue of the ambassador. The dragoman of the court having interpreted it to M. de Kotusow, the latter again bowed to the sultan, and retired in the same order and parade with which he had entered."

"The 25th November—(6th December) the anniversary of her imperial majesty, gave occasion to a magnificent gala in the hotel of the ambassador. After the celebration of divine service, in which we assisted with great devotion, in the Greek church, a very splendid repast was given, at which were present all the foreign ambassadors and agents. It continued to the end of the day, when the company was increased by a very considerable number of persons of rank and distinction, arrived from Pera.

"The apartments were scarcely large enough to contain this brilliant concourse. All the women were covered with diamonds and other jewels. This is a sort of display to which so much importance is attached in this country, that a woman carries on her person her whole fortune, and sometimes the value of even twice her fortune. The capigi pacha, our old friend, and other Turks of distinction, were present at this gala.

"The enchanting *coup-d'oeil* produced by this numerous and brilliant assemblage made a very lively impression on the mussulmans, who are accustomed to keep their women in retirement. By degrees they forgot Mahomet and his prohibition, and partook of the delicious wines which were handed about, drinking to the health of the prophet, and ending by taking a part in all the pleasures of the festival. The walls of the apartment were hung with garlands and crowns of flowers; and the hotel, both in the inside and on the outside, was most tastefully illuminated. In the front were several high pyramids decorated with an infinite number of lamps; in the middle of which appeared the arms of the Russian empire, and the initials of the empress's name. The ball lasted till midnight, and was succeeded by another splendid repast, which terminated the entertainment, to the perfection of which nothing was wanting but more favourable weather; for the rain which fell did great injury to the illuminations, and diminished the effect of this charming exhibition. The captain pacha, and the capigi pacha, the favourite of the grand signior, being informed of the brilliant

\* "The cafetan is a robe of distinction in use among the Turks, and is the article generally used by the grand signior as a present to the persons he wishes to distinguish; particularly to ambassadors and other persons who are presented to him."

preparations made by the ambassador for this gala, came *incognito* from Constantinople to partake of the numerous diversions that were to take place."

All the great officers of the Porte gave rival galas in honour of her Imperial Majesty, and in compliment to her illustrious ambassador: the grand vizier set the example, but that of the capitan pacha surpassed the rest in the splendour of its preparations and the variety of its entertainments.

Although our extracts have already been unusually extended, we cannot refrain from giving our traveller's account of this splendid fête, particularly as it affords an idea of the gymnastics, and other diversions of the Turks.

"About seven o'clock in the morning, the embassy ranged itself in marching order on the quay, and then proceeded towards Stamboul. On the spot where we disembarked, we found a great number of horses richly caparisoned, which served to conduct us slowly towards the residence of the capitan pacha. The streets we passed through in our way were lined on each side by marines and sailors, dressed in short white cloaks. We were received in an apartment hung with the richest silk, and surrounded with sofas covered with satin, on one of which the capitan pacha was seated in the Turkish manner, that is to say, with his legs crossed under him. He was distinguished from the persons who surrounded him by a long green robe, and by a poniard decked with diamonds, and supported by a belt of no less value. This officer is very much beloved, and passes for a man of great worth. He has the advantage of having married one of the nieces of the grand signior, a privilege which cost him very dear, since he is often obliged to acknowledge it by the payment of large sums of money. Towards ten o'clock we sat down to dinner, which was extremely abundant; but we had neither knives, forks, nor spoons. This at first caused us a little embarrassment; but, seeing that it was not possible to obtain a better remedy, we had recourse to the means with which nature had furnished us, and used our fingers instead of them. We were also obliged to refrain from drinking wine. The Turks, notwithstanding the prohibition of Mahomet, are very fond of this liquor; but they never venture to infringe his injunction in the presence of so many witnesses: in the narrow circle of their friends they are less scrupulous, and I had more than once an opportunity of remarking with what pleasure they sacrifice to the god of the vintage, and partake of his benefits. Instead

of wine, we were served with sherbet, with which necessity compelled us to be contented.

"No sooner was the repast finished, than different games commenced. About thirty Turks appeared, holding in their hands white sticks, about four feet in length, called *djerid*,\* and mounted on superb horses, chiefly of the Arabian breed. Among these Turks were some of a pretty advanced age; but who, notwithstanding their long white beards, did not display less agility than the young men with whom they entered the lists.

"The art of this kind of tournament, which is called *girette*, or *djerid*, consists in throwing the stick with sufficient address to strike the adversary, and in avoiding that which he darts in return. The tilters keep in a circle, full gallop, and pick up the sticks which have fallen on the ground. This game, which, by its novelty and dexterity, greatly amused us, lasted about an hour.

"To this exercise succeeded combats, in which each performer was almost naked, and had his body rubbed with oil, like the ancient Greek and Roman gladiators, for the purpose of giving more flexibility to his members, and enabling him to elude his adversary with the greater facility. This contest lasted till one of the combatants had gained a victory over his rival. The dexterity with which each man used his strength, rendered the decision a long time doubtful, till at length one of them, by a stratagem, or rather by a sudden twist, contrived to vanquish his competitor. I remarked amongst them two young Arabians, whose robust and muscular conformation generally enabled them to be victorious.

"These spirited Ottomans did not confine themselves merely to gymnastic exercises, in their endeavours to give us an idea of their dexterity and martial courage. These champions were succeeded by a band of comedians, or rather by a farce, equally ridiculous and pitiful. A poor Jew, very miserably dressed, appeared on the scene, and was the principal actor, who excited the applauses and risibility of the spectators. This is a proof what little progress the Turks have made, even among their superior classes, in matters of taste and information.

"About half an hour after the conclusion of these entertainments, appeared some Turkish dancers, to give us in their turn a specimen of their skill. They entered the apartment in which the ambassador and the capitan pacha were seated. They began their performance with a kind of ballet, called the *cengbi*, or the *janna*, the uniform and ill-measured movements of which did not certainly deserve the applauses of European connoisseurs. They were accompanied by very

\* This *djerid*, about four feet long, is of a very slight kind of wood, such as the willow, or date-tree, and is used to avoid the accidents which might happen in this kind of tournament.



melancholy music, played by dervises. These diversions were terminated by ropedancing, which was executed with considerable grace and dexterity. As night approached we prepared for retiring. M. Kotusow, on the part of the capitan pacha, then received presents, consisting of a superb ring, studded with diamonds, a beautiful Arabian horse, estimated at 6,000 piastres, and a large quantity of richly embroidered Turkish handkerchiefs. A short time after, we resumed the usual order, and proceeded towards our hotel."

The 26th of March was the day appointed for the departure of the embassy, but as the *Porte* was obliged to defray the whole of the expenses of it to the frontier of Turkey, there was some little difficulty in arranging the preliminaries, nor was the departure altogether so brilliant as the entrance.

Our author asserts, that the Turks regard Asia as their original country, and prefer it to all their possessions in Europe: for this reason, he says, the greater part of them are transported to Scutari after their death. They consider it as a privilege, and a motive of consolation on their death-bed, to carry out of the world with them the certainty that they shall be buried in the country of their ancestors. The character of the Turk is represented as obliging, hospitable, and polite; and the idleness and indifference with which they are reproached, is attributed to the climate alone. Whatever influence climate may have among savages, it produces but little, surely, in civilized society: moral causes are infinitely more concerned in the formation of character than physical ones. During the long time that the embassy remained in Constantinople, abundant opportunity was afforded of examining the curiosities of that capital; but the accounts which many of our travellers have given us of the seraglio, the church of St. Sophia, the castle of the Seven Towers, and the various mosques by which it is so richly ornamented, are much more minute and satisfactory than the meagre one which is given in these pages.

The remarks which occur on the state of agriculture, population, &c. of the Turkish provinces, perfectly accord with those which all other travellers have given us on the same subject. In Wallachia the vine is the most considerable object of culture; but the inhabitants know not how to preserve the wine when

they have made it: the quantity, however, which they certainly produce is insignificant, for the cultivators of the vineyards are ignorant of the method of trailing their plants; and as to weeding them, they simply rake up the earth once a year round the plants, and trust to Mahomet for the rest. Population is scanty, and unequally distributed; it is more abundant on the mountains than on the more fertile plains. Our author supposes, that these mountains answer the purpose of an asylum to the inhabitants during the ravages of war: "they fly to them for refuge, when the flatter parts of the country are exposed to the fury and ravages of a lawless Turkish soldiery, whose violence it is difficult to restrain, and who bear in mind the consciousness of being the support of the thrones of the sultans, who dare not punish them."

Wallachia is extremely rich in its pasturage: not fewer than 340,000 horned cattle are exported from this province, through Bosnia, to Constantinople: our traveller says, that several millions of horses are sent to graze in the country, and several millions of sheep are sent to Constantinople. But these random and extravagant estimates afford no information whatever.

The province of Wallachia, the manners of its inhabitants, its degradation under Turkish despotism, the nature of its soil, commerce, and so on, occupy a considerable portion of our traveller's attention; he seems to have had more leisure for observation and enquiry, at least he made better use of it on his return with the embassy, than on his procession with it. At Jassy, the capital of Moldavia, the embassy halted long enough to allow him to make his remarks on the character and manners of the people, and his enquiries as to their commerce, agriculture, &c.: he gives a curious account of the Moldavian dances, and other amusements. The Moldavians are an active, hardy, and courageous race; not generally cruel in their victories, except their enemy is a Turk or a Tartar, in either of which cases they consider it an act of religion to kill him immediately; he among them who should be weak enough to spare him, would be regarded as a traitor and an unbeliever. The women are handsome, and not remarkable for their chastity: the Russian embassy at least

was highly favoured. In this and the neighbouring province, Wallachia, their character is mildness itself—and ignorance itself. "I do not know of any female," says our traveller, "with the exception, perhaps, of the princesses, who can read or write. The Greeks pretend in this respect, that women should know no more than what their husbands choose to teach them." The Moldavians are singularly industrious cultivators of the ground: their country, though perpetually a prey to the avaricious and stupid policy of the Porte, and though so recently laid waste by the mad desolation of war, seemed rapidly recovering from its wounds. Although, when the embassy passed through it, the Moldavians had not enjoyed the blessings of peace more than three years, almost all the towns and villages which had been laid low in the war, were entirely repaired: vineyards, fields, and meadows, exhibited a careful cultivation, and a rewarding fertility. But how precarious is the tenure by which the subjects of the Turkish government hold their property! The dignity of

the hospodars or princes, by whom the provinces are governed, is generally bestowed on dragomans of the Porte: he who offers most, is sure of obtaining it; but the money, the influence of which creates him a prince to-day, by the same influence may dethrone him to-morrow. The consequence is obvious: the uncertain duration of his reign makes him anxious to profit by the present moment; he has paid dearly for his dignity, and he must reimburse his expences. The provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia are not absolutely united to the Turkish empire, nor have the sultans declared themselves absolute masters of them: they are satisfied with drawing ample revenues from their resources, and wisely think it prudent not to venture a quarrel where those revenues are at stake.

The passage of the Dneister was once more performed at the same instant by the Turkish and the Russian ambassadors, each on return to his respective court: the same ceremonies were again performed, and our traveller made the best of his way to St. Petersburg.

**ART. X.** *A Tour, performed in the Years 1795-6, through the Taurida or Crimea, the ancient Kingdom of Bosphorus, the once powerful Republic of Tauric Cherson, and all the other Countries on the North Shore of the Euxine, ceded to Russia by the Peace of Kainardgi and Jassy. By Mrs. MARIA GUTHRIE, described in a Series of Letters to her Husband, the Editor, MATTHEW GUTHRIE, M. D. &c. 4to. pp. 470, 2 Maps, 3 Plates, and several wooden Cuts,*

FEMALE travellers, if not so profound in their investigations as men, have, perhaps, caught the moving pictures of life and manners with quicker eye, and sketched them with happier hand. The Countess d'Anois' Letters from Spain partake somewhat too much of her passion for novel-writing; but more accurate writers have given a less striking resemblance in their accounts. Lady Mary Wortley Montague's Letters are known to be generally faithful; and of their literary merit it is some proof, that they formed one of the first English works printed in the stereotype of France. We have here another female tourist; her route has been through an interesting country, and she has travelled with every advantage, leisure, the best introductions, and a perfect knowledge of the Russian language. We expected much interesting information

from this volume, and some amusement; for the editor tells us, the letters were originally written in French; but that he, conscious of his inability to add his part in the *lively elegant style* of the amiable writer, had been obliged to throw the whole into English. Now, if the reader were to travel himself to the Crimea, and go through all the countries on the north shore of the Euxine, he would never guess what is the main subject of Mrs. Guthrie's Letters to her husband. We will give a specimen of the matter, and of the *lively elegant style*.

"Both the Byzantine history of the Taurida, page 71, and Cedrenus, page 710, assure us, that *Theodosia*, as this city was originally called by the Greeks, and now again by the Russians, was conquered in 966 by the Russian hero, Svetoslaw the First, grand duke of Kioff, and father of Vladimir the Great; at the same time that he subdued

the Kozares,\* or Khatzares, as the Greeks called them, then likewise masters of the Taurida or Kozaria, and took their famous capital Sarkel, or Belaeja, on the river Donetz, built by Greek architects, whom the emperor of Constantinople sent to the Chan in compliance with his request.

"From Kerch, the Panticapeos of Scylax, and Panticapeum of Strabo.

"I make no doubt, that you are happy to find me fairly out of Caffa, and on my way to the ancient capital of the Bosphorus, now Kerch; but, as you know that I by no means like driving over classic ground with the swiftness of a courier, I must here inform you, that, instead of galloping along the high road, straight to the Cimmerian Bosphorus, on which the ancient Panticapeum stands, I intend to do just the contrary, and jog slowly up along the coast, to look for the ruins of some ancient Greek cities which once stood there.

"The first place that we looked for was the Zephyrium of Pliny, which Peyssonel thinks must have stood at Zavita; but not a trace now remains to favour the learned consul's conjecture. The next that we should have met with was the Kimerikon of the middle ages, which stood at the south entrance of the Bosphorus, where these straits enter the Euxine, and are fifteen versts broad, as Strabo says, very justly (for his seventy-four stades nearly measure that distance); but no ruins of that city are to be seen, more than of the former; nor was our search for the remains of the æra of Ptolemy more successful, which Strabo places on the European side of the Bosphorus, directly opposite to the city of Corœondamus, in the island of Phanagoria, or Taman."

Now, reader! extraordinary as it will appear, that Mrs. Guthrie should quote Pliny, and Strabo, and Cedrenus, and Arrian; that she should reduce Roman *s'adii* into Russian *versts*, and measure Grecian *medimnes* by pound weights; it is still more extraordinary that all this should be Dr. Guthrie's writing, who has entered into the whole history of the ancient kingdom of the Bosphorus, medicinal, commercial, and geographical; and of all possible forms has chosen to throw it into the shape of letters to himself from his wife! We can recollect but one instance of any subject treated with equal propriety, that of an ingenious correspondent to the Lady's Diary, who answered all "the last year's rebusses," in an elegy upon his father's

death. The mixture of Dr. Guthrie's learning, and Mrs. Guthrie's *liveliness*, is the most extraordinary that can be imagined. One letter begins about the Tora and the Talmud, the Musul Padishah, or king of Nineveh, and the Melanchlæni, mentioned by all classic authors as dwelling on the Palus Mæolas; and it concludes by, "*your very submissive spouse, when she has all her own way.*" In another, his *wandering spouse* explains the nature and causes of putrid marsh miasma, sometimes *cara sposa*, calls him my wise sir, or my saucy husband; laughs at the disorder of his library, and ridicules the papers of the Antiquarian Society. Presently the learned Theban introduces us to the Milesians, and the Borysthenete, and the Hamaxobitii, the Budinæ, the Patzinacites, and the Agathyres, whose raiment, according to Herodotus, was flowered with gold!

But we will leave the history of king Parisades, and king Leucon, and king Satyrus, and the whole dynasty of the celebrated Archæanactorides, and tell out what few flowers grow amid this rubbish of antiquity.

In digging the foundation of a fort on the Liman, or Gulf of the Dniester, a tomb was discovered; the urn within was shaped very differently from the usual form of sepulchral urns; it contained ashes and burnt human bones, and in the midst of them lay a small female bust of baked clay, of exquisite workmanship, though apparently moulded by the fingers, without the help of an instrument, as the impression of the human skin is still visible. This bust bears a perfect resemblance to the busts of Julia; and, with a pardonable credulity, supported by specious, if not solid arguments, the late empress determined it to be the grave of Ovid, and has called the city which she was there building, Ovidopol. Another memorable tomb is at Cherson, on the same river, with this honourable inscription, "Here lies the benevolent Howard."

The salt-water lakes exhibit a very remarkable appearance. The continued action of the burning sun covers them in summer with a thick white crust of salt. "If we had travelled here in winter," says Mrs. Guthrie, "we should

\* I follow the Russian Chronicle of Nester in the name of this Tartar nation, there called Kozares; although the Byzantine writers name them Khatzares, and sometimes (for brevity) Kazares.

not for a moment have doubted that what we saw was ice.

At Eupatoria the traveller witnessed a curious ceremony of Mohammedan fanaticism.

FROM EUPATORIA.

"Our first visit this morning was to the Tartar mosque (called Metchet in the language of the country), which has nothing about it remarkable, either for size or beauty; but what amply repaid our disappointment was, a sort of holy wheel, composed of whirling fanatics, who kept flying round in a circle, more like the votaries of Bacchus than of Mahomet, who certainly forbade the juice of the grape, but forgot to interdict that of the poppy, the most destructive and intoxicating of the two; and I believe it was under the influence of this last juice, that this Tartar group were moving at such a rate. Mahomet likewise forgot to forbid ardent spirits; so that the Turks, Tartars, &c. make no scruple of drinking brandy, as "that is not wine," say they.

"An aged dervise turned on his centre like a top, in the middle of this giddy circle, muttering all the while, in concert with the holy circumference, the following wise maxim from the Koran: "This life is precarious; but it is here (pointing to the earth) that we must take up our abode:"—a truth which certainly merits a less ridiculous mode of announcing it.

"The centre of this curious circle is always the place of honour, and even of danger, as the reverend father who occupies it, in right of his years and wisdom, keeps spinning round till he turns his brain at least, if he be not so happy as to expire on the spot, as is sometimes the case; when he becomes a martyr and saint of the Mahometan church, and the envy of his surviving stronger-headed companions."

Our Jumpers are a sect sufficiently remarkable, but the whirl of these spinners is certainly a more extraordinary motion of the spirit. We doubt, however, whether the Spinners can adduce a text so decisive in their favour from the Koran, as the Jumpers quote from the Bible. "David danced before the ark:" "and whatever you may think of it," said one of the sect, "dancing and jumping is pretty much the same thing."

An interesting account is given of the last khan of Crim Tartary, Chagin Girrey. He had accompanied an embassy from the reigning khan to the court of Catharine, in his youth, and the empress, with her usual policy, engaged him to remain in Petersburg, as captain of her guards. In 1774, when the in-

dependence of Crim Tartary was acknowledged in the treaty between Russia and Turkey, by her influence he was appointed khan. The next step was to make him cede his sovereignty to Russia for a pension of 100,000 rubles. The remainder of his life was miserable.

"His countenance was remarkably pale, with strong marks of inward grief preying on his mind: a suspicion confirmed by his dress, which was always black after he abdicated; and he constantly wore a black silk handkerchief on his head, which was carried up each side of his face from under his chin, and tied above the turban. His laundress likewise discovered, by the little circles which it left on his shirts, that he always wore a coat of mail under his cloaths, probably to ward off a sudden blow from any fanatic Mahometan, as he had near 200 about his person, even in his retirement, who constituted his little court. However, in spite of this precaution against a hidden enemy, he was a man of great courage in the field, and upon all occasions of danger; a singular proof of which he once gave, when obliged to take shelter, among the Russian troops, from an insurrection of his subjects during his short reign, instigated by the Turkish party. The insurgents having advanced against his defenders, to the amount of 30,000 men, the khan stole away in the night from the small Russian army (if possible, to prevent the effusion of blood the next day), and rode directly into the midst of his revolted subjects, alone and unarmed, demanding the cause of their discontent, and of what they had to accuse him. This bold measure so completely surprised and discomposed the hostile army, that the soldiers declared they had no personal enmity to their khan, but had been led there by certain mursas, or chiefs, without well knowing why. On this, Chagin Girrey ordered the mursas to be brought before him, to declare their grievances; but they, being as much confounded as their men, could alledge nothing in the slightest degree satisfactory: whereupon he commanded the soldiers to hang them up as traitors; which they instantly did. He then quietly rode back alone to the Russian quarters, who had been in much alarm on finding him gone."

After two years, he became weary of dwelling among men who differed from himself in religion and manners, and obtained leave to visit his relations at Constantinople. His relation, the grand signior, received him with true Turkish affection; that is, he first welcomed him in the kindest manner, ordered him next to retire to Rhodes, and there sent the messenger with the bow-string!

Mrs. Guthrie visited Caffa, or, as it is

now called by its original name, Theodocia, the great market for Circassian slaves, who have been

"Destined for ages past to be brought for sale at the market of Caffa, like any other kind of merchandize; and what is most singular in this revolting business is, that these beauties, so famous in Eastern story, are brought in vast numbers every year by their own parents, and sold at from 2 to 4,000 Turkish piastres\* each, in proportion to their charms.

"As I am sure that a mistress-market must be a curious subject to the polished nations of Europe, I shall give a specimen of the manner in which it is carried on, in the very words of Mr. Keelman, the German merchant, mentioned in my last; which will finish my notes taken in the interesting Theodocia:

"The fair Circassians," says Mr. Keelman, "of whom three were offered me for sale in 1768, were brought from their own chamber into mine (as we all lodged in the same inn), one after another, by the Armenian merchant who had to dispose of them. The first was very well dressed, and had her face covered in the Oriental style. She kissed my hand by order of the master, and then walked backward and forward in the room, to shew me her fine shape, her pretty small foot, and her elegant carriage. She next lifted up her veil, and absolutely surprised me by her extreme beauty. Her hair was fair, with fine large blue eyes; her nose a little aquiline, with pouting red lips. Her features were regular, her complexion fair and delicate, and her cheeks covered with a fine natural vermillion, of which she took care to convince me by rubbing them hard with a cloth. Her neck I thought a little too long; but, to make amends, the finest bosom and teeth in the world set off the other charms of this beautiful slave, for whom the Armenian asked 4,000 Turkish piastres, but permitted me to feel her pulse, to convince myself that she was in perfect health; after which she was ordered away, when the merchant assured me that she was a pure virgin of eighteen years of age.

"I was more surprised, probably, than I ought to have been (as common usage renders every thing familiar) at the perfect indifference with which the inhabitants of Caffa behold this traffic in beauty, that had shocked me so much, and at their assuring me, when I seemed affected at the practice, that it was the only method which parents had of bettering the state of their handsome daughters, *destined at all events to the baram*; for that the rich Asiatic gentleman who pays 4,000 piastres for a beautiful mistress, treats and prizes her as an earthly houri, in perfect conviction that his success with the houries

of Paradise entirely depends on his behaviour to the sisterhood on earth, who will bear testimony against him in case of ill usage; in short, that, by being disposed of to rich mussulmen, they were sure to live in affluence and ease the rest of their days, and in a state by no means degrading in Mahometan countries, where their prophet has permitted the seraglio. But that, on the contrary, if they fell into the hands of their own feudal lords, the barbarous inhabitants of their own native mountains, which it is very difficult for beauty to escape, their lot was comparatively wretched, as those rude chieftains have very little of either respect or generosity toward the fair sex."

The Nogay Tartars, who were the great merchants in this white slave trade, solicit intrigues between their fine women and any handsome European that may chance to pass through their country, in the hope of augmenting their stock of saleable beauty!

The most interesting passage in this volume is an account of a happy Englishman, living like a patriarch, or a philosopher, in the Taurida.

The price of provisions in the Taurida has been doubled under the Russian government, owing to the depopulation of the peninsula, and consequent want of cultivation.

A different receipt for the preparation of *Koumis* is given from any that we remember to have seen.

#### PREPARATION OF KOUMIS.

"To any given quantity of warm mares' milk, the Crim Tartars add a sixth part warm water of the same temperature, with a little old koumis, sour cows' milk, or a piece of sour leaven of their rye-bread, as a ferment; and mix all together in a species of churn.

"In the heat of summer, very little agitation is requisite to throw this mixture into fermentation; after which, nothing more is necessary than to break the thick scum that forms at top, and intimately mix it with the rest of the fermenting mass, by three or four strokes of the churn-staff, several times repeated during the twenty-four hours that the process lasts; for in one day and a night, during this hot season, the koumis is ready; but, in winter, artificial heat and more agitation are necessary to produce the vinous fermentation."

The fine lamb skins which the Tartars have so long made an article of commerce, are said to be thus beautified on the back of the living animal. As soon

\* A Turkish piastre is about four shillings sterling, or a Russian ruble at par.



as the lamb is dropt, it is immediately sewn up in a sort of coarse linen shirt, to keep up a constant and gentle pressure on the fine wool. Warm water is then poured over it every day, to make it soft and sleek, and to lay the fleece in ringlets. The bandage is gradually let out as the lamb grows.

The most useful information is the description of the method of preparing Morocco leather at Karasubazar, where there is an old and famous manufactory.

"They begin the process by cleaning the skins in the following manner. After having steeped some raw hides in cold water for twenty-four hours, to free them from blood and other impurities, the fleshy parts are scraped off with proper instruments. They are next macerated for ten days in cold lime-water, to loosen the hair, which is likewise scraped off as clean as possible.

"For fifteen days they lie in clean cold water, and then are worked under foot in a succession of clean waters; the last being impregnated with dog's dung, to loosen the hair still more; when they receive a second scraping, and are drained of their humidity, which finishes the cleaning process.

"They now proceed to what they call feeding the skins, by steeping them four days in a cold infusion of wheat bran; then in a decoction of honey and water, twenty-eight pounds to five pails, cooled down to the temperature of new milk; out of which they are put under pressure into a vessel with holes at the bottom to let the liquor escape. They are, lastly, steeped four days in a light solution of salt and water, one pound to five pails: this finishes the preparation; and the leather is now ready to receive the dye.

"A strong decoction of artemisa annua, or southernwood, in the proportion of four pounds to ten pails of water, seems to be the basis of all the different colours that they give to the morocco in the Taurida, Astracan, and the other cities formerly belonging to the Tartar empire, where the secret has remained till now.

"When a red colour is intended, a pound of cochineal in powder is gradually stirred

into ten pails of the fine yellow decoction of artemisa, and boiled upon it for half an hour, with five or six drachms of alum, and poured on the leather in a proper vessel. They are next worked under feet in an infusion of oak leaves in warm water, till they become supple and soft; when they are finally rinsed in cold water, then rubbed over with olive oil, and callendered with wooden rollers; which finishes the manufacture.

"The yellow morocco is dyed with the decoction of artemisia alone; only stronger, twenty pounds of it to fifteen pails, being the proportion when used without other admixture; but two pounds of alum in fine powder, is gradually added, by half a table spoonful at a time; and with this each skin is twice stained before the last operations of oiling and callendering.

"It is, however, necessary to remark, that there is a little difference in the preparation of the skins for receiving the pure yellow dye described above; as neither honey nor salt are used; but, instead of them, the hides are steeped for two days in an infusion of oak leaves (immediately after being taken out of the infusion of bran, wherein they must have lain four days), and then worked under feet for a few hours of two days; next rinsed in cold water, and placed one above another on poles, to drain off the water, and make them ready for staining.

"This is all the certain information that I have been able to obtain on this curious subject; for I can by no means depend on the vague reports that I have heard, relative to the colouring matter added for staining the green and blue kinds of morocco; so that I prefer leaving you in the same uncertainty, to giving as facts what I cannot myself depend upon."

Dr. Guthrie has added a supplement, and an appendix, which fill a fourth part of the volume, both upon Bosphoric antiquities and history. We wish he had given all his erudition in this form, instead of interpolating his wife's letters; but then Mrs. Guthrie's part would have been reduced to the length of a preface—a little French anti-room to the Doctor's huge lumbered library.

ART. XI. *Travels through the Southern Provinces of the Russian Empire, in the Years 1793 and 1794. Translated from the German of P. S. PALLAS, vol. 1, 4to. pages 575. 39 coloured Plates and Vignettes, and 3 Maps.*

THE great name of professor Pallas, and the splendid appearance of this volume, which is full of prints, had prepared us to expect much interesting information, from an account of countries so little known, by a man of such acknowledged learning. His former tra-

vels have not been rendered into our language. The present work, he says, may tend to supply deficiencies in the former. The translator has, therefore, judiciously inwoven such passages from the former publication as are necessary to complete the information in this.

From Petersburg the author travelled to Tzaritzin, on the Volga. Every where on the road he observes and regrets the waste of timber. The number of distilleries is a more serious and alarming evil; in the government of Pensa, which contains about 650,000 inhabitants, about ten million gallons of spirits are annually distilled. The forests in some parts of the journey presented a very singular appearance.

"Severe hoar frosts had commenced in these regions before Christmas, and were followed by snow, mixed with rain or sleet, so that even the smallest branches of the trees were covered with ice an inch thick; by this all the flexible birch-trees had been bent to the ground in semicircles. Their tops and branches were thus buried under the continual snow, which lay upwards of a yard deep, and kept the trees in that recumbent state. The inflexible full grown birch and oaks trees had been partly split, and partly broken, by the weight of the congelations on their tops, while their collateral branches were also bent to the ground. The thaw, which began here towards the latter end of February, and the rays of the sun, had indeed melted the icy incrustations on the upper part of the trees, but it still remained undissolved on the branches which were fixed in the snow. The cylinders of ice on one side, all appeared melted into a solid mass, but on the lower part they were crystallised, some according to the usual configuration of frozen water, in hexagonal and partly in rhomboidal figures, while others consisted only of hexagonal sections. These bodies were, like the well-known hollow cubes of salt, apparently formed of icicles of a pyramidal figure when inverted, broad on the surface, and narrow towards the inner part, where they were fixed in the ice."

A favourable account is given of the German colonists.

"These colonists have, during the last twenty years, considerably increased both in population and opulence, and are now almost completely naturalized, or renovated; as the old settlers, who were in general rather immoral characters, are dead, and succeeded by a better and more vigorous progeny. The number of colonists who settled on the banks of the Volga, originally amounted to 29,000 persons; 2000 of these gradually emigrated to different parts of the empire; about 400 were carried into captivity by the Kirghiskozaks, during the troubles of 1773, nevertheless the present population of the German colonies on the Volga amounts to 33,000 persons of both sexes. They appear to be perfectly contented and happy, and to have no other wish than to be governed by magistrates acquainted with the German language, as many

of the colonists are unable to speak the Russian. Nor would it have been an easy matter to choose a better and more comfortable situation for such a colony in the Russian empire; not only with respect to fertility, but also for a healthy and temperate climate. The winter is regular and moderate, with deep falls of snow; the weather of spring and autumn is generally wholesome, and the summer is delightful. The various degrees of heat and cold here do not exceed twenty-seven degrees above and below the freezing point, and even these do not occur to such extent every year."

Professor Pallas is of opinion with Tournefort, that the Kumanian, Kalmuk, and Yaikian deserts, were formerly overflowed, and that the Caspian and Black Seas were united. He founds his opinion upon the shells scattered through these deserts, resembling those of the Caspian, and not to be found in the rivers; the uniformity of the soil, and the quantity of marine salt which it contains.

When he arrived at Tzaritzin, the frost had not yet broken, though it was the latter end of March, for the winter lingered unusually long. The birds of passage, who as usual had arrived in February, had disappeared. The thaw came on in April; the ice on the river split; the snow torrents ran from the mountains into the Volga; the birds of passage returned; the tulip and the mountain-saffron sprouted out, and the first chaffir and *citillus*, or mountain-mouse, awoke from their brumal slumber. This town contains many wealthy merchants, who trade with the Kalmuks. The lower classes maintain themselves by rearing cattle, by the cultivation of cucumbers, sugar, and water melons; by the fisheries, and by the trade of carriers. The town itself was strong enough to repel Pugatshef in his cruel career in 1774. The country seems to have recovered the devastation committed during that calamitous insurrection. At Otrada white mustard is cultivated on a large scale; it produces sixty-fold crops; and the oil and flour of mustard exceed the value of wheat in a similar proportion. A Moravian colony is settled at Sarepta. Their late marriages, the Professor says, impede population. Perhaps count Zinzendorff legislated for a colder climate. They carry on many manufactures; among others those of velveret and calico, which are made in great perfection, but cannot be sold as

low as those imported from Manchester. The sisters are said to embroider with uncommon skill and elegance, and the garden, which they cultivate without assistance, is a pattern of industry, cleanliness, and regularity. The people here brew a kind of beer from their water melons, with the addition of hops, and prepare a conserve from the same fruit, which is a good substitute for treacle. The Professor conjectures that a tolerable wine might be made from melons. An army of rats (the *mus decumanus*) past through Sarepta a few years ago, swam over the mill-dam in open day, and pursued their journey towards Tzaritzin.

From hence our author proceeded to Astrakhan. The desert produced white and yellow tulips in abundance. Elephant bones are frequently found here. The sepulchral hillocks are numerous, and many of them have been so filled with dead bodies that their tops have sunk into the form of a basin. The little village Solotnikove exhibits in its history a specimen of Russian colonization. Five hundred persons were *transplanted* there from the northern parts of Ustyng and Vologda. The heat of the climate has destroyed three hundred; the remainder who have borne the experiment, and resisted the thaw, are in debt to the crown for the taxes of their dead relations! Of all despots, a speculating despot is the most dangerous.

In all the towns and villages upon the Volga, the inhabitants make cylinders of bark, which they place on poles in the farm yards, to entice the birds to build there. The Kalmuks had been thinned by the small pox, to them as destructive as the plague. The introduction of provincial governments, and the division of lands have confined the range of this horde, who still consist of above 8000 *kybikes*, or family tents. For any account of the manners of this people, the author refers to his Collections for the elucidation of the History of the Mongole Tribes. He made no stay at Astrakhan, designing to return there at the close of the summer. His summer journey furnished very little interesting matter. The journal consists almost wholly of mineralogical and botanical observations, or the topography of a country wherein every place has an *unrememberable* name. In one leaf we come to Mankhalinskoi, or, as the Tartars call it,

Kuyutkhu, Akhtotubinskoi, Solotukhino, Setterta-Modun, and Volodimerovka, the great slobode opposite Tshernoiiarsk. To this great slobode the Professor sent his baggage, while he visited Arslan-Ula, or the Lion's Mountain, so called from its resemblance on one side to a lion couchant.

"The eastern declivity of this rocky descent has a very singular appearance. As the sand-stone has probably in several places been soft, it is apparently corroded with various small globular cavities, resembling grotto work. It is obvious that this uncommon formation of sand-stone could be produced by no other cause than the power of the dashing waves, at a time when the whole steppe formed part of the Caspian Sea; for these excavations cannot be discovered on the higher parts of the sand-bank. On the plain extending towards the saline lake, there are scattered several fragments of cliffs, which appear to have been entirely covered by water. Among these we met with globular pieces of various sizes, which, on breaking them, were partly hollow, and contained sand not unlike regular geodites. During the prevalence of easterly winds, that blow with violence against this grotto work, the highest part of which is towards the south, it appears to a person standing on its summit, as if he heard the distant murmuring of many hundred voices joined in prayer. The phenomenon was particularly striking on the day when I visited this region, during a violent storm from the north-east. The credulous Kalmuks are told by their priests that the tutelary spirit of the mountain, or the white old man, whom they call *Tzaghan Ebuben*, resides in a large cavern beneath this mountain; and that this is the chosen abode of saints, who are engaged in continual devotion and spiritual songs."

A day's journey from Tzaritzin, whither he had returned, is the village of Besrodnaya Sloboda, where the empress Elizabeth has attempted to rear silk works, and establish a manufactory of silk. She invited Armenians, and other foreigners, who understood the care of the silk worm, to settle, but none accepted the invitation. She then settled about 250 stragglers there, under the direction of an Hungarian major, who suffered the establishment to decline. At length the great Catherine directed her attention there, appointed a director, and issued an order that the imperial college of economy should furnish him with 1300 families of "*voluntary* peasants." In two years these volunteers were raised; but volunteers as they

were, it seems they had an "invincible and rooted dislike" to the employment, because they could at all times derive greater advantage from fishing. *Cogent measures* were resorted to, which phrase may, perhaps, be English for the knout. This did not succeed; the peasantry even sprinkled the worms with salt water to destroy them. The perpetrators of this crime were punished. They next set fire to the grass, to extirpate the mulberry trees. The scheme was then abandoned. Will such potentates never learn that manufactories cannot be forced? that some degree of civilization must precede them? that he who is not workman enough to make a tenpenny nail, must not attempt to make needles?

"The most certain means of introducing this source of national wealth, and of saving the empire upwards of a million of rubles, which are annually paid to the Turks, the Persians, and the Italians, for their silks, would be to establish colonies of the Asiatic nations, particularly in the peninsula of the Crimea, where the mulberry tree grows uncommonly fast, even in a dry soil, when properly watered.

"On the whole, the Asiatic method is far preferable to that formerly practised on the Akhtoubas, where much time and expence was wasted in feeding the silk-worms with gathered leaves, which soon decayed, and rendered the frequent shifting of their beds necessary. The Persian of Boukharia rears his mulberry trees to about six feet high, which they attain in four or five years. He then begins to lop their tops and branches, which are given to the insects, as soon as they have sufficient strength, by placing them gently on their beds. By this means the shoots remain fresh and succulent, and the worms devour them even to the woody fibres, so that no part of the nutritive foliage is wasted. As these insects are every day supplied with food, the leafless branches gradually form a kind of wicker-work, through which the impurities pass, so that the cheerful worms preserve the requisite cleanliness without trouble to the cultivator, and speedily attain a vigorous state. In this manner they are continually supplied with leaves, till they prepare to spin, when small dry brushwood is placed in all directions over the leafless branches, and on this the worms spin their silk. Two persons, an adult who lops the branches, and a child who collects them, are thus enabled quickly to procure food for a great number of silk-worms. The mulberry tree in our climate produces new shoots twice every summer: these shoots acquire in the same year the firm consistence of wood, and in the subsequent spring afford an abundant crop of foliage. In Persia and Boukharia,

where the summer is longer, and vegetation more vigorous, the shoots may even be cut twice a-year. The tree, by this method of cutting, remains always low, and produces a greater number of young shoots from its trunk, as well as from its branches, every subsequent year. By stripping them of their leaves, however, many branches wither, and not only the buds are lost, and much foliage wasted, but the worms receive less nourishment, as the leaves sooner decay."

The traditionary account which the Kalmuks give of a ruin called Temahne Balgasum, or the camel's tower, evinces an odd idea of magnificence: they say Dshanibek-Khan kept a number of mares there, whose milk was conveyed by tubes from the tower to his residence. They have a tale of Khara-shishi, his divorced wife, (for we suppose Khan-Dehenovak to be the same name). There is a lake of sweetish water, much frequented by water fowl. By this she fixed her habitation, and ordered a large quantity of sugar to be thrown into it, to decoy aquatic birds from the country round. The khan was a great lover of hawking. This made him frequently resort to the lake, and thus she eventually effected a reconciliation. Sugar is an odd bait for a wild duck, and a wild duck is an odd bait for a husband; but this tale might form the subject of an interesting song.

In August the Professor returned to Astrakhan, a semi-asiatic and important place, which, next to Moscow, ranks among the first cities of the Russian empire. The fishery here, during the fasts of the Greek church, which amount to at least one third of the year, affords the principal food to the whole European part of Russia. According to the average produce, the value of the sturgeons annually taken amounts to 1,760,405 rubles.

"It may hence be concluded, in what incalculable numbers these large fish, so rich in caviare, are continually propagated in the depths of the Caspian sea. They proceed in shoals to the mouths, and a considerable way up the current of the rivers, without the least apparent diminution of their numbers. This superabundance may be more clearly conceived from the account of eye-witnesses, respecting the fishery of Sallian, in Persia. As the Persians eat no sturgeon, the before-mentioned speculators in fish have reaped the fishery of that river from the khan of Derbent, SHIKH ALI, a son of FETH ALI KHAN, at a certain sum, which of late years has been raised to 25,000 rubles. In the season of their migration there are sometimes,

in one day, 15,000 sturgeons taken with the hook, at the weirs formed across the water; nay, it is still more remarkable, that if the fishermen are accidentally prevented from working during a single day, the fish accumulate in such numbers at the weir, as to fill the whole channel, insomuch that those which are uppermost appear with their backs above water, in a river not less than four arshines, or twenty-eight English feet deep, and sixty fathoms wide. The Persian fishery, which has been established by the proprietors only a few years ago, and which, together with the rent, amounts to an expence of 80,000 rubles, is said to produce annually upwards of 200,000 rubles. It might be still more lucrative, if the injudicious fishermen would preserve the great number of fish, instead of throwing them into the sea as useless, after having collected their roes and air bladders."

The most valuable production of the sturgeon is the isinglass, which is sold to England for our breweries, and to the southern countries to clarify their wines; not, as is said in another part of this volume, to give them a *brilliant colour*. The balance of trade from hence to Persia is against Russia.

Here the author was present at some religious ceremonies of the Multanes, an Indian tribe, subject to the Avgans, and whose language bears the greatest analogy to that of the gypsies. Their priest, he says, was not a regular Bramin, but a Dervise. But the word dervise is as appropriate to the Mohammedan religion as bramin is to the Hindoo, or friar to the catholic nomenclature. By the names of these idols, it appears that their religion is a corruption of the great superstition that extends over the whole of India. In this city also he witnessed the distribution of the holy oil of the Nestorian Armenians, which is said to be prepared in forty days from flowers and plants of forty different sorts, gathered with great secrecy on the mountains of Anatolia and Caucasus. It is made only in one convent, every four or five years, and is thence distributed to all the churches of the sect. Here too he learnt the history of the Persian troubles, during the last twenty years. We will not attempt to abridge pages which are crowded with khans and kuli-khans, as a more ample account of Persian history may be expected from Mr. Olivier, a far more able writer than the Russian professor.

We will extract the history of the ce-

lebrated diamond, which is now set in the imperial sceptre of Russia.

"Shah Nadir had in his throne two principal Indian diamonds; one of which was called the sun of the sea, and the other the moon of the mountain. At the time of his assassination, many precious ornaments belonging to the crown were pillaged, and afterwards secretly disposed of by the soldiers who shared the plunder.

"Shafraass, commonly known at Astrakhan by the name of Millionskik, or the Man of Millions, then resided at Bassora, with two of his brothers. One day, a chief of the Avganians applied to him, and secretly proposed to sell, for a very moderate sum, the beforementioned diamond, which probably was that called the moon of the mountain; together with a very large emerald, a ruby of a considerable size, and other precious stones of less value. Shafraass was astonished at the offer, and pretending that he had not a sufficient sum to purchase these jewels, he demanded time to consult with his brothers on the subject. The vender, probably from suspicious motives, did not again make his appearance.

"Shafraass, with the approbation of his brothers, immediately went in search of the stranger with the jewels, but he had left Bassora. The Armenian, however, met him accidentally at Bagdad, and concluded the bargain by paying him 50,000 piastres for all the jewels in his possession. Shafraass and his brothers being conscious that it was necessary to observe the most profound secrecy respecting this purchase, resolved, on account of their commercial connections, to remain at Bassora.

"After a lapse of twelve years, Grigori Shafraass, with the consent of his brothers, set off with the largest of the jewels, which had till then been concealed. He directed his route through Sham and Constantinople, and afterwards by land through Hungary and Silesia, to the city of Amsterdam, where he publicly offered his jewels for sale.

"The English government is said to have been among the bidders. The court of Russia sent for the large diamond, with a proposal to reimburse all reasonable expences, if the price could not be agreed upon. When the diamond arrived, the Russian minister count Panin, made the following offer to Shafraass, whose negociator, M. Lasaref, was then jeweller to the court. Besides the patent of hereditary nobility, demanded by the vender, he was to receive an annual pension of 6000 rubles during life, 500,000 rubles in cash, one fifth part of which was to be payable on demand, and the remainder in the space of ten years, by regular instalments. The capricious Shafraass likewise claimed the honour of nobility for his brothers, and various other immunities or advantages, and persisted so obstinately in his



demands, that the negociation was frustrated, and the diamond returned.

"Shaffrass was now in great perplexity. He had involved himself in expences, was obliged to pay interest for considerable sums he had borrowed, and there was no prospect of selling the jewel to advantage. His negociators left him in that perplexity, in order to profit by his mismanagement. To elude his creditors, he was obliged to abscond to Astrakhan. At length the negociation with Russia was recommenced by Count Grigory Grigorievitch Orlof, who was afterwards created a prince of the empire; and the diamond was purchased for 450,000 rubles, ready money, together with the grant of Russian nobility. Of that sum, it is said, 120,000 rubles fell to the share of the negociators, for commission, interest, and similar expences. Shaffrass settled at Astrakhan, and his riches, which by inheritance devolved to his daughters, have, by the extravagance of his sons-in-law, been in a great measure dissipated."

With all due respect to the imperial purchasers, we cannot quite approve of their conduct in this transaction. If Colonel Blood had succeeded in carrying off our crown jewels, no European sovereign would have purchased them. The thief is bad, but we have a proverb which, perhaps, may not exist in the Sclavonic language, to say who is worse. Professor Pallas must be mistaken in supposing that the English government was among the bidders; there is no folly of this kind among the ways and means of expending the public money here.

In August the Professor proceeded to Mount Caucasus, a wearying and uninteresting route; at least we have found it so in following him through pages that relate only to plants and soils. The Tartar monuments, indeed, furnish interesting prints, but even such information as satisfies antiquarians is not to be obtained concerning them. Sometimes some descriptions of a singular nature occur; such is the following account of a mineral spring, of which the basin is twenty-seven feet long and seventeen broad.

"The principal gulph is not exactly in the middle of the basin; its limpid mineral water issues with violent emotion, continually ejecting large bubbles, together with a ferruginous brown and sleek sand, like fine gunpowder; it is four or five arshines wide, and on sounding it with the plummet, we ascertained its depth to be upwards of nine feet. But on examining it with the pikes of the Kozaks, we found it was upwards of five

arshines deep, and that at the bottom it contained rocky cliffs, apparently proceeding in an oblique direction. The boiling spring, by the brown colour of its sand, and the large bubbles of water it throws up, perfectly resembles coffee in a state of ebullition. The violence with which the water forces the sand to the surface, is more or less considerable at different times; and frequently, on immersing a glass immediately below the surface of the water, it was taken out more than half full of this brown sand, which, however, is instantly precipitated, and the effervescent water appears as clear as crystal: the sand likewise, by its own weight, falls to the bottom in the spring itself, so that it is not carried into the channel of the Easin. It may be easily conceived, what a mass of water must proceed from a spring, which is powerful enough to cause bubbles of such magnitude as to support even the human body when floating in the bath, instead of allowing it to sink by its own weight. Its junction with the two other, though more considerable, rivulets is attended with so remarkable an effect, that notwithstanding the great loss of carbonic acid in its course, and subsequent mixture with the water of these rivulets, the barbel and trout, which are very numerous in their superior tracts, cannot exist here. If such fish are taken and plunged into the spring, they immediately float motionless on its surface, and recover but slowly when replaced in the water of the rivulets.

"After having ascended a rocky path, we arrived at a dreadful abyss on the steep side of the mountain, at the foot of which the village is situated. This gulph has been apparently formed by the fall of a cylindrical mass of calcareous rock, no less than twenty fathoms thick: it cannot be approached without danger, on account of the giddiness it produces in the beholder. After repeated trials to ascertain its depth, by means of a plumb, I found that it was from seventeen and a half to eighteen fathoms deep; and the stones which we threw into it were nearly three seconds in falling. The water at the bottom appeared to be little more than two feet deep, and the weights plunged into it were perceptibly warm when withdrawn; it is likewise of a sulphureous nature, as is manifest from the strong smell of the *hepar sulphuris* emitted from the abyss. Notwithstanding this suffocative exhalation, wood-pigeons, which are started by throwing in stones, build their nests and pass the winter in this constantly warm retreat. The great number of these birds were out, in search of food: when we departed, a large flight of them appeared, and after having flown several times round this subterraneous abode, they plunged suddenly into the gulph. On approaching its brink, and laying ourselves down on our breasts, we could see the water at the bottom, and two very large caverns,

one of which we observed towards the hollow middle of the great mountain, and the other in a direction towards the front of the hill. Between the stony strata are many clefts, in which pigeons build their nests."

This picture reminded us of the cave of Montesinos, except, indeed, that the birds who sallied out upon Don Quixotte were of a darker plumage.

The account of the nations inhabiting the Caucasus, forms a more important part of the volume. The system of the Circassians is feudal; there is no need to invent historical hypotheses to account for the general diffusion of this system, it is the necessary system of a semi-barbarous people. A more extraordinary feature is the apparent want of all natural affection in the higher classes; they live almost separate from their wives, and suffer their children to be educated by strangers. The parents have no desire to see their son, till he is capable of bearing arms, and no notice is taken of the girls till after marriage. The princes (a more accurate idea of their rank would be formed by using the Circassian title *psbi*; which is equivalent to *bey*), and the nobles, or knights, or usdens, pursue no other business or amusement, than war, pillage, and the chase; they live a lordly life, wander about, meet at drinking parties, and undertake military excursions. Tavernier gives a more inactive character of what he calls the Circassian gentlemen: he says they sit still, say little, and do nothing.

"The two opposite customary laws, namely, those of hospitality and revenge, are sacredly observed among the Circassian knights, as well as among most other nations of the Caucasus. The right of hospitality, which they term *kunak*, is established on certain principles; and every person submitting to its protection is perfectly secure from all injuries. He who befriends a stranger defends him, if occasion require it, not only with his own blood and life, but also with that of his relatives; nor does he suffer him to depart without an equestrian escort, and delivers him over to his next confederates, under such conditions that a murder or injury committed on the guest, is avenged with equal severity as the death of a relation by consanguinity. A stranger who intrusts himself to the patronage of a woman, or is able to touch with his mouth the breast of a wife, is spared and protected as a relation of the blood, though he were the enemy, nay even the murderer of a similar relative.

"The opposite conduct, or bloody revenge, is practised with the most scrupulous

adherence to custom. The murder of a family relation must be avenged by the next heir, though he should be an infant at the time when the deed was committed. Every degree of vindictive malice is exercised sooner or later, whether publicly or in a clandestine manner, to take away the life of the murderer, lest the injured party should be considered as an outcast of society. Nay, the desire of revenge is hereditary in the successors and the whole tribe; it remains as it were rooted with so much rancour, that the hostile princes or nobles of two different tribes, when they meet each other on the road, or accidentally in another place, are compelled to fight for their lives; unless they have given previous notice to each other, and bound themselves to pursue a different route. Among the Circassians the spirit of resentment is so great, that all the relations of the murderer are considered as guilty. This customary infatuation to avenge the blood of relatives, generates most of the feuds, and occasions great bloodshed among all the nations of the Caucasus; for unless pardon be purchased, or obtained by intermarriage between the two families, the principle of revenge is propagated to all succeeding generations. The hatred which the mountainous nations evince against the Russians, in a great measure arises from the same source: if the thirst of vengeance is quenched by a price paid to the family of the deceased, this tribute is called *thil-uasa*, or the price of blood; but neither princes nor usdens accept of such a compensation, as it is an established law among them to demand blood for blood."

"It is probable that the Circassian bears no affinity to any other language, and that it has originally been a species of gibberish; for it is reported that their princes and usdens speak a peculiar dialect, which is kept secret from the common people, and used chiefly in their predatory expeditions." This supposition is so very extraordinary, that we should almost suspect an inaccuracy in the translation, a species of gibberish! The Professor himself tells us, that the chiefs are a race of conquerors, and the vassals a conquered people; and surely this solution is sufficient. The same circumstance has been observed in some of the South Sea islands. The chiefs speak a language which is unintelligible by the people.

In the country the intoxicating honey mentioned by Xenophon, is produced. It is collected from the blossoms of the *rhododendron* and the *azalea pontica*. It is said to be nearly as hard as sugar. Of their religion little is said. It seems to be of a milder character than might





have been expected from their manners.

"In some part of their territory is a remarkable cave, consecrated to Saint Nicholas, who, as tradition says, appears here in the form of an eagle. The sacrifices made to this tutelary saint, consist of the flesh of animals, which is placed in the cave, and is, no doubt, a sufficient inducement for the eagles to visit this place. The Dugores possess a temple devoted to their sacrifices, which are made on important occasions, when they kill their cattle, consume the flesh, but carefully deposit the bones in the temple. Among the Tsherkessates we also found sacred groves, in which every family has its appropriate place for erecting huts, under the shades of trees or bushes. These people celebrate an annual feast, which is continued for eight days, and bears great resemblance to the Jewish passover. During this religious festival every passenger is stopped, and obliged to join them in the celebration of the feast, when all the families strive to emulate each other in evincing their hospitality."

The Professor left Georgiefsk in September, designing to reach the Taurida before the winter set in. His remarks upon the journey are, as usual, scientific, but not generally interesting. The following extract is curious.

"From the last regular post-house, on the banks of the Podpolnaya, we were obliged to travel seven versts entirely over a low country to the river Don, which we crossed by a bridge made of floating beams joined together by chains, and which conducted us to the city of Tsherkask. The prevailing tempest from the sea agitated and bent the floating bridge on this broad river in a dreadful manner: this, together with the noise of loaded waggons drawn by oxen, forming as it were a continued chain, was so impressive about twilight, that we apprehended every moment the destruction of the bridge: such a misfortune indeed sometimes happens in consequence of violent storms; especially as the bridge is scarcely broad enough to allow two carriages to pass each other; and as it is not provided with railings to prevent the accidents of falling into the river. Thus we arrived in the evening at the capital of the Kozaks of the Don; a city which during the last twenty years has been considerably enlarged and ornamented

with many beautiful private houses, inhabited by Kozak officers who have been invested with honours and titles. But the narrow and obscure streets of this city, the confined situation of its buildings, most of which have not even the convenience of a yard, and the annual inundations in spring, all conspire to render it extremely unwholesome, and for ever to prevent any effectual improvements. I likewise cannot speak favourably of the moral character of its inhabitants, whether male or female. A continual habit of good living, indolence, and debauchery, the natural consequences of the superfluity, which the excellent possessions of this free militia afford, have thoroughly corrupted their manners, and their ancient simplicity has been almost entirely superseded by luxury. Here, as in other countries, the capital is the seat of corruption, which gradually infects the mass of the people. The distinctions and privileges which have in later times been too liberally granted to the higher ranks, have rendered these, as well as the people, proud and insolent. The former, who have established villages on the beautiful tracts of land granted to them on the eastern bank of the Don, and encouraged vagrants to settle there, endeavour to oppress the poorer class of inhabitants, by imposing upon them all the burthens of military duty; though they spare the more wealthy, whose common interest it is to deprive the latter frequently even of the payments due for their services. The discontent resulting from this conduct, is construed, by their superiors, into want of obedience and mutiny, so that it is productive of additional oppression. Thus a people naturally well disposed, and who have hitherto been very useful to Russia in furnishing the empire with light troops, are continually more injured in their free constitution, and daily shew greater aversion to military service, while their affluent governors live in the most voluptuous indolence and immorality."

In no one instance do the Russians appear to have ameliorated the condition of their conquered subjects.

From Tsherkask the Professor proceeded through Taganrof, a town of considerable trade, to the Taurida. Here the first volume ends.

The appearance of the work is very splendid, and no expence in engraving has been spared.



ART. XII. *The most remarkable Year in the Life of Augustus Von Kotzebue, containing an Account of his Exile into Siberia, and of the other extraordinary Events which happened to him in Russia, written by himself. Translated from the German by the Rev. BEN. BERESFORD English Lecturer to the Queen of Prussia. 3 vols. 12mo.*

THESE volumes contain an entertaining and interesting account of the author's visit to Siberia. The motives of tourists are various, some journey for health and some for pleasure, but a tour to Siberia would scarcely have been undertaken without a motive as strong as that supplied by the late emperor Paul to the unfortunate Kotzebue. The reason of his arrest, if, indeed under such a sovereign any other reason than caprice was to be sought for, he professes himself entirely ignorant of; and if we may credit the account here given, it was a most wanton and arbitrary exertion of power. It was in the year 1800, on the 10th of April, that Kotzebue, his wife, and three children, set out from Weimar, furnished with a passport from the emperor, to visit their relations and friends in Russia; he had some misgivings as he proceeded, though his fears did not extend further than the possibility of not being suffered to return from Petersburg. His feelings as he crossed the barrier, and his subsequent arrest, are described in an impressive manner, and cannot be read without a shudder, by an inhabitant of a free country.

"We came in sight of the frontiers; we passed the line, and were now on the territory of Russia. We could, however, have returned. No soldier stopped us; no river, no bridge, not the slightest barrier separated us from the Prussian dominions. Silent, and with a heavy heart, I cast my eyes to the left: all the admonitions I had received, now assailed me; I could scarcely breathe.

"My wife too had her alarms, which she has since owned. She looked at me without saying a word. Still we had time to retreat, but the wheel of fortune was turned, and we were about to undergo our destiny.

"Halt!" cried a Cossack, armed with a long pike. We were at the foot of a bridge that led over a small brook; the guard house lay on our left; the officer made his appearance. 'Your passport, Sir,'—'Here it is.'—The officer opened it, and examined the signature. 'What name is this?—Krudener.—You are come from Berlin?—Yes.—Very well, pray go on, Sir.' He made a sign, the barrier opened, the carriage rolled with a heavy sound over the bridge, the barrier shut behind us, and I heaved a deep

sigh. 'Here we are,' said I to my wife, affecting to be gay. Heaven knows, however, that all my uneasiness was confined to the single point of my return; far was I from thinking that my personal safety was at all in danger.

"We arrived in a few minutes at Polangen, a small town where the custom house is established. At the head of this department was Mr. Sellin, a polite and humane man, formerly lieutenant-colonel of a regiment quartered at Narva. He had resided at no great distance from my wife's patrimonial estate. When I last left Russia, we had embraced on this same spot, and my wife and I were happy to find we were on the point of meeting him here again.

"I alighted from my carriage, and Sellin appeared on the flight of steps before his door. I approached and embraced him, but he returned my salute with an air of gravity. I asked him if he did not recollect me; he made no reply, and strove afterwards to appear cordial.

"My wife alighted, and the evident embarrassment of Sellin made her shudder. He received her, however, with politeness, and handed her into the house. Weyrauch, the comedian, who had accompanied us from Memel, was likewise admitted without difficulty.

"My wife now assumed the easy gaiety of behaviour which takes place between old acquaintances; Sellin answered in an awkward manner, and at length, turning towards me, said, 'Where is your passport?'—'In the hand of the Cossack officer.' He was silent, and the concern he felt was visible in his countenance. The passport soon appeared; Sellin perused it, and then asked if I was the President de Kotzebue. The question on his part was singular. 'Doubtless, (I replied) I am that person.' 'In that case,' continued he (but he instantly stopped short, and I observed that his countenance was pale, and his lips quivering), then addressing himself to my wife; 'be not alarmed, madam,' said he; 'but I have orders to arrest your husband.' The unhappy woman gave a loud shriek, her knees tottered, she flew to me, threw herself about my neck, and began to load herself with the bitterest reproaches."

After his papers had been seized, and his baggage examined, he was told he was to go to Petersburg, to appear before the emperor, but at Mittau he was obliged to leave his wife and children, and proceed, under the guard of an aulic counsellor and a courier, in a car-





stage which he was allowed to purchase for the occasion. The first post from Riga the route was changed, and he learnt, with horror, that he was going to Tobolsk. On the 7th of May they passed Moscow. They had several rivers to ferry over, swelled by the melting of the snows, and soon after underwent a danger of a different kind from fire.

"One night we saw a large forest in flames. At a distance the spectacle produced a grand effect, but when I found we were to pass through it, this new kind of danger made me shudder. Some burning pines, which had fallen one against the other, actually formed an arch of fire in the very middle of the road, while others threatened to fall upon our heads. We frequently observed trees burnt eight or ten feet at bottom, supported by the mere thickness of their bark, their tops and branches as yet untouched by the flames. We came at length to a fir tree on fire from top to bottom, which was overturned across the road. At first we hesitated what to do, as it was equally dangerous to proceed or to turn back. It was at length determined to proceed; the postillion whipped the horses, and drove them over the lowest part of the tree. This agreeable passage was at least a thousand paces in length."

On the 17th of May they left Cäsan, the weather was then agreeably warm, but quantities of snow were still in the woods; the road was wide, but frequently intersected with swamps, and being repaired with faggots, jolted severely the poor traveller. They met several companies of robbers, chained in couples, who were marching on foot to the mines of Nertschink, and who asked charity. We cannot here agree to the assertion of Kotzebue, that *undoubtedly he was more unhappy than those wretches*. He seems, indeed, disposed to make the most of his sufferings, and indulges a spleen pardonable, perhaps, in his situation, against the aulic counsellor who had him in charge, and who really does not appear to have treated him with more severity than was necessary to fulfil the mandate of his master, particularly when it is considered, that Kotzebue gave him some trouble by an attempt to escape; but, indeed, we observe throughout something of a parade of sentiment, and a studious attention to produce dramatic effect, which mark the professed author rather than the simple narrator. From Perm to Tobolsk the country improved; instead of

gloomy pines, fine woods of young birch, fertile fields in a high state of cultivation, opulent villages Russian or Tartar, and peasants with contented countenances, scarcely allowed them to believe they had entered Siberia. The peasants spoke with great affection of the late empress, whom they called *matuscha*, little mother. At one of the villages they met with an affecting object in an old man who had been thirty-five years an exile, and was become insane; he was continually inquiring after letters from Revel, his former home, and they could only pacify him by pretending to read one from his wife. They arrived at Tobolsk on the 10th of May: here he was consigned over to the governor, a worthy man, who treated him with great kindness. Tobolsk is on the banks of the Irtysh, and its numerous steeples make a handsome appearance.

"Towards the evening I commonly took a turn in the town, or to the great square. The city is large; most of the streets are broad and straight: and the houses chiefly constructed of wood; those built of stone are commodious and in the modern taste. The churches, which are very numerous, are all heavily designed. The streets are paved, or rather planked with thick timber, which is far cleaner, and much more agreeable than pebbles. The town is traversed length-ways by navigable canals, over which are bridges, kept in good repair. The market-place (*the bazar*) is very spacious, where, besides provisions and things of the first necessity, a great quantity of Chinese and European goods are exposed to sale. These articles are extremely dear, but the price of all kinds of provisions is very moderate. This square is crowded incessantly with people of all nations, particularly Russians and Tartars, Kirgises and Calmucks. The fish market afforded a very novel spectacle to me. Great quantities of different kinds of fish, which I had hitherto known merely by description, were exposed, both dead and alive, in tubs and barges, for sale. *Esterlets (acipenser ruthenus)* sold for a mere trifle. The *buso*, or royal fish, (*acipenser buso*) the *silure*, (*silurus glaris*) &c. with *caviar* of every colour, were equally reasonable."

Tobolsk has also a play-house; and the exiled author had the pleasure of seeing some of his own pieces represented in this distant region. The governor's house has a garden, of which one trait will be sufficiently descriptive: it had a fine show of fruit trees *painted* upon the

plank walls of the inclosure. In recompense, the country produces plenty of grain, and has a rich pasture. Our author was not, however, allowed to stay at Tobolsk, but he had the choice of any other residence, and the governor recommended to him Kurgan, which he politely assured him, was the *Italy of Siberia*. To Kurgan, on the banks of the Tobol, he accordingly went. Here he found provisions plentiful and cheap, a tolerable house, the walls of which were adorned, amongst other prints, with *Lady Hamilton's attitudes*, and companions in misfortune, particularly an interesting Pole, to whom he cordially attached himself. The neighbourhood was full of lakes and marshes, and their chief amusement was shooting woodcocks and wild ducks; the weather was fine, and he describes the meadows as covered with flowers and sweet scented herbs: bathing and swimming were favourite amusements with both sexes. Thus the days passed on, till on the 7th of July, when, as if the emperor had only had a mind he should make a summer excursion into that part of his dominions, he received the unexpected and welcome news of his recall. This he attributes to Paul's having seen a translation of a little piece of his written in German some years before, the subject of which was a generous action of the emperor's. In his route back he met companies of miserable exiles.

"From Perm to Cäsan nothing particular occurred, and the good spirits I enjoyed were only damped by the sight of the exiles we continually met with on the road. Some of them, like myself, were in their own carriages, others in open kibieks, and a far greater number, chained together in couples, travelled on foot, and were escorted by parties of armed peasants, who were relieved from village to village. Some of them had forked pieces of wood fastened about their necks, the handle of which hung over their breasts, and fell down to their knees. In these handles were two holes, through which their hands had been thrust by force. The spectacle was truly shocking—all those who walked on foot asked our charity, and with what pleasure did I relieve them! I, who was returning from my captivity! I, who was flying to the arms of my family.

"I likewise met several companies of emigrants, destined to people the new city which was building, by the emperor's orders, on the confines of China. The men and women walked on foot; the children were perched upon the waggons, among bales and

boxes, dogs and poultry. Their countenances did not express either hope or satisfaction."

He passed also some Tartar villages, and witnessed their peculiar manners. At Petersburg he rejoined his wife, and was fully restored to the emperor's favour, who gave him an estate, settled a pension on him, made him manager of the German theatre, and soon after shewed him a most extraordinary mark of confidence, in employing him to translate the famous challenge by which Paul had the satisfaction to *quizz* all Europe. Though our author thinks proper to speak in the gentlest terms of the court of Petersburg, the following account of his feelings, even when in high favour, must make every Englishman thankful he does not live in a country where the caprice of a sovereign is law.

"Every night I went to bed full of the most gloomy apprehensions. I started from my rest in the wildest surprise at the least noise, or whenever a carriage stopped in the street. My first care every morning was to anticipate all the possible disasters of the day, with a view of avoiding them. When I went out, my eyes were constantly looking for the emperor, to be able to alight from my carriage in due time. I watched with ceaseless attention over the whole economy of my dress, the choice of the colours, the cut and fashion of the garment. I found myself under the necessity of paying my court to women of doubtful reputation, and men of shallow understanding. I had the insolence of an ignorant ballet-master (the husband of madame Chevalier) to combat with. On the representation of every new piece, I tremblingly expected that the police, ever on the watch, or the secret inquisition, would discover some passage to be either specious or offensive. Every time my wife took an airing with the children, and staid a few moments later than usual, I was fearful of hearing that she had not got out of the carriage quickly enough on meeting the emperor, and had been dragged to the common prison, as had lately happened to the wife of Denuth, the innkeeper. I could rarely disburden my heart of its vexations to a friend; for, as the proverb says, "walls had ears, and one brother could not trust another." Nor could I fill up these disastrous hours with reading, for every book was prohibited. I was even obliged to forego the use of the pen! for I could not venture to commit my thoughts to paper which might be seized and taken from me the next hour. Every time my business obliged me to walk near the palace, I risked injuring my health; because at every season



of the year, and in all kinds of weather, a man was compelled to keep his head uncovered on approaching or leaving that mass of stones. The most harmless walk became a torment, for one was almost sure to meet some unhappy wretch on his way to prison, and often to the knout.\*

In the midst of these alarms, Kotzebue was thrown into the utmost terror, on being sent for to count Pahlen. It was to draw up a challenge in the emperor's name, to all the kings of Europe and their ministers; he obeyed, but it was found *not strong enough*, on which he was ordered to attend the emperor himself. He received him very graciously, and bowing, said, "Mr. Kotzebue, I must, in the first place, be reconciled to you."

"Agreeably to etiquette, I was going to kneel and kiss his hand; he lifted me up, however, in the kindest manner, kissed me on the forehead, and in very good German said:

"You know the world too well to be a stranger to the political events of the day, and you must know likewise in what manner I have figured in them. I have often acted like a fool," added he with a laugh, and it is but just I should be punished; and with this view, therefore, I have imposed a chastisement on myself. I wish," continued he, holding a paper in his hand, "that this should be inserted in the Hamburg gazette, as well as in some other public prints."

"He then took me under the arm, in a confidential manner, and leading me to the window, read a paper to me, which was written with his own hand in French;† it was as follows:

"We hear from Petersburg, that the emperor of Russia, finding that the powers of Europe cannot agree among themselves, and being desirous to put an end to a war which has desolated it for eleven years past, intends to point out a spot to which he will invite all the other sovereigns to repair and fight in single combat; bringing with them, as seconds and squires, their most enlightened ministers, and their most able generals, such as messrs. Thugut, Pitt, Bernstorff,

&c. and that the emperor himself proposes being attended by generals count de Pahlen and Kutusoff: we know not if this report be worthy of credit; however, the thing appears not to be destitute of some foundation, and bears strong marks of what he has been often taxed with."

"At the last period he laughed most heartily; and, courtier-like, I laughed too.

"What do you laugh at?" said he, twice in one breath, and very rapidly, still continuing to laugh himself.

"That your majesty is so well informed of things."

"Here," resumed he, putting the paper into my hands, "translate this into German; keep the original, and bring me a copy."

"I took my leave, and set about my task. The last word *taxed with*, embarrassed me much. Had I chosen the German word, which signifies *accused*, the expression, I thought, might appear too strong, and give the emperor offence. After mature reflection I went indirectly to work, and I wrote, *what he has been often judged capable of*.

"At two o'clock I returned to the castle. Count Kuttaisoff announced me; I was immediately introduced, and I found the emperor alone.

"Sit down," said he, in a very affable manner: not obeying him at first, from motives of mere respect, he added, in a severer tone, "Sit down, I say."—I took a chair, and sat opposite to him at his table.

"He took the original French, and said, 'Read your translation to me:†' I read slowly, and eyed him occasionally over the paper as I proceeded. He laughed when I came to the words, *single combat*, and he gave a nod of approbation, from time to time, till I came to the last word.

"*Judged capable of*!"—resumed he, "no, that is not the word; you must say, *taxed with*." I took the liberty of observing to him, that the word *tax*, in German, signified to estimate the value of goods, and not of an action. "That is very well," replied he, "but *judged capable*, does not express the French word *taxé*."

"I then ventured to ask, in a low voice, 'If I might be allowed to employ the word *accused*.'"

"Very well, that is the word;—*accused*, accused!"—he repeated three or four times,

\* His own expression.

† The following is the original French, pointed, &c. exactly as his majesty wrote it: "On apprend de Petersburg, que l'Empereur de Russie voyant que les puissances de l'Europe ne pouvoit s'accorder entr' elle, et voulant mettre fin à une guerre qui la desolait depuis onze ans, vouloit proposer un lieu où il inviteroit tous les autres Souverains de se rendre et y combattre en champ clos, ayant avec eux pour écuyer juge de camp et heros d'armes leurs ministres les plus éclairés, et les généraux les plus habiles tels que MM. Thugut, Pitt, Bernstorff, lui même se proposant de prendre avec lui les généraux C. de Pahlen et Kutusoff; on ne scait si on doit y ajouter fois, toute fois la chose ne parait pas destruitée de fondement, en portant l'empreinte de ce dont il a souvent été taxé.

‡ It appeared word for word in No. 9 of the Hamburg gazette of the 15th January, 1801, dated from Petersburg, the 30th December, 1800.

and I changed the expression agreeably to his order. He thanked me very cordially for my trouble, and dismissed me, equally touched and delighted with the manner in which he had received me: All who have nearly approached him will bear witness; that he knew how to be extremely engaging, and that in such moments he was quite irresistible.

"I did not feel it incumbent on me to omit the smallest circumstance relative to a fact which has made so much noise in the world. The challenge appeared two days after in the court gazette, to the great astonishment of the whole town. The president of the academy of sciences, who had received the manuscript in order to have it inserted, could not believe his own eyes. He went in person to count de Pahlen, to be assured there was no foul play in the business. At Moscow, the gazette in which it appeared was stopped by order of the police, as it could not be imagined there, that the monarch wished to make the article public. The same thing took place at Riga.

"The emperor, on his part, could hardly

wait till the paragraph was printed; and such was his impatience, that he made enquiries about it several times in the interval.

"The next day he made me a present of a snuff box set with brilliants, of the value of about two thousand rubles. I do not believe that a translation of twenty lines was ever better paid for."

The third volume is tedious and uninteresting, and might have been well spared to the English reader by the translator. It contains a description of the palace of Michaeloff, which the emperor built and furnished at a prodigious expence, and which proved too damp to be inhabited; an account of squabbles between managers and actors, and a critique on the *Secret Memoirs of the Court of Russia*, the accuracy of which the author endeavours to invalidate. On the whole, a man of spirit may be well content to have had one such remarkable year in his life, as it fortunately proved to be only one.

ART. XIII. *Travels in Italy, by the late Abbé BARTHELEMY, Author of the Travels of ANACHARSIS the Younger, in a Series of Letters, written to the celebrated Count CAYLUS. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 431.*

FEW works have ever so completely disappointed us as this volume. The name of the author and the promises of the editor had raised our expectations very high.

"Whatever may be the merits of the travels of Anacharsis, we discover in them the genius only of Barthelemy and the powers of his pen. His personal character and feelings it was not possible he should describe under those of the Scythian traveller. To understand these we must surprise him as it were in his own travels, and see him freely communicating to his friends the effusions of his heart, his thoughts, his inclinations and pursuits. Chance, or rather the nature of my employment, has procured me this advantage.

"The travels of Barthelemy in Italy cannot properly be regarded as a work of serious study and care. Though replete with historical details and illustrations, there is apparent in them no cold arrangement, and none of that forced and artificial dress, which only serve in common to impose fetters on human genius. They are the letters of a friend to a friend. The ease of style, the boldness of expression, the frankness of communication, the perfect unreserve they sometimes display, and the air of caution and mystery that occasionally appears, give them a degree of interest, that can never belong to works formed by the square and compass of study."

In these letters the Abbé Barthelemy

appears, not the scholar and the philosopher as we hoped to find him, not even the lively Frenchman who can at least sketch the present picture with a bold but rapid hand, he is degraded and dwindled to a hunter of medals and inscriptions, a loungee in cabinets, a mere dilettante, a character for which our language is as yet to its honour without a name.

One instance of the Abbé's antiquarian sagacity deserves to be noticed.

"Upon the frieze and the architrave were formerly two inscriptions in letters of metal, fastened on by nails. But these plates, I know not in what age, have been torn off: the marks of the nails are still visible. I request you to keep secret what I am going to say. In my opinion, it would be possible to read the inscriptions by the marks of the nails. Serlis, I believe, attempted it; but he was a better architect than antiquary. I can clearly perceive, that the inscription begun with an M: take notice of the nail marks :: In the same architrave, the marks . . . are discernable. Is it not plain that these were two VV's? Such was my discovery in the quarter of an hour that we gave to the maison carrée. I have reflected seriously upon it since; and it strikes me, that the inscription on the frieze was in honour of the emperor, and that that on the architrave contained the name of the architect. The three letters above, I read very distinctly,

and I conceive it probable, that the name of the architect was Marcus VITRUVIUS."

These posthumous publications are extremely injudicious: on their authors as they confer no honour, neither ought they to affix any discredit; the letters were written to count Caylus, designed

to gratify him and adapted to his particular pursuits: when the Abbé was writing for the world, he knew what subjects deserved to interest the world. There can be little excuse for editing such pages, still less for translating them.

ART. XIV. *Sketches and Observations, taken on a Tour through a Part of the South of Europe.* By JENS WOLFF. 4to. pp. 251.

THIS excursion was taken by Mr. Wolff in the year 1785: since which time the press has teemed with tours over the south of Europe. How, then, can it be expected that the public should be interested in sketches and observations taken almost twenty years ago? Mr. Wolff is aware of this disadvantage under which his work appears: nor does he presume "to rank in the same class with a Wraxall, a Coxe, or a Moore." Indeed, much as we have been amused with this volume, it is impossible to say that the information to be derived from it is either very important or very extensive. The naturalist will find but little to enlarge his knowledge or gratify his taste; nor will the artist be much benefited by the rare and hasty remarks which are here offered on the objects of his favourite pursuit. In 250 pages Mr. Wolff travels over Portugal and Spain, France and Italy! The chief merit of the book consists in little interesting anecdotes illustrative of men and manners, told as occasion requires with humour and vivacity, or with tenderness and feeling.

The national character of the Spaniard has generally been esteemed vindictive and revengeful: Mr. Wolff is disposed to think more favourably of them; "the traits which struck me most forcibly are honour and probity."

The use of chimnies is almost unknown in Madrid; braziers are preferred, on which a kind of frankincense is occasionally strewn, which gives an excellent odour. "Some time since a very pretty actress complained to the duke of Alva, that she was very poor, lived in a cold apartment, and was frozen to death. The duke sent her a brazier full of piastres! These traits of gallantry or humanity are not uncommon in Spain—how, in fact, could one refuse a brazier, or any thing else, to a pretty actress, who had no money and was cold?—I had this anecdote from the marquis de Langle."

From Lisbon to Madrid, from Madrid to Saragossa, thence to Montpellier, to the ancient Nismes, and to Marseilles we were hurried in rapid succession. At this latter place "we witnessed a grand procession of 340 French and other mariners, who having been redeemed by *les religieux* from slavery in the galleys at Algiers, had lately landed, and were now to be marched to Paris. The procession commenced at noon, and lasted several hours. The redeemed personages were led two and two by boys, dressed as angels in light gowns, with moveable wings on their shoulders. Sacred music preceded and followed the procession. It was closed by a number of monks in the habit of their respective orders."

Licentiousness reigned here in a high degree: not to be seduced, says Mr. W. by these syrens, (the *filles de joie*) requires all the forbearance of a Scipio, or stoicism of a Cato. Collected from all nations, they seem to understand most languages. That of the eyes they speak with wonderful effect. A foreigner in a short time thinks himself in the island of Calypso; nor is it hardly in the power of a modern Mentor to withdraw him from scenes of such fascination.

The scene in the coffee-room of *les Quatre Nations* is admirably comic and characteristic: it is too long for transcription.

At Florence, Mr. Wolff dismisses the gallery of the grand duke in a single page: but the paintings, statues, and busts which form that noble collection, have been described again and again; and we are willing to forgive the omission for the 'valuable consideration' of the story of Julia. He who can read it without emotion is endowed with an apathy which excites no envy from us.

"During my short stay at Florence, I was somewhat surprised one morning, while at breakfast, by a visit from a young man, whom I immediately recognized to be Charles—

Many years had elapsed since his abrupt departure from England. His history being peculiarly interesting, I shall take the liberty of here inserting it.—Engaged in commerce at an early age, and taken into the house of his uncle, an eminent merchant in London, his prospects in life were most flattering. From his abilities, his attention, and improvement, Charles became the favourite, and was at length considered as heir to his uncle's large possessions. A partner in the same house, who was a man of superior sense, but addicted to extravagant vices, blighted this fair prospect almost in the bud! He was married to a depraved but beautiful woman, with whom he had formerly lived on easier terms. Led on in defiance of frequent serious remonstrances from one act of expensive dissipation to another, his debts accumulated in an alarming degree, which he still hoped to discharge by means of the gaming-table. Surrounded by titled black-legs, and wary sharpers, he engaged on unequal terms, and increased those debts, which, in honour, he became obliged to pay without delay, or even investigation. The wife either knew not, or heeded not, the private circumstances of her husband. She saw her house filled with the best company; gave expensive entertainments, and resorted with avidity to every public amusement which had the power of chasing away reflection and care. The husband, eager to alleviate the stings of conscience arising from the neglect of a young family, plunged still deeper into riot and profusion, and paid no longer any attention to the concerns of his mercantile affairs, which had hitherto been in a very flourishing situation. His partner, an easy old man of independent property, who never quitted his armchair, was not made acquainted with the excesses of Mr. —, till intelligence from the bankers' arrived, stating, that not only the funds of the house were exhausted, but that, from an unusual grant of credit, they had permitted themselves to be considerably overdrawn. The affairs of the house thus involved, the most prompt and speedy measures became necessary to save their falling credit. A consultation was held, and a proposition made, and adopted, to employ the talents of young Charles, who was a proficient in the art of drawing, in forging the names of some eminent mercantile houses on foreign bills, and thereby raise an immediate supply. Charles seduced into the practice of this expedient by the treacherous spendthrift, unknowingly committed an act, by which, agreeable to the laws of his country, his life became forfeited. He succeeded so well in the art of imitation, that a second attempt was shortly after made for raising a more considerable sum: in negotiating the bills however, a discovery took place, which instantly obliged the parties to seek safety in flight. Not a moment was now to be lost; Charles was made acquainted with the duplicity that

had been practised upon him, and being hurried into a carriage, wherein a few valuables had been hastily packed up, departed immediately with Mr. — for Dover. They embarked in the packet, and arrived safe on the continent. Continuing their route they proceeded to the south of France, where they took up their residence, and remained concealed, unknowing and unknown.

"In the mean time the uncle, confined with the gout, was left to support all the horrors of his situation. Bankruptcy ensued, and a disposition manifested on the part of the persons who had been duped, and were the chief sufferers, to have the infirm old man arrested, operated as his death warrant. In a few hours he was found lifeless in his bed, not without strong suspicion of having taken poison. The sequel of these acts of depravity and guilt was no less fatal to the beautiful but frail Mrs. —, who being, in consequence of her husband's elopement, deprived of pecuniary resources, and not inclined to follow or share his fate in a foreign country, accepted an offer, that was shortly after made her, of living with a man of fashion. Supported by his liberality, her extravagance now became unbounded; but her reign of pleasure was short. Tired of her charms, he quitted his mistress in a few weeks, and left her wholly destitute of future support. One lover succeeded another, till her abandoned conduct soon reduced her to a state of poverty, misery, and contempt; her health had likewise been considerably impaired, and without making one commendable effort, to gain a livelihood by industrious means, she sunk from poverty to guilt, and at length attempted to retrieve her fortunes by a deed of unexampled wickedness and cruelty. She had a daughter!—a beautiful girl of sixteen, in whose countenance every sweet and gentle virtue was portrayed; the bloom of health was marked on her features, and sensibility evinced itself in her every action. But alas! how often are the children of promise doomed, in the spring of life, to mourn—their blossoms blasted in the bud!

"Upon this maiden flower, just expanding into bloom, fell the rude storm of adversity,

And like the tyrannous breathing of the north,  
Shook all its buds from blowing—

"Julia! it was mine to see thee but once! yet pity still cherishes a tender recollection of that interview. Thy modest grief! the dignified serenity that sat on thy brow on this trying occasion! could I witness these and not participate in thy sorrows?—Sincerely did I share them; and so lasting is the impression of injured excellence, that revolving years have not been able to efface thy image from my mind.

"This artless, exemplary girl, had been placed in a seminary, far from her mother's

contaminating sight: here she dwelt in peace, improving daily in every virtue and accomplishment that could adorn her sex. The mother, meantime, distressed in her circumstances in proportion to the decay of those charms which now failed to procure her admirers, resolved, for a pecuniary consideration, to sacrifice her too lovely daughter at the same shrine of prostitution to which she had herself been led a willing victim. The thought was no sooner entertained than executed. She quitted the habitation of misery and contempt, and, like an infernal demon, entered the abode of innocence and peace. Julia was elaimed, and carried unresisting and unknowing to her mother's dwelling; who having, through the means of a common pander of vice, obtained the promise of a large sum from an abandoned reprobate, to whom her daughter was to be sacrificed, disclosed the plan, cloaked under the false garb and specious mask of pleasure, to her own offspring. From so infamous a proposal, even thus coloured and disguised, the virtuous, innocent Julia shrank, as at the sight of a basilisk. From arguments and entreaties her mother proceeded to threats, in case a compliance should not be given within the period of a few days. Neither the prayers nor tears of her virtuous daughter, in the mean time, made the smallest impression on the obdurate heart and debased mind of the vicious parent. A sense of filial duty prevented the suffering Julia from disclosing the horrid scheme in agitation. The debauched dotard, who, by dint of bribery, was to triumph over such virtue, saw her in this trying situation, and was just meditating to seize upon his prey, when, with fearful steps, she flew for relief to a former friend of her father's. She mentioned not her situation such as it was—the dreadful alternative that awaited her—the brink of ruin on which she stood—but only solicited to be reinstated in her former residence, where she might once more find happiness in retirement. This was readily promised, but, alas! too late to prevent the catastrophe that ensued. Julia returned home, but to what a home! a fiend awaited her arrival! she had to encounter immediate infamy, dishonour, and ruin!—Here let me draw a veil over the melancholy history; suffice it to add, that Julia, in the hour of despair, friendless, unprotected, and left to her distracted thoughts, sought refuge in another and a better world. Hers had not been a life of pleasure, but it had been a life of peace and innocence; could then her unsullied mind bear up against the stigma of vice, the scorn of the severely virtuous, of such whose hearts had never possessed half her innate modesty and worth, yet to whose slights and contumely she must have been hourly exposed? Her soul shrank from the prospect; urged by despair, she hurried from

her mother's blasting sight, and, bereft of reason, rushed unbidden into the presence of her Maker! Poor Julia!—and shall a deed committed in the hour when reason was overpowered by the phrenzy of despair, cancel the purity of thy life, unmarked almost by error? Ah, no! the many acts of virtue thou hast done shall plead for thee at the throne of mercy, and there mayest thou still look down and witness the tear of sympathy I shed on thy sorrows and untimely fate.—Peace to thy manes!—sweet Julia."

Mr. Wolff's are all sketches: he calls them sketches, and we have no right to expect the performance of more than is promised: at Rome, the Pantheon, the Coliseum, St. Peter's, the paintings of the Vatican, &c. &c. are 'sketched' with a few rapid strokes and dismissed: his 'sketches' of character and manners are many of them master pieces. The scene in the coffee-room of *les quatre nations* we have already alluded to: that at the post-house at Poggibonzi, where, as luck would have it, our traveller fell in with *il padre* Anselmo and his merry brethren of the monastery, is equally well drawn.

From Rome Mr. Wolff took a trip into the Neapolitan dominions: a 'sketch' of Pozzuoli and of Naples, its Corso and San Carlo, is drawn with a rapid but no vulgar pencil. Our traveller paid a visit to Vesuvius, and witnessed a faint eruption from its crater: Herculaneum and Pompeia, of course, could not elude his curiosity.

The duke d'Elbeuf discovered Herculaneum as his workmen were digging a well in his garden at Portici, in 1736. Whatever statues, fragments of ornaments, paintings, and other curious remnants are discovered in this subterranean search, are immediately removed to the king's museum at Portici, where an immense collection is formed of all the antiquities that have been thus rescued from oblivion. The museum is moreover enriched with all the curiosities which have been dug out of Pompeia: by order of government, a work is now carrying on, descriptive of these wondrous fragments; it already amounts to six volumes in folio, and is daily increasing. After having gratified his taste, Mr. Wolff returned to Rome, and with his *compagnon de voyage*, Mr. Noring, secretary to the Swedish minister at the British court, they once more bent their steps to Florence.

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At half a dozen miles from Terni, stands Mount Celus, from the cavities of which issues, in summer, a strong cooling wind: it is worthy of remark that the inhabitants of a small town called Ceci, convey this refrigerating air by pipes into their houses in the same manner as water is usually conveyed.

From Florence we are carried to Bologna, thence to Modena, the birth-place of Corregio, the circumstances of whose

death bring to our author's mind the more frightful and horrible particulars of the murder of Winkleman. From Modena we fly to Turin, Lyons, and Paris, where we reluctantly take our leave of this entertaining traveller.

This work is presented to the public in a very handsome dress, the paper and typography are both beautiful, and the vignettes are designed with elegance.

**ART. XV.** *Travels in Greece and Turkey, undertaken by Order of Louis XVI. and with the Authority of the Ottoman Court. By C. S. SONNINI, Member of several Scientific Societies, of the Societies of Agriculture at Paris, and of the Observers of Men. Illustrated by Engravings and a Map of those Countries. Translated from the French. 8vo. 2 vols. about 420 pages each.*

THE honourable reception, as well in England as in France, of Mr. Sonnini's travels in Upper and Lower Egypt; a reception amply merited by the body of information so various, so interesting, and so important which that work contained; has at once afforded the author a most grateful recompense for his labours, and imposed upon him what he considered an obligation, to draw from his port-folio the account, which in his travels through Greece and Turkey, he had drawn up concerning those far-celebrated countries.

Shall we here enlarge on the genius, the taste, and the science of Sonnini? is the editor of Buffon a Tyro in science? is his skill, and are his acquirements as a naturalist, yet unknown? are we yet to be informed of the brilliancy of his imagination, the solidity of his understanding, and the philosophic cast of mind which he enjoys? At once then let us accompany our traveller and confide in his narrative: his fidelity and his abilities have been equally tried.

The first remark that occurred to us in opening these volumes was, that Mr. Sonnini has given a more favourable account of the modern Greeks, than the generality of his predecessors: the expressions of Mr. de Pauwe, descriptive of the abasement of this unhappy race, are unqualified in their severity. Indeed it has been a good deal the fashion to confound the Greeks and their conquerors too much together: that the former have degenerated under the disgraceful yoke of the proud Turk, is doubtless true, but we would willingly hope that the degree of that degeneracy has been

exaggerated by Mr. Pauwe, Mr. Dallaway, and other writers. One is the more inclined to believe that a sufficient discrimination has not always been made in this respect, and that the supposed, has been occasionally substituted for the real, or, more properly perhaps, the general for the particular influence of slavery on these descendants of their famed forefathers, from the coincidence which we observe in the characters of the Greeks, as they are drawn by Mr. Eton, in his survey of the Turkish empire, and by the author of the present work.

Mr. Eton, whilst he represents the Turks as a brutal and barbarian race, whilst he represents their residence in Europe almost as a disgrace to the civilized powers of it, and anxious for their expulsion from this quarter of the globe, endeavours to justify the hostile operations with which Russia has so repeatedly menaced them, is solicitous at the same time to show, that the Greeks have still some of the noble blood which flowed in the veins of their ancestors. "Conquered Greece," says he, "polished Rome—but the conquerors were Romans. Conquered Greece did not polish Turkey—for the conquerors were Turks." To the humiliating state of depression in which they are held by the Turks, he attributes, with obvious truth, most of the defects of the Grecian character as it exists at present. Notwithstanding this humiliation, he asserts, that their superiority over the Turks in knowledge is surprisingly great: he contends that their imagination is lively, that their genius and invention are fertile, that they bear the Turkish yoke

with impatience, and that they possess a spirit of enterprise, which often prompts them to noble achievements.

Mr. Eton resided many years in Turkey, and consequently had that opportunity which long and repeated observation affords of correcting the too frequent fallaciousness of first impressions: his authority is good, and on this account we have stated his opinion as corroborative of the following description of Sonnini:

"The man of these charming parts of GREECE is of a handsome stature; he carries his head high, his body erect, or rather inclined backward than forward: he is dignified in his carriage, easy in his manners, and nimble in his gait; his eyes are full of vivacity; his countenance is open, and his address agreeable and prepossessing; he is neat and elegant in his clothing; he has a taste for dress, as for every thing that is beautiful; active, industrious, and even enterprising, he is capable of executing great things; he speaks with ease, he expresses himself with warmth; he is acquainted with the language of the passions, and he likewise astonishes by his natural eloquence; he loves the arts, without daring to cultivate them, under the brazen yoke which hangs heavy on his neck; skilful and cunning in trade, he does not always conduct himself in it with that frankness which constitutes its principal basis; and if we still find in modern GREECE many of the fine qualities which do honour to the history of ancient GREECE, it cannot be denied, that superstition, the child of ignorance and slavery, greatly tarnishes their lustre; and we also discover in their disposition that fickleness, that pliability, that want of sincerity, in short, that artful turn of mind which borders on treachery, and of which the Greeks of antiquity have been accused.

"But this obliquity of character fortunately does not extend, or at least is very much weakened, among the women of the same countries. The Greek females are, in general, distinguished by a noble and easy shape, and a majestic carriage. Their features, traced by the hand of beauty, reflect the warm and profound affections of sensibility; the serenity of their countenance is that of dignity, without having its coldness or gravity; they are amiable without pretension, decent without sourness, charming without affectation. If, to such brilliant qualities, we add, elevation of ideas, warmth of expression, those flights of simple and ingenuous eloquence which attract and fascinate, a truly devoted attachment to persons beloved, exactness and fidelity in their duties, we shall have some notion of these privileged beings, with whom nature, in her munificence, has embellished the earth, and who are not rare in GREECE. There it is that the genius of the artists of

antiquity would still have the choice of more than one model."

It is true, indeed, that Sonnini has here drawn a comparative picture: his travels into Greece immediately followed his travels through Egypt: he compares the physical state of the two countries, and the character of the men who inhabit them; and what race of men would not profit by a comparison with the Copt, whose character partakes of the dryness and rudeness of the climate he lives in? His person is represented as short and heavy, his countenance dull and unmeaning, his disposition gloomy and melancholy; "his treachery is the more dangerous, as it is, in a manner, more concentrated; having no taste for the arts, no flight of curiosity leads him to instruction; sedentary, because he has no vivacity in his mind, he seeks not to be acquainted with what surrounds him; lazy and slovenly, clownish and ignorant, unfeeling and superstitious, he has no longer any remembrance, nor even any trace remaining, of the greatness of his ancestors. What a difference between this nation, entirely degenerated, and that which still inhabits the beautiful countries of Greece!" We have already stated, on the authority of Mr. Eton, that the Greeks bear the burden of Turkish despotism with impatience: as it is of great importance to compare the accounts of contemporaneous travellers on moral, physical, and political subjects, it cannot be necessary to apologize for referring once more to Mr. Eton, and noticing the coincidence of his account with that of Mr. Sonnini. "Were the weight of this despotism taken off," says Mr. Eton, "the elasticity and vigour of the soul would have wide room for expansion; and though it cannot be expected that they would at once rise to the proud animation of their former heroes, they would, doubtless, display energies of mind, which the iron hand of despotism has long kept dormant and inert. It is rather astonishing that they have retained so much energy of character, and are not more abased; for, like noble coursers, they champ the bit, and spurn indignantly the yoke; when once freed from these, they will enter the course of glory."

Sonnini, giving a hint to his country of too obvious meaning to be mistaken, asserts, that as the inhabitants of Egypt

would never have dreamt of *breaking their chains* had not the French undertaken their deliverance, so the Greeks, even should some enterprising genius rise up in the midst of them, and offer to lead them to victory and freedom, will never have sufficient confidence in themselves to shake off the odious fetters which gall and oppress them; "but should foreign forces, sufficiently imposing to banish fears, which, in weak minds, are inseparable from the uncertainty of success, make their appearance, not with projects of invasion, but as deliverers of Greece, insurrection against tyranny would become general; cohorts of courageous combatants would be formed on all sides; intelligent and active mariners would cover the sea with fast sailing vessels, which would rapidly carry succours and troops to all the points of the islands and coasts that would become those of the whole nation; all would second and bless their deliverers."

As it would extend this article to an unreasonable length, were we to accompany Sonnini in all his "cross and retrograde trips" among the islands of the Archipelago: rather than thus fasten ourselves, as it were, upon his rigging, we must take wing, and only alight here and there, as it may suit our convenience, without much retarding our flight. We must first perch, for a moment, on the island of Cyprus, the fertility of whose soil, the mildness of whose climate, the beauty of whose plains, the variety and richness of whose productions, justly entitled it to the appellation of *Macaria*, or the *Fortunate Island*. Alas! the demon of despotism has here exercised its malignant sway: agriculture no longer calls into action the fecundity of the soil; the plains are barren, the old forests are felled, the beauty of the landscape is destroyed. The subterraneous treasures, for which this island was so celebrated, are no longer allowed to enrich the degraded Cypriot; all boring, all searching, after mines is strictly prohibited; zinc, tin, iron, and particularly copper, once so abundant, once so renowned for the magnitude and beauty of its blocks, are now destined, by the barbarian Turk, to lie undisturbed in the bowels of the mountains which give them birth. The culture of the olive and the mulberry is in a great measure neglected: the fruit of the former no

longer furnishes sufficient oil for the supply of the inhabitants; and the destructive custom of lopping off the branches of the latter, for the purpose of giving their leaves to the silk-worms, together with the total abandonment of the culture of this tree in several quarters of the island, seem to indicate a declining silk trade, which, however, is still of considerable importance. The culture of the cotton tree is also neglected: the whole island now affords to commerce but 3,000 bales of cotton; whereas, under the government of the Venetians, the annual quantity of the bales amounted to 30,000. The Carob, or St. John's bread tree, is cultivated with care, and furnishes a particular trade. When the Venetians possessed the island of Cyprus, they made there large plantations of sugar-canes, which succeeded as well as in Egypt. "But a stern barbarian, with sword and fire in hand," says the indignant traveller, "advanced as an exterminator of all property, and proud of annihilating every trace of ameliorations, which were in his eyes the work of infidels, he caused to be burnt, with the sugar houses, those rich plantations, and thus devoted to sterility vast plains, destined to give fresh activity to industry and national prosperity." Should the French possess this island, the patriot Sonnini suggests the culture of the coffee tree: the soil and climate appear to be favourable to the vegetation of this shrub.

If a grinding despotism has blasted the luxuriance of nature, and, by a deadly touch, converted it to sterility; if it has crippled commerce, and destroyed the arts; if every thing, in short, which is good and useful, has decayed in Cyprus, every thing that is mischievous and valueless seems to prosper. Thousands of myriads of locusts sometimes destroy the fruits of the earth, and render frustrate the labours of the cultivator: "fire is less quick: in a few moments the stalks of the plants are laid down, and cut in pieces, the ears devoured, the crops destroyed, and the fields desolated. On their approach all verdure disappears, and they even gnaw the very bark of the trees." Various are the hypotheses respecting the irruption of these insects; Sonnini inclines to that of Hasselquist, who conceives them to arrive from the Continent, where they must have been

formed in the midst of the deserts of Arabia, whence they depart, supported and impelled by the winds. Snakes are common, tarantulae not uncommon, and that frightful spider is sometimes, though rarely, met with, whose aspect is represented as terrifying, and whose venom as striking with death whomsoever it reaches. Of this latter insect, which Sonnini, after Olivier, a celebrated naturalist, has called *Galode aranéide*, or the scorpion spider, a minute description is given, illustrated by a plate.

At Rhodes the traveller calls to mind the noble energies displayed, and the valorous achievements accomplished, by the knights of St. John, in opposition to the successful, yet humiliated, arms of the proud Solyman. In several places of the city are to be seen marks of the ancient possession of the knights: a long street still preserves the name of *Rue des Chevaliers*; and on the old houses which compose it, remain the armorial bearings of the members of the order. No vestiges are to be seen of the vast colossal figure for which this island was once so celebrated; no monument of art points out the ancient seat of genius, science, and of taste. Nothing remains to the Rhodian but a genial climate, a pure air, and a luxuriant soil; which, indeed, would yet make the island one of the most delightful abodes, but that the surly extorting Turk renders frustrate the efforts of nature, and paralyzes the sinews of industry and art. "Happiness no longer inhabits a land formerly fortunate;\* and the golden shower which the poets of antiquity caused to fall there as an emblem of its riches and brilliant advantages, is converted into a storm of desolation."

During his stay in the Archipelago, Mr. Sonnini became acquainted with Captain G\*\*\*, the daring adventurer, who with a handful of fellow-slaves, carried off, during a holy festival, the Turkish flag-ship, in the very midst of the Ottoman fleet, and took her to Malta without resistance, while the mussulmans stood gazing with stupid astonishment at her expanded sails! The particulars of this bold enterprise he had from the intrepid commander himself, before whom the Greeks tremble as in the presence of the commander of the Turkish

vessels of war. Of Captain G\*\*\* several anecdotes, exhibiting his calm intrepidity and power, are related; the following shews that the unhappy Greeks are equally slaves to the Maltese and the Turks, and that the determined firmness of the former is scarcely less to be dreaded, than the violence and impetuosity of the latter.

"At ARGENTIERA I was shewn the site of a house which he had caused to be pulled down, and which no one durst rebuild. This happened on the following occasion.

"The fate of the Greeks, inhabitants of the small islands of the ARCHIPELAGO, abandoned to themselves, and who seemed to be sought only to be tormented and plundered, was truly deplorable. If a Turkish ship, or the smallest galiot belonging to that nation, puts into one of these islands, the commander becomes its despot; the chiefs of the town or village hasten to kiss his hand, and receive his commands. He disposes of every thing, causes to be delivered to him the provisions and all the articles of which he stands in need, imposes labours on the men, sets up for supreme judge, decides controversies, settles quarrels, condemns to fines which must be paid immediately, orders the bastinado, on the sole of the feet, to be applied as he thinks proper; in short, his stay spreads terror and consternation. Did a Maltese privateer appear in her turn, nearly the same scenes of the abuse and harshness of power and of debasement were represented, the same compliments, the same presents, the same tasks, the same arbitrary acts, the same humiliations, and sometimes even ill usage.

"One of the obligations of rigour imposed on these unfortunate Greeks, was, as soon as a Maltese or Turkish vessel cast anchor in their harbour, to station persons to look out on the most elevated points, in order to discover at a distance ships at sea, to give notice of their approach, and to screen a more troublesome guest from the danger of being surprised by his enemy. G\*\*\* had just arrived in the road of ARGENTIERA; watches had been placed according to custom, at the top of towers built on some eminences which overlook the village on every side; the captain of the privateer was on shore with part of his crew, when a vessel was seen to enter the road. The negligence of the sentinel posted on the side from which the vessel came was cruelly punished. G\*\*\* ordered his house to be demolished, and forbade that, as long as he should live, any one should presume to build on the same spot. The order was executed in every point, and, several years after, I saw the ruins of the habitation of a whole family over-run by

\* It participated with Cyprus in the appellation of Macaria.

brambles and serpents, and still struck by the curse of a plundering adventurer."

A similar negligence on the part of one of these *watchmen* was detected while Captain G\*\*\* was dining, in company with Sonnini, at the house of the French agent at the same village: it was not without great difficulty, and by dint of earnest solicitations, that the two generous Frenchmen obtained the pardon of the culprit.

At *Santorin* the naturalist will find a curious and minute account of a submarine volcano, which produced a new islet between the Great and Little Kamenian, in the year 1707. The particulars of this most awful and extraordinary event, which admit not of abbreviation, are taken from an eye-witness, who published them in "Les Memoires des Missions de la Compagnie de Jésus dans le Levant."

*Candia*. With pleasure could we wander among the delightful gardens of this island. If, in painting them, Savary has "employed the most delicate touches of his pencil, and the most brilliant colours of his pallet," Sonnini has shewn himself no unworthy rival of that fascinating artist. The latter has thrown into his picture life and motion: in both do we behold, grouped with excellent taste, the lofty plane-tree, spreading its vast branches and impenetrable foliage to the sun; the lemon, the olive, and the citron; the purple fruit of the pomegranate, the orange, and the almond, bending the rich boughs that bear them; but in Sonnini we can almost inhale the varied fragrance of the jasmine, the oleander, and the myrtle; and almost hear the sweet accents of the linnæa, the nightingale, and the solitary blackbird.

It is curious, that in the island of *Candia*, which from remotest antiquity has been celebrated for the salubrity of its climate, where the Turks have really acquired a taller stature, and a more manly outline; it is curious, that the Greeks of this enchanting island should have degenerated in their stature, and have lost some of the beauty of their proportions. Sonnini asserts, that the same disparity in the exterior attributes of the Turk and the Greek, is met with among the women of these two nations. The Turkish women are here handsomer than in the other parts of the East; whereas the female Greeks have, generally speaking, fewer charms than they

possess in several other countries. The wines of *Candia* still preserve their ancient reputation.

*Argentiera*. This island, and the neighbouring one of *Milo*, were the usual rendezvous to which our traveller repaired after his different excursions in the Archipelago: here he arranged the notes and observations which he had collected at different places, and here he found sufficient tranquillity and leisure to make those general remarks on the manners and customs of the Greeks of the Archipelago, their domestic habits, superstitions, &c. &c. which occupy a considerable portion of the second volume of this work. These are described in an elegant and interesting manner; but the marriage and funeral ceremonies of the Greeks, and many particularities concerning them, which are here very properly introduced, have already been communicated to us by so many travellers, that it would be quite superfluous to enlarge on them in this place. A very minute, and truly curious, detail is given of the process adopted in the islands of the Archipelago by nurses to promote the profitable pains of parturition: Sonnini was present at the delivery of a young woman, and suffered none of the minutæ of management to escape him. They are altogether the most singular, surely, and the most whimsical in the world; nor is the *methodus medendi*, which is subsequently adopted, less singular, or less whimsical; but we must refer to the volume, contenting ourselves with felicitating those of our fair country-women, who are in this most delicate and interesting situation, on their exemption from the well-meant, but most rough, visitation and attentions of an Archipelagian matron!

Almost all the species of birds of our countries are met with in the Levant: Sonnini has enumerated a great many of these species, distinguishing those which are sedentary, and pass the whole year in any of these islands, from such as are migratory. The naturalist will be much gratified by many observations which occur in this curious itinerary; the two following are particularly worthy of attention: The periods of the passage of birds into Greece varies according to the winds which prevail there. The northerly winds, which usually reign in the latter end of the



summer, blew much later than usual in the summer of 1779: the passage of birds from the north was accordingly delayed, and the period of their passing was of shorter duration. Another general remark is, that in the spring-passage, that is, on their return to our climates, birds travel in bodies less numerous, and are more dispersed than in their passage in autumn; and this sort of disunion constitutes their safety. In their autumnal migration they are, generally speaking, very fat, and in *this* migration fall readily into the numberless snares which are spread for them on every side; in the spring they are usually very lean, and escape these snares by the dispersion of their flight!

The pheasants which are sometimes seen in the most northern islands of the Archipelago, and come thither from the woods of Thessalia, are represented by Sonnini as being larger and handsomer than those of our countries. He tells us, that it is an amusement for the rich Turks of Salonica to fly at them birds of prey, which they carry on their fist. "When the pheasant takes its flight, the bird of prey which they let loose, hovering above, compels it to perch on some tree; he then places himself on another over its head, and keeps it in so great fright, that it suffers itself to be approached, and easily taken quite alive." This fact sufficiently develops the mystery of fascination.

*Naxia*. No man can exhibit a warmer and more constant zeal for the honour and interests of his country than Sonnini: active patriotism is entitled to our respect wherever it is found. In the early part of this work, Sonnini had enlarged on the flourishing state of the French trade to the Levant before the year 1789, lamented its decay from that period, and traced the causes of it. His attention is now turned to the revival of this important trade, and he proposes an establishment of commercial relations in the islands of the Archipelago. Several of these islands pass under his review; but many circumstances point out Naxia as the most desirable emporium to the French traders. The coasts of the island afford good places for shelter. The principal inhabitants are descended from ancient families of France, Spain, and Italy; and the Greeks themselves of the present day are less under

the power of the Turk, than in almost any other of the islands.

"Naxia is the largest of the Cyclades, and its fertility, still more than its extent, has occasioned it to be called the Queen. The same spirit of liberty which reigned among their ancestors, has been propagated to the modern Greeks: enslaved under the brazen yoke of mussulman despotism, they have found means to preserve at least the forms of a free state: they are governed by magistrates chosen from among themselves; no Turk there establishes his domination; and this is not one of the smallest allurements of Naxia. It is, in a word, the most agreeable, and at the same time the most tranquil, island of the Archipelago."

The plan here proposed of a particular commerce to be established in the islands of the Levant, is rendered more complete by a list of the various articles of merchandize which are fit to be introduced into the trade. It is scarcely necessary to say, that the information contained in this chapter particularly, and much of that which is scattered over different parts of these volumes, may eventually be as useful to the English as the French.

*Salonica*. This town, which is built almost at the head, and on the east coast of the gulf which bears its name, is the capital of Macedonia, and one of the largest and most populous towns of the Turkish empire. Remnants of ancient monuments are yet to be seen, and every where fragments of edifices, profaned by their mixture with common materials in modern buildings. Salonica is the emporium of a very considerable commerce: cotton is shipped here abundantly; grain, gathered from fields of astonishing fecundity; very beautiful wool; silk, and the floss that comes from it; together with wax, honey, &c. &c. On the opposite side of the gulf, Olympus rears on high his immortal head. As the frigate in which our traveller was embarked, had yet to remain some time in the harbour, he resolved to avail himself of the opportunity to make a journey into ancient Macedonia, and pay a visit to the abode of the gods. Although the firman of the sultan would be despised by the brave, but terrible Albanians, who no longer acknowledged the authority of the grand sig-

nior, and whose hatred against the Turks of Salonica was extended to the Franks, and other inhabitants of the city; yet was Sonnini not to be intimidated. The kind and earnest entreaties of his friends, who laid before him the dangers of the adventure, availed nothing: in the character of physicians, himself and his courageous friend set out on their excursion. They obtained two soldiers to serve as guides from an Albanian prince, to whom a Greek merchant at Salonica had given them a letter of recommendation. About the middle of the first night, they reached a village called Skala, situated on the declivity of the mountain, and the next morning were well received by the monks of the Greek convent at that place. The bishop, who chanced to be there, related the numerous acts of plunder and extortion which they had to suffer from parties of the Albanians, who made little ceremony in laying them under any contributions which their necessities demanded: and consoled the travellers with an assurance, that the features of their two guides were perfectly familiar to him, being two of the most notorious marauders, and determined villains, in the country. Sonnini and his friend had no reason to doubt the fidelity of his information; for having quitted the plain in order to ascend Olympus, when they had reached the dark forests which almost cover the mountain, the two fellows, without any reserve, amused themselves with the recitation of their exploits, the dreadful particulars of which were brought to their recollection as they passed the many spots which had been the scene of them. "The darkness of the night, and the mournful silence which there reigned," says Sonnini, "gave to their discourse an impression of terror with which it was difficult not to be affected." His companion was alarmed, but Sonnini, in order to dispel his growing inquietude, represented, with admirable promptness and dexterity, their situation as remarkably fortunate, protected as they were from other robbers by the notorious courage and desperate ferocity of their two guides, whom the *aga*, doubtless, on that very account, had selected to attend them.

This singular consolation was, however, deceitful: on the following day, while traversing these forests, their

guides repeatedly called to them from a distance, and apprised them that a numerous body of Albanians, robbers by profession, had possessed themselves of the monastery, and would infallibly set out in pursuit of them. The soldiers had no connection with these formidable freebooters, but, on the contrary, gave repeated proofs of attachment to our travellers, during the whole of their journey. That presence of mind which Mr. Sonnini so often displayed in cases of difficulty with the Bedouin Arabs, came to his assistance here. He determined to present himself before the chief of the robbers. The incident is admirably fitted to the pages of a romance.

"Never did man, by the whole of his exterior, announce better his odious profession. A stature almost colossal, a corpulence which announced extraordinary strength, a broad face burnt by the sun, large eyes shaded by thick and long eyebrows blacker than jet, a stern and gloomy look, all the features and countenance of hard-heartedness were displayed on the whole person of this chief of robbers, who was respectfully called *aga*. He was seated on a sort of *sopha*, placed in a cool air in the gallery of the convent, and surrounded by several of his officers: his long musket, with a thin and flat butt like all those of ALBANIA, was standing at his side; a capital pair of pistols was fastened to his waist, and a thick chain of massy silver, strengthened by several plates of the same metal, supported a large scymitar. I approached and repeated to him what I had said to the *Papas of Vroumeri*: that we were foreign physicians gathering wonderful plants, which the soil of OLYMPUS produced, and of which we composed remedies no less wonderful. I added, that having frequently heard of his power, we considered ourselves very happy in having an opportunity of offering our services to so great a man. Adulation is the snare in which fools suffer themselves to be caught the most easily; there are even people of understanding who resist not this dangerous bait. I remarked a shade less harsh on the countenance of the *aga*, and drew thence the most favourable omen. This man had long been troubled with an ulcer in his leg, which incommoded him greatly; he asked me if I could cure him. I promised him the most complete cure in less than a fortnight, and gave him a small bottle of GOU-LARD's lotion, with which I had provided myself.

"From that moment I was invested with the highest favour, and might have played with success the part of a protector, which suits the taste of so many people."

Continuing to ascend, the monastery of St. Dennis stands three leagues from Skala: and above this convent there are no more habitations on Olympus. It was the middle of July when this excursion was taken, and although the heat was extreme towards the base of the mountain as well as in the plain, vast frozen masses of snow rendered the summit inaccessible. "It is not astonishing," says Sonnini, "that the Greeks have placed the abode of the gods on an eminence which mortals cannot reach." The monks of the convent "who have succeeded them in this great elevation of the globe," confirmed what has sometimes been disputed, the perpetual permanence of ice and snow on the top of the mountain. With the exception of chamois and a few bears, there are hardly any quadrupeds to be seen beyond the half of the height of Olympus. Birds also scarcely pass this limit.

The cruise of the frigate *Mignonne* in the Levant was now terminated, and M. Sonnini, on board this ship, entered the port of Toulon, October 18, 1780, after an absence and a journey of four years.

In the early part of this article, we noticed several coincidences between the narrative of our countryman Mr. Eaton and Mr. Sonnini. There is one more in which not only these travellers but all travellers agree, that is, the probability of a speedy annihilation of Turkish dominion in Europe. No country, perhaps, is so highly favoured by nature, and no country, surely, is so heavily cursed by its government as Greece:

the more fertile the soil, the more lovely the pastures, the more smiling the valleys, so much the more frequent, so much the more offensive, and so much the more oppressive, are the merciless exactions of the ferocious Mussulman. The poisonous upas has been transplanted from Java to Constantinople: it branches overshadow the *Ægean*, and shed their deadly influence over all its islands. But physical as well as moral causes seem now to conspire towards its destruction: a recent convulsion of nature threatened its stability; and its total eradication is devoutly to be wished.

The plates to this work are published in a separate volume: they consist, I. of a general chart of the Levant, drawn up with great elegance and accuracy, by Mr. Poirson, and engraved by Mr. Russel: it is constructed from the observations of Sonnini, as well as from those of modern engineers and travellers of ability; and comprises the coasts of Syria, Egypt, and Barbary; the islands of Cyprus, Rhodes, and Candia; all the islands of the Archipelago; a great part of Asia Minor, and the channel of Constantinople, together with Romania, Macedonia, and the Morea, &c. &c. II. Firman of Sultan Abdoul Achmet, emperor of the Turks, delivered to C. S. Sonnini. III. Scorpion-spider, or galcœde araneœide, of the natural size. IV. No. 1, sea serpent; No. 2, fangri, a fish; No. 3, calamary and polype. V. Three fishes, No. 1, melanurus; No. 2, skatari; No. 3, cabrilla. VI. Dress of the women of the island Argentiera.

ART. XVI. *Travels in the Ottoman Empire, undertaken by Order of the Government of France, during the first six Years of the Republic, by G. A. OLIVIER, Member of the National Institute, of the Society of Agriculture of the Department of the Seine, &c. &c. Illustrated by Engravings, consisting of Human Figures, Animals, Plants, Maps, Plans, &c. &c. To which is prefixed, a Map of Greece, of the Archipelago, and of a Part of Asia Minor. Translated from the French, under the Author's Inspection. 4to. pp. 530, together with an Atlas, price 2l. 12s. 6d. boards. 8vo. 2 vols.*

IN the year 1792, Messrs. Olivier and Bruguiere were commissioned by the French government to travel into the Ottoman empire, Egypt, and Persia, for the purpose of investigating commerce, agriculture, natural history, general physics, geography, the medical art, and even the political relations between France and Turkey. Had such an embassy been sent by the Directory, or

the Corsican autocrat, we should be justified in suspecting, that these *savans* were sent as spies to see the weakness of the land. But Claviere, Roland, and Garat, were then members of the Executive Council. They selected men of science for the mission, and the advancement of knowledge was their object.

"A celebrated author has said, that travels

ought to be written in the manner of history, and not in that of romance :\* he has proved to us in a clear, precise, and energetic style, that subjects the most serious, and discussions the most important, might interest every class of readers, and still please more than the flowery style, the romantic episodes, and the exaggerated or false descriptions of most travellers.

" Penetrated, like him, with this truth, I have, in the following narrative, avoided all singular anecdotes, all humorous stories, more fit to amuse than to instruct. I was not willing to employ those over-brilliant colours which may be captivating for a moment, but the effect of which is transient. The sight of a deserted field, covered with myrtles, or that of a garden confusedly planted with date and orange trees, could never inflame my imagination; and I have frequently surveyed, without astonishment, truncated capitals and scattered fragments of columns."

In this country it must appear ridiculous to quote a celebrated author, to prove that travellers should avoid exaggeration and falsehood in their narratives. But the French are the Cretans of the present day. We remember the travels of Paul Lucas, of Savary, of Vaillant: and acknowledge this assertion as a merit in a Frenchman.

When Mr. Olivier and his companion arrived at Constantinople, they found their countrymen were regarded as wretches who were to be feared, and hated, and despised. The French envoy had been arrested by the pacha at Trawnick; the palace of their ambassador was deserted; those of the other legations were shut against them; several of their merchants had put themselves under foreign protection. The Greek clergy preached against their irreligion, and the Greek prostitutes would not pollute themselves by intercourse with so wicked a people. The Porte, however, was compelled, by its weakness, to act wisely, and was well content to see the Christians destroying each other: and the people indulged a hope, that while Russia was occupied in war with France, they might recover the Crimea, and be revenged for their defeat. Descorches, the envoy extraordinary, at length obtained permission to proceed to the capital, but only as a simple individual. He arrived there under a borrowed name, and in the character of a merchant. The travellers applied to

him, and learnt that he was ignorant of their mission, that he had not, before his departure, received any instructions relating to them, nor found any letter or notice concerning them at the legation. They discovered that they were abandoned, not by any neglect of the virtuous and able men who had sent them; those ministers, says M. Olivier, were no longer in place, or no longer in existence. Doubtful whether the present ministers would perceive any utility in their travels, and whether they would grant them the assistance which their predecessors had promised, and with which the travellers could no longer dispense. They waited at Constantinople, by the envoy's advice, till the minister for foreign affairs should explain himself respecting them; and they employed the interval in acquiring all the knowledge which their circumstances could afford.

A curse seems to have lain upon Constantinople from its foundation. Villains and fools, in miserable succession, have tyrannized there, from the cruel hypocrite its founder, down to the stupid savages who are daily destroying the monuments of his power. Athens, Rome, Paris, London, have all had their periods of enormity; but this city has never been the seat of virtue, or science, or glory; it presents to us only the spectacle of perverted power, vices the most monstrous, and barbarous learning, even more mischievous than the beastly ignorance which has succeeded it. The misanthropist who would wish to inspire others with his own contempt and abhorrence of mankind, the atheist who would persuade us to disbelieve the existence of God, because of the depravity of man, should write the history of Constantinople.

The Turkish system has been well delineated by Rycaut, and in more modern times by D'Ohsson. Mr. Eton's book was written for a political purpose, to expose the weakness of Turkey, not to delineate its constitution. We have no where seen the religious and civil establishment so well detailed as in the present work.

The sultan, as the direct successor of the caliphs and the prophet, is absolute sovereign, legislator, and high-priest. He may create new laws, or alter and

\* Volney, *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte*.

modify the old. He establishes taxes at his pleasure, he disposes of all places of eminence, civil, military, and religious. But though this lawful power may appear at first unlimited, it is virtually limited by that which is superior to all law and all power, public opinion: and "public opinion," says Mr. Olivier, "is, perhaps, in no government pronounced with so much strength and success as in Turkey."

The administration is in the hands of the *vizier asem*, or *grand vizier*: he commands the armies in person, he disposes of the finances, every thing is within his province except the interpretation of the law. It is his duty to listen to the complaints of individuals, and to see that justice be done to all. Frequently he goes into the city in disguise, to inspect the state of provisions, and examine the weights and measures. The public executioner attends him, disguised also, and administers the *bastinado* to the shop-keeper whose roguery is detected, nails him by the ear to his shop door, or puts him to death upon the spot. The *grand vizier* possesses more power than should ever be intrusted to an individual; perpetual insecurity is the penalty which he endures for it. For every state evil he is responsible; he is the political scapegoat on whom the sin of the people must be laid: if the armies are unsuccessful, if there be a dearth of food in the capital, if frequent fires break out in Constantinople, the vizier is accountable. Rarely has a man grown old in this perilous situation; never, when he has made himself feared by the great, beloved by the people, and necessary to the sultan. When he is at the head of the army, he is disengaged from the forms which sometimes restrain him in the capital. The Turkish soldiers have all the usual propensities of their profession, and there is scarcely any discipline to restrain them: martial law, therefore, is reduced to the mere will of the commander.

The government of the provinces is military, and therefore oppressive. The *pachas* are governors, commanders, and, in general, farm the taxes. Those with three tails have, like the sultan, the power of punishing their agents with death, without any other formality than that of informing the sultan afterwards of their motives. The *pachas* with two tails cannot inflict death without a legal

trial; and when they take the field, must march under the order of the higher *pachas*. A *pachalik* is divided into certain districts, called *sangiaks* or standards. The *sangiak bey*, or military commander of each district, is to collect the forces in war, and hold them ready for the *pacha's* commands.

The military system of the Turks is feudal, but all the evils of that system are retained, and its advantages utterly destroyed. The higher feues are called *zaims* and *timars*; they who possess these lordships are *agas*; they are bound to personal military service, and to bring with them a certain number of followers, armed and equipped in proportion to the revenue and extent of the lordship. The number of *zaims*, which are of higher value than the *timars*, is 914, in Turkey in Europe; that of the *timars* 8,356. The number in Asiatic Turkey is nearly the same. They furnish, with their followers, a militia of above 60,000 men, who are the best troops of the empire.

"On the death of a *ziamet* or of a *timariot*, the sultan is to draw a year's revenue from the lordship, and, nevertheless, give it up again to the son of an *aga*, a *spahis*, or any other military man, especially to him who, by a brilliant action, has distinguished himself in a battle; who has mounted the first to the assault, has penetrated into the enemy's entrenchments, has killed a great number of infidels, or contributed to put them to the rout. But since the sultans prefer to the fatigues of war, to the dangers of battle, the tranquillity of their seraglio, and the pleasures of their harem; since, above all, a mean and inconsiderate cupidity has caused to be put up to auction the places intended formerly for valour and merit, the lordships are become the patrimony of the rich and of intriguers. The courage of the soldier has no longer been stimulated by the hope of plunder, that of making prisoners, or of obtaining a few pieces of money, which the general sometimes causes to be distributed after the battle, to those who have brought in enemies' heads. Thus it is that the best institutions degenerate; thus it is that the Mussulman, formerly intrepid and valiant, is no longer any thing but a vile plunderer or a ferocious assassin; thus it is that the Ottoman armies, so formidable to their enemies, are become an object of contempt or pity, and that this vast empire would already no longer be in existence, were not some European powers interested in its support.

"The *aga* at the present day obtains, in his life-time, with tolerable facility, the grant



of the lordship which he enjoys, in favour of one or more of his sons, for a sum of money inferior to that which is paid when it is put up to auction; but if he neglect this precaution, at his death his son is dispossessed, if he do not outbid the competitors, or if, powerfully protected, he do not at least pay the price offered by another.

"Most of the *agas*, little accustomed to the fatigues of war, and to the privations which it necessitates, for a long time past have exempted themselves, under various pretexts, from military service; they always find the *pachas* and the *sangaks* disposed to receive a present from them, and grant them the exemption which they request. They frequently get their place supplied by some volunteer; or if they themselves join their colours, they never want pretexts for quitting them before the end of the campaign, and returning to their home."

The *spahis* and the *janizaries* are the regular troops, the cavalry and infantry, the former are the more ancient body; they are understood to be the children of muslulmans in a certain degree of affluence; they fight under the same ensigns as the *agas*, and ought to succeed them in their fiefs, if the original system was actually practised. The *janizaries* are no longer the children of christian parents; happily for the world the Turks have no longer the power so to recruit their armies! M. Olivier describes this body once so formidable, as nothing but a shapeless mass of workmen, shop-keepers, farmers, and boatmen, without either discipline or courage, ever ready to desert or to mutiny.

"Independently of the other corps of troops, as well on foot as on horse back, which are raised in time of war, or which the *pachas* keep in their service, are to be distinguished the *sélictars*, a corps of cavalry, less numerous and less scattered than that of the *spahis*, and the *délis* or *délbaches*, volunteers on horseback in the service of the *pachas*. These *délis* are brave, determined, enterprising, and ever ready to execute the orders of their master in the expedition which he commands, and in the extortions which he directs. They follow him to war, perform the office of light troops, and fight without order and without discipline: they stop and bring back to battle the runaways, and frequently precipitate themselves into the enemy's ranks, with a boldness which astonishes, and which sometimes determines the victory in their favour.

"When a *pacha* is disgraced, or when, from any motive, he dismisses his *délbaches*, as they are without pay or without resources, they then commit the most terrible robberies; they spread themselves over the fields,

the villages, and even the towns; they rob indiscriminately, lay all under contribution, and stop and plunder the caravans, till they are called into the service of some other *pacha*, or till some imposing force has put them to flight and dispersed them."

The provinces are far more grievously oppressed than the capital, for the power of the *pacha* is almost unlimited, and he is master of all the armed force, but in Constantinople the sultan watches over his ministers, and the people league together and revolt with success against their oppressors, because they generally find support in the jealousy, ambition, or probity of some men in power.

"The impunity of the *pachas* has been such for some time past, that the greater part of them have taken the liberty to set up a powerful military establishment which requires considerable expenses, far above the legal produce of their pachalicks. Extortions have increased in proportion to the numbers of persons that they had to maintain; they have, by dint of money, obtained from the PORTS the junction of all the employments of the province; they are *mouhasils* or farmers-general; they have got themselves confirmed every year in their places, and some have ended by acquiring riches so considerable, and such an authority, that the sultan cannot find means to displace them or put them to death. But this violent state of things must necessarily have a period: the inhabitants of the country-places, overburdened with imposts, molested in their fortune, and threatened in their life, imperceptibly forsake the lands which can no longer support them; they go into the great towns to seek that repose which they have lost in their cottages, and the means of living which they no longer find in the culture of their lands. However, the *pacha* exacts the same contributions, and compels those who remain, to pay for those who have fled: whence it follows, that all the inhabitants soon disappear, and that the village is for ever deserted. There is no part of the empire, at a little distance from the capital, that does not present the aspect of the most complete devastation, that does not exhibit large plains without culture, hamlets and villages destroyed, and without inhabitants.

"It is not surprising that the governors of provinces neglect no means of squeezing the people, when they are obliged to purchase dearly that right, when they know that they cannot maintain themselves in their place, or occupy others without making new pecuniary sacrifices, when, in a word, the sovereign sells all the eminent places, and when, after his example, the ministers and the men who dispose of any employment, give it only to the highest bidder. Through a very old custom which mistrust has, no doubt, introduced, every important place is granted only

for a year: a new firman is necessary for a person to be kept in it. The pachas above all, whose extensive power affords the means of screening themselves from the sovereign authority, must be regularly changed every year, and the sultan seldom deviates from this custom when he has it in his power; but the pacha on his side, knowing that gold, in TURKEY, can absolve a man from the greatest crimes, and cause the most revolting extortions and the most arbitrary condemnations to be forgotten, hastens to amass it; and if to his criminal ambition he join courage, boldness, and talents, he obtains with the three tails, an eminent pachalik; he then endeavours to maintain himself in his post, by preventing, on the one hand, the complaints respecting his conduct from reaching the throne, and, on the other, by performing scrupulously the engagements which he has contracted towards the imperial treasury; but if he succeed, like the pachas of SCUTARI, PALESTINE, BAGDAD, and so many others, in extending his government, and rendering it sufficiently productive to have an army, he obliges the sovereign to spare him, to confirm him every year in his pachalik, and to preserve only the appearance of power. True it is that, in that case, the sultan employs his two great means, cunning, and patience; he dispatches secretly, and under various pretexts, *capidgis* to the pacha of whom he wishes to be rid: if the latter be not sufficiently mistrustful for preventing any suspicious man from approaching too near him, he receives the mortal blow, and the *capidgi* instantly produces the firman of the grand signior, which all the by-standers, in their turn, kiss with respect, and place on their head in token of submission."

Under so miserable a system the people are almost instinctively led to some means of systematic defence. In the towns they organize in corporations, as sheep flock together in danger, if any individual of the body be attacked by a man of rank, the heads of the society appear in his behalf, and if he be indeed innocent, generally oblige the oppressor to desist. In the villages, an officer called the *kiaya*, is elected by the people, the richest or most intelligent of the inhabitants is usually chosen, and he performs the office gratuitously. The affairs of the village are managed by him, and to him the people look up for that protection which the townsmen receive from their associations. But most of these *kiayas* are accused of leaguings with the pachas, facilitating their extortions and enriching themselves.

These are the means of defence legally possessed by the people, but legal means must always be inefficacious against a

military government and an administration of armed plunderers.

As the military and executive powers are united in Turkey, so are the civil and religious professions. This necessarily follows from their faith. As the pentateuch to the Jews, the koran to the Mussulmans is at once their bible and their code of laws. All decisions must be founded upon this book, or the authorised commentaries. The ministers of religion must therefore be the law officers. They are called the *ulemas*, and their prerogatives are very great. They are secure from the extortions of the pachas and other men in power. They cannot legally be put to death without the consent of their chief, and their property passes as a right to their heirs, whereas the property of the pachas and other agents of the state, and of all other persons who die intestate, devolves to the imperial treasury. The *ulemas* generally direct the public opinion, and are thus formidable to the throne itself. The head of this body is the *mufi* or *sheik-islam*, the supreme chief of the Mohammedan religion; his decisions are called *fetfas*. The sultan promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, imposes no tax without having obtained a *fetfa*.

"This eminent place might serve, no doubt, as a counterpoise to the almost absolute and unlimited authority of the sovereign: it might even frequently paralyze it, if the latter had not the power of appointing the *mufi*, of deposing him, of banishing him, and even of putting him to death after having deposed him; and, indeed, it seldom happens that a *mufi* opposes the will of the sultan and his ministers. His *fetfas* are forced from him by the wish of preserving his place and by the fear of death: yet more than once religious zeal and probity have induced some to present themselves to the sultan, and to make to him observations and remonstrances; some even, more fanatic and more courageous, braving every danger, have refused to condescend to his wishes. History affords various examples of sultans and viziers killed or deposed through the great influence of the *mufis* on public opinion; but it likewise presents more *mufis* who have been victims of their zeal for religion and of their attachment to the interests of the people."

The two *kadileskers* are next in rank, one of Romania, or Turkey in Europe, the other of Natolia, or Turkey in Asia. They were formerly the judges of military men; the first was to decide on the affairs of the mussulmen, the latter on those of the tributary subjects, but now

all causes are referred to the former. They both assist at the grand vizier's divan, hear and discuss the business brought before them, after which the *kadilesker* of Romania alone pronounces sentence. These officers are annual, but the lower generally succeeds to the higher. They appoint all the *cadis* throughout the empire, which makes their places very lucrative in a country where every thing is venal. The *stambol effendi*, *molla*, or judge of the capital, ranks next. The commercial business is under his cognizance; he is to inspect the provision, fix the price of grain, and inspect the weights and measures; this office is also annual, and generally leads to that of *kadilesker*. The great cities have a each *molla*.

*Madresses*, or colleges, are attached to the imperial mosques of Constantinople, Bursa, and Adrianople. Here the students in the Koran must be educated, and when they are sufficiently informed, they obtain the rank of *mudaris*, or professor. These colleges were founded by different sultans; their revenues are considerable, and they provide for the support of two or three thousand scholars. Those of the *mudaris*, who are not ambitious of attaining high rank, solicit the place of *cadi* from the *kadileskers*, which is always to be purchased. In small towns the *cadi* decides all litigious disputes without appeal. They pass from one situation of this kind to another of more extent, and therefore more profit, and become *mallas* of an inferior rank, but higher they cannot rise. They who aspire to the more important offices, pass, after fresh examination, to the mosque of Soliman I. and there wait till seniority, merit, or interest, procure them an appointment. Eight of these are yearly appointed *mallas* of Jerusalem, Aleppo, Smyrna, Larissa, Salonica, Scutari, Galata, and Ayup. Of these eight, four are afterwards named to the cities of Bursa, Adrianople, Cairo, and Damascus. Two of these four pass in the next year to Mecca and Medina, and one of these becomes the *stambol effendi*. Thus they rise gradually to the highest rank. The *mallas* and *kadileskers*, who are not employed, and waiting their turn, have certain benefices called *arpa-leks*. The graduates cannot be admitted into the mosque of Soliman without great interest, or great merit.

"Frequently the pachas, and great officers of state, cause one or more of their sons to be received into the body of the *ulemas*, in order to have it in their power to transmit to them their property, and by that means withdraw it from the confiscation which the sultan has a right to make of it after their death. In this case they content themselves with calling under their roof professors to instruct their sons; and to make them undergo the examinations prescribed by the law, they get them admitted as *mudaris*, and, if favour second their ambition, they cause them to pass through all the ranks of *mallas*, without performing the duties of them, and without receiving the income, the place being occupied by another. The sultan, always above the law, creates *ulemas* at pleasure, which is the reason that for some time past there have been a great many ignorant *mallas* and *cadis*. The appointments of favour have been very prejudicial to that body, and have diminished the consideration which it enjoyed. It is no longer so formidable to the throne as it was formerly, for a simple pacha frequently procures the exile of a *cadi* who counteracts him, or opposes his will. It happens too that when the sultan wishes to put to death an *ulema*, whose zeal and courage give him umbrage, he endeavours, by feigned caresses, to make him accept a *pachalik*, or any other employment: then become agent of the government, he orders his head to be cut off without any formality."

The immediate ministers of religion make no part of the body of *ulemas*; the *scheiks* or preachers hold the first rank; their function is to preach in the mosques, after the noon prayer, every Friday, or oftener where there are foundations. The *khatibs* officiate on Fridays, and recite the *khoutbe*, or public profession of the unity and attributes of God, and the prayer for the sultan. The *imans* recite the *namaz* five times every day, except on Fridays, the sabbath of the Mussulmen; he officiates at circumcision and entertainments. The *muezims* call the people to prayer from the minarets, and, like our sextons, are to keep the mosques clean. The mosques of the second order, called *mesjids*, have no *khatib*, because they are not entitled to have the solemn prayer of Friday celebrated. In villages and smaller towns one person is *scheck*, *khatib*, *iman*, and *muezim*.

Justice is administered without delay in Turkey. A *molla*, a *cadi*, and one or more writers, compose a tribunal. The parties plead their own cause, which is tried without appeal, at the expence of

ten per cent. of the value in dispute. When the question does not relate to an affair of pecuniary interest, the judge appropriates a fine to himself. The most abominable venality pervades the empire; the sentence of the judge, and the deposition of the witnesses, are generally to be purchased; no where are false witnesses so common and so shameless as in Turkey.

There is yet a third body of people, who are in the capital numerous, intelligent, respected, and powerful; these the translator calls by the French appellation *gens de plume*: as we have not in English the distinctions of *gens de plume*, *gens d'épée*, and *gens de robe*, the word *scribes* would have been sufficiently accurate. All the writers, from clerks and schoolmasters up to the *reis effendi*, who is secretary of state and high chancellor of the empire, are called *kadjas*, and belong to this body. Those of the higher rank have the title of *effendi*. The business of transcribing forms the nursery of the scribes; they first copy books for sale, afterwards draw up petitions and memorials for those who need them, and thus gradually rise in proportion to their abilities. The number of copyists in Constantinople is said to be prodigious: their influence, and the refusal of the ulemas to suffer the Koran to be printed, are the obstacles which have prevented the success of printing in Turkey.

"A very remarkable change has taken place in the government since SELIM III. created a new council, to which are at this day submitted all projects, to which are referred all important affairs, and from which emanate all the resolutions, and, as it were, all the acts of the government. The responsibility of the vizir must have diminished with his power: the misfortunes of the state, the public calamities, cannot thenceforth be attributed to him; and if the first place of the Ottoman empire continue to be changeable and tottering, it will at least be no longer accompanied by the same dangers.

"The divan, or the council of the grand vizier, was formerly composed of six ordinary viziers, or pachas with three tails, whose reputation for wisdom and intelligence was not to be equivocal. The vizier asked their opinion when he thought it necessary. To this council were likewise admitted the mufti, and the two kadileskers, when the law was to be consulted.

"A little time after his accession to the throne, SELIM composed this council of twelve persons, the most distinguished by

their office. The vizier and the mufti are presidents of it, the one in his quality of lieutenant-general of the empire for temporal affairs, the other as vicar of the sultan, for the interpretation and depository of the laws.

"SELIM, occupied with useful establishments, ameliorations, and changes, necessitated by the critical circumstances in which he found himself on his accession to the throne, could not doubt of the success of his enterprises in causing to emanate from a council formed by the most powerful and the most enlightened men of the empire, all the innovations that he wished to introduce, all beneficent laws that he wished to have passed. Could he suspect, that by rendering arbitrary acts less frequent, great executions more rare, by diminishing the too absolute and too tyrannical power of the vizier, by submitting to discussion all the operations of the government, by promulgating no law till it had, as it were, received the sanction of his council, guilt would become more frequent, ambition more audacious, rebellion more difficult to be repressed, armies of robbers more numerous? Could he imagine, in a word, that the influence of foreign powers would be greater, and that it would succeed in stopping all the salutary measures that he wished to have adopted?

"This council, unfortunately composed of members, enemies among themselves, jealous of each other, more taken up with themselves than with the happiness of the state, is very far from having accomplished the intentions of SELIM. One would be inclined to believe, from seeing it sometimes in action in the midst of dangers, and sometimes in a route contrary to that which it ought to follow, that most of the members, far from seconding the designs of the sultan, labour, on the contrary, to make them miscarry. Since its creation, the state of affairs is daily becoming worse; the empire is menaced with a total dissolution, the finances are exhausted, and a rebel already threatens to place a stranger on the throne. He is waiting, perhaps, only for the moment when the people shall be prepared for this extraordinary event, unexampled in Turkish annals."

Of this rebel Mr. Olivier has given the only clear and satisfactory account that has appeared in Europe. Paswan Oglou signifies the son of Ogiou. The father held the rank of ayam, at Widin. That respectable office, whose possessors must be virtuous as well as able men, as it is their business, without emolument, to stand forth in defence of the weak against the powerful. He commanded a troop of volunteers in the last war of the Turks against the Russians and Germans: his reputation and his riches induced the grand vizier to behead him.

Paswan Oglou was apprehended at the same time, and when he obtained his liberty, recovered only a small part of the property which was his inheritance. He retired to Widin, with a resolution to revenge his father and himself. There he was elected *ayam*; and in this respectable character waited for one of those pretexts which the wretched state of the empire could not fail soon to afford him.

When the present sultan ascended the throne, his first object was an attempt to strengthen the naval force, and introduce some discipline into his armies. The janizaries were formidable only to himself, not to his enemies: to break up the body at once would have been dangerous, he therefore began his attack upon the *yamags*, the new companies formed for the town garrisons and fortress duty, along the frontiers of Germany. These men every where took up arms, and every where were subdued, except at Widin, where Paswan Oglou, in his protecting character, put himself at their head, marched against the pacha, and cut him to pieces. The inhabitants of Widin readily engaged in his cause. They had formerly paid no tax to the Porte, but money had been sent to their city for the pay of the *yamags*, and the repairs of the fortifications; now a tax on provisions, wool, cotton, &c. had been imposed to support the new military improvements of Selim. The reforms projected at Constantinople were burthensome to them, and they willingly supported Paswan when he declared against them. His force was soon strengthened by a number of the discontented, who flocked to his standard. He sent detachments into the neighbouring provinces, took possession of the money belonging to the imperial treasury, levied taxes, and summoned the princes of Wallachia and Moldavia to furnish him with provisions, stores, and money. They addressed themselves to the Porte; who, according to its temporizing system, sent them orders privately to yield to necessity.

To the Greeks Paswan promised the free exercise of their religion, and the abolition of the infamous distinction of *rayas*, and he took for his motto liberty and justice. They therefore regarded him as their approaching deliverer. The janizaries all looked to him as their champion. Selim's counsellors felt

their own weakness, and the government offered him pardon, and the restitution of his father's property, if he would lay down his arms, and disband his army. Paswan was not strong enough to attempt much; he demanded that the tax should not be established at Widin, and that the janizaries should be maintained in their rights. To these disgraceful terms the sultan consented. Paswan, however, though he had thus made his peace, did not rely upon the faith of a government whose usual means was assassination; he neglected nothing to make protectors at Constantinople, and procure partizans among the people; meantime he solicited the government of Widin, and the rank of *pacha* with three tails. The Porte amused him as long as it could, and when he found he had nothing to hope by this course, he again revolted.

"His generals, more warlike than politic, wished to prevail on him to take possession of WALLACHIA and MOLDAVIA, to fortify the principal towns situated on the DANUBE, and thence brave all the efforts of the Ottoman empire. PASWAN knew the courts of VIENNA and PETERSBURG: he was persuaded that they would favour, that they would soon second his enterprizes in the interior; but that they would unite, on the contrary, with the Porte, to prevent him from establishing himself beyond the DANUBE, and forming a state independent of those two principalities.

"A more extensive field of glory and prosperity offered itself to PASWAN; this was to march straight to the capital, to seize boldly on the throne, to dispose of the fate of SELIM, to sacrifice his enemies to the manes of his father, and to his own safety; to unite under the same laws, nations separated by religious fanaticism; to give to commerce and industry a new impulse; to give life to agriculture; to create a formidable navy; in short, to fix the government on a solid basis, by giving it that harmony, that general connection in which it is defective.

"Had the boldness of this man equalled his prudence, had his mind been as active as his genius was fertile, had he had for attack the talents which he has displayed for defence, it is not to be doubted that the throne of SELIM would have passed into other hands. Already had the janizaries refused to march; already did the immense number of inhabitants of CONSTANTINOPLE hold out their arms to him whom they considered as their deliverer, as the defender of their rights: the majority of the great were devoted to his interests, and the people, as is well known, always seduced by the prestiges which sur-



round the great man, second his projects without inquiry, and promote without mistrust all his enterprizes.

PASWAN hesitated as to the course which he had to follow; the obstacles which he considered, appeared to him too great; perhaps he doubted of success; he resolved to wait in WIDIN for all the forces which the PORTE chose to employ against him, persuaded that the soldiers would draw up under his colours, or find death at the foot of the walls, and in the marshes with which the town is surrounded."

The pachas of European Turkey were now ordered to march against him with all their forces, and send his head to Constantinople. His generals were every where successful against them, and the loss he sustained in battles was more than counterbalanced by the number of soldiers who deserted to him. He himself never went from Widin; but he directed all the operations of the campaign. His victories alarmed the Porte, which now began to fear not only for the fate of Belgrade, but lest he should establish himself at Adrianople, and from thence molest the capital. In 1798 Selim, therefore, made one great effort, and ordered Hussein, the high general, to march against the rebel with all the forces of Europe and Asia that could be raised. A flotilla was equipped to attack Widin from the side of the Danube, "and with a force," says Mr. Olivier, "capable of subduing an empire, Hussein marched to destroy a rebel, and lay siege to a revolted town." Paswan made no attempt to stop his march; he disbanded great part of his army, abandoned the towns which he had conquered, and shut himself up in Widin with 12,000 chosen men, on whose fidelity and courage he could rely. The city was stored for two years; he had a flotilla likewise, in case of need, to revictual it. Some Polish engineers directed his artillery, and drew his plans of defence.

"After having reconnoitred the environs of the town, after having assigned to the different chiefs the posts which they were to occupy, and having made all the dispositions which he judged necessary for the siege, HUSSEIN summoned PASWAN to lay down his arms, promising him his life, liberty, and a distinguished rank, if he would spare muselman blood. 'In vain wilt thou oppose to me,' said he to him, 'a momentary resistance; I have a hundred thousand men with me; a hundred thousand others would come

to their assistance were it necessary; acknowledge thy errors; prostrate thyself before the majesty of the imperial throne, and deliver up to me thy town and thy army.' PASWAN received the envoy of the pacha on the most lofty terrace of his palace, whence he was observing with a glass the movements of the enemy, and with that disdain which the idea of the superiority of one's strength and talents naturally produces, 'Go and tell thy master,' replied he, 'that it depended on me to have a hundred thousand men to oppose him; I preferred conquering him with ten.'

This anecdote would not disgrace the annals of Athens or of Sparta. The confidence of Paswan was justified by success. His flotilla defeated Hussein's gun-boats, and he repelled two general attacks. The capitan pacha resolved to make a final effort: his army was divided into three corps; the first two marched by different roads during the night, to the place appointed for attack. One of these mistook the other for the enemy, thinking they had sallied, and accordingly fired upon them. The general of the division perceived the mistake, but was so incensed that he ordered his men to fire in return; they were as angry as their commander, and the battle continued till the third corps came up, and fell upon both sword in hand to separate them. This circumstance, so worthy of Turkish discipline, completed the ruin of Hussein's army, and he was obliged to raise the siege. Paswan then again over-ran the same tract of country, and the Porte resolved to offer him the government of Widin, and the rank of pacha with three tails. The history of this extraordinary man is brought down no farther than this offer, which was in 1799.

In historical and statistical details, and these are assuredly the most important portions of such works, Mr. Olivier is always full and perspicuous, but in whatever relates to the manners of the people, or the face of the country before him, his volumes are sadly deficient. His resolution not to employ over-brilliant colours seems to proceed not from his judgment as a painter, but from a consciousness that he could not paint. Hamburg, or Manchester, or Birmingham, could furnish him with pictures as interesting as Constantinople. He has the patience and the method of an historian, but not the eye of a traveller.

H

The account of the burial grounds furnishes the most interesting description in this work.

"The graves of the Turks, of which we shall presently speak, are concealed from the view by a thick forest of cypresses. Those of the Armenians serve as a seat, and are shaded by different trees of an agreeable and diversified aspect; among others are to be remarked the mulberry tree, the plane tree, the ash, the elm, and the walnut tree.

"The graves of the Armenians are very close to each other, and are covered by a marble, sculptured in relief in its upper part, representing a vase of flowers, the instrument which designates the rank and profession of the deceased, and an inscription in Armenian characters. A person must have died very poor if he have on his grave only a simple stone, without any ornament. Frequently is perceived, by the side of the inscription, the figure of a man whose head is cut off; this is a method of perpetuating the remembrance of an injustice, of an act of tyranny, on the part of the Turks, and of transmitting it to the remotest posterity. I have often seen in the forenoon, Armenian women weeping and mourning over the grave of a husband, over that of a father, a mother, or a child. The whole family sometimes come thither; not unfrequently two priests come with the parents of the deceased, to recite over his grave prayers for the repose and salvation of his soul. The Armenians, like the Turks, consider it as a duty to wash the bodies of their dead before they bury them; and almost all of them take care to plant near the grave a tree that may shade it one day, and moderate the ardent rays of the sun.

"The burying grounds of SCUTARI are the handsomest of the Ottoman empire, from their extent, the luxury of their tombs, and the height and closeness of the trees. The rich Turks of CONSTANTINOPLE, from a sentiment of pride or piety, prefer being buried in ASIA, which they consider as a holy land, as a land belonging to the true believers; while the land of EUROPE, according to them, is to fall one day into the hands of the Christian powers, and be trodden on by the infidels. These burying grounds are situated above the town, and extend to the east and to the south, towards the sea, and to the environs of the spot formerly occupied by CHALCEDON.

"Before we strayed into this forest of cypresses, we visited several storehouses of tombstones ready to be erected; we there found an assortment relating to the different professions and employments of the Turks, and calculated at the same time to satisfy the taste of every one. Several workmen are employed in cutting the marble, in giving it various forms, in tracing on one of its faces

flowers, eulogiums, and sentences taken from the Koran.

"When you have penetrated into the forest, the image of the tombs, the sight of a young widow shedding tears over the grave of her husband; of a mother regretting the loss of the dearest of her children; of an old man who has seen the last branch of his family become extinct; the silence which reigns in these places consecrated to death; the dark and uniform green of the cypress; the absence of the sun, whose rays cannot penetrate the thick foliage of the trees; the plaintive song of the turtles—every thing inclines man to meditation, and plunges him into a sweet melancholy. A similar place in EUROPE would be frequented by unhappy lovers, by unfortunate men, by those to whom sadness is a want, and tears are a relief.

"The graves are very close to each other, and very diversified in their form. The poor Turks content themselves with erecting, at the two extremities of the grave, a simple sepulchral stone, without ornament and without inscription. Most frequently there are two slabs of marble sculptured and ornamented, one of which, surmounted by a turban similar to that which the man wore in his life time, presents an inscription indicating the age and profession of the deceased, and which contains at the same time a panegyric or a sentence taken from the Koran: the other piece of marble is ornamented with a cypress tree in relief, or a vase of flowers; it also bears sometimes a second inscription. The letters are always in relief, and painted in black or gilt. The graves of the women are distinguishable from one of these slabs of marble, in lieu of presenting a turban, being commonly terminated in the form of a mushroom. Those of the rich have the circumference of the grave in masonry; some, similar to an antique sarcophagus, are raised about three feet, and composed of four pieces of marble, two flat ones of which form the sides of the tomb; those of the two extremities are surmounted by two pillars, seven or eight feet high, on one of which is seen a long inscription. The upper part of the sarcophagus is without a lid, and leaves exposed to view the earth which covers the body. Sometimes a space containing one or several graves is surrounded by a wall or palisade. A cypress tree is commonly planted at one of the extremities of every grave, which is the reason that in these Turkish burying grounds, those trees are so numerous and so close that they form a thick forest.

For the first years after the interment, the relations of the deceased come from time to time, or at fixed periods, to shed tears over the grave, to renew their regret, and spend the whole day in affliction. Some, more alive to their loss, make it their duty to cultivate flowers there, to take care of the cy-

press tree which they have planted, and thence to address prayers to the Supreme Being."

It is remarkable that the Turks, cruel as they are in war, and in their punishments, have yet a sort of every day humanity which influences their domestic and habitual conduct. The slaves who are purchased when young, are treated with the same kindness, and almost with the same respect as the sons of the family. A Turk rarely sells the slave who has displeased him; he contents himself with threatening and punishing him as he would punish his own child, and ultimately gives him his liberty, and marries him, after a servitude more or less long, according as he observes the law of Mahomet, who limits the period of slavery to nine years. The slaves of a mussulman almost always on his death become free, for if this good act be not dictated by the deceased, the heirs consider it as his intention, and fulfil it. Their tenderness to animals is well known. Mr. Olivier went on the water to shoot some aquatic birds; he had the greatest difficulty to make the boatmen row him within shot, because he would not let them cut the throats of the birds as soon as they fell, which would have spoilt the plumage. The Turks always thus humanely shorten the pain of death when they destroy an animal. The dogs of Constantinople being considered as unclean, are all wild. The rich frequently give a meal to all in their neighbourhood; a legacy for these animals is a common act of death-bed charity. There are some persons who build kennels near their houses for the accommodation of lying-in bitches. These dogs have a regular police of their own; like the beggars in London, they have their regular rounds, and resist any intrusion from the dog of the neighbouring walk. Mr. Olivier says canine madness is totally unknown in the east; that it appears to be a disorder as foreign to those countries as the plague is to our parts of Europe.

Mr. Olivier and his comrade remained eighteen months at Constantinople expecting in vain orders from France. Descorches, the envoy, gave them all the assistance that his precarious situation allowed him to afford; and in the

winter of 1794, they resolved to go among the Greek islands.

The Dardanelles and the Troad are minutely described; but in this part of the work we have to complain of the useless repetition of classical tales with which every school-boy is acquainted, and whereof every school-girl has read at the end of her dictionary. This volume is, on the whole, less interesting than the preceding, being more statistic and scientific. Caprification, he says, is not practised in Italy, France, or Spain; it is, however, still practised about Faro, whence the greater number of figs are exported. The list of plants which the Cretans use as food is curious, and may possibly increase our catalogue of culinary vegetables.

"The leaves of kidney-beans, boiled and fried with olive oil.

The leaves of chick-peas, boiled and raw, as a salad.

The leaves and the flowers of pumpkins, boiled.

The leaves of vines, boiled and pickled with vinegar.

The leaves of horseradish, boiled.

The leaves and the tops of mustard, and of a great number of cruciform plants, boiled and fried.

The leaves of several species of oraches, boiled.

The leaves and the stems of blite, boiled.

The leaves and the stems of common black night-shade,\* boiled.

The leaves of corn, or red poppy,† boiled.

The leaves of mallow, boiled.

The young shoots of wild or acute-leaved asparagus,‡ boiled.

The stems of the common rough bindweed,§ and of the lofty-climbing oriental bindweed.||

Prickly chlicory, raw, as a salad.

Dandelion, and a great number of chiconaceous plants, as a salad.

The leaves of various species of scorzonera, as a salad.

The greater part of the campanulus, valerians, scabiouses, as a salad.

The leaves of bramble, boiled, and the tender tops, raw, as a salad.

The ears of green maize, raw.

The roots of parsley, boiled, as a salad, and as a ragout.

The stems and the leaves of fennel, boiled, as a salad, and pickled in vinegar.

The fruits of the love-apple,¶ boiled, and as a ragout, or as seasoning. A cultivated plant.

The leaves and the buds of the thornless caper bush, pickled in vinegar."

\* *Solanum nigrum*. LINN.

† *Papaver rhæas*. LINN.

‡ *Asparagus acutifolius*. LINN.

§ *Smilax aspera*. LINN.

|| *Smilax excelsa*. LINN.

¶ *Solanum lycopersicum*. LINN.

The potatoe, it seems, is not yet known to the Greeks.

The situation of the Cretans is dreadful.

"No Greek can marry without the permission of the aga, a permission which he must purchase by a present, such as a sheep, a lamb, or a few fowls. If the fair one please the aga, he sometimes keeps her for himself, without any one daring to oppose it. The cudgel is always ready to strike the reluctant Greek; and woe be to the audacious man who should prefer a complaint to the pacha, or to the PORTE! He would pay with his fortune, and frequently with his head, for such a step. The aga, in this case, marries, in the *kapin* manner, with the free consent, or what is understood to be such, of this woman. Ottoman manners oppose his living with her; and if she persisted in refusing to receive his hand, however powerful the aga might be, he would be obliged to desist from his pretensions. Not unfrequently, after having kept this Greek woman two or three years, he turns her off for another, and marries her to some Greek inhabitant of the village, who dares not refuse her. It is asserted, that it is uncommon for a Greek woman not to be flattered at sharing the bed of her lord, young or old, whatever may be the shame which the men attach to it, and the fate that she must experience sooner or later; so true it is, that here, as elsewhere, authority is seductive, and vanity not to be resisted.

"Married men are not permitted to quit the island, unless they are mariners or merchants. There has been seen hanging to the mast of his boat a *karavokéri*,\* who had dared to infringe this law, and who had, by stealth, carried unhappy beings to the Gulf of EPHEsus.

"If a Greek has committed a serious offence, or if he be accused of any, which amounts nearly to the same thing, the pacha intervenes, and demands the delinquent, in order to have him tried and condemned. For this purpose he must apply to the aga, who gives him up immediately, or defends him till after the sentence of the cadi. The Greek often gets out of a scrape, by means of the arrangements which he enters into with his aga, and of the sacrifices which he makes towards him and the pacha. He who has nothing, pays with his head; he who possesses something, is incessantly exposed to lose it.

"The fields which they cultivate, planted by their ancestors when a civilized, industrious, and trading people governed the island, and favoured agriculture, are running to waste from day to day: the olive tree perishes, the vine disappears; the soil is washed away by the rains; yet these unfortunate

Greeks, disheartened as they are, think not of repairing the damages which time is incessantly occasioning them. There is nothing but the pressing want of living and of paying the taxes, that can induce them to gather their olives, sow their lands, and give their attention to a few bees.

"Industry is almost null in the Greek villages subject to the agas. It is not without trembling that the inhabitants there make a few coarse cloths, and the most simple implements of husbandry. The women are scarcely ever employed but in mending the old rags which they and their husbands wear as long as they can. When they dress themselves in new cloaths, which happens but seldom, they avoid showy colours, and stuffs of a certain price. They know that their suit would be taken away from them by the soubachi, or by some other Turk, and would even expose them to outrages."

The Sphachiots, or mountaineers, the descendants of the ancient Cretans, are distinguished from the other Greeks by their finer persons, their greater courage, and their unconquerable love of liberty. They were obliged, indeed, to carry ice from their mountains for the consumption of the towns; but the Turks exacted nothing more: they paid no imposts, and were governed by their own laws and own magistrates, till, in 1769, Russia, with the usual ambition of great nations, instigated the Greeks to rise in arms, and, with the usual faithlessness of great nations, abandoned them to the vengeance of the tyrants whose yoke they had attempted to throw off. At this period 20,000 muskets well distributed, and 10,000 Russians well commanded, would have delivered Greece! The Sphachiots at that time took arms, and, when the Russians had so infamously retired, the pacha of Candia resolved to march against them with his whole force, and exterminate them.

"The Turks, always ready to fight when they are persuaded that there are Christians to be killed, towns to be plundered, boys and girls to be violated, and slaves of all ages and of both sexes to be sold, were soon united under their colours. Soldiers and cultivators, traders and workmen, all wished to take a part in this expedition. Fifteen thousand men, armed at all points, arrived in a few days at the nearest mountains, on which they found not one inhabitant. The women and children of the Sphachiots, accompanied by the old men and the infirm, had gained the most elevated spots, and the most inaccessible places. Those whose age

\* Master or captain of a b.r.k., boat, or vessel.

allowed them to handle a musket or sword, to the number of upwards of 2,000, posted with intelligence at the second chain of their mountains, disputed with courage every rock, stopped for a long time at every gorge, the Turks by no means habituated to this manner of fighting, and when a passage was forced, or a rock carried, the Sphachiots, lightly clothed, and lightly armed, accustomed to climb mountains, disappeared in a moment; while the Turk, who knows not how to fight but on horseback, who is both heavily clothed, and heavily armed, could not follow his enemy across the rocks and precipices, which it was necessary to clear in order to reach him.

"During the whole summer, the Turks displayed a great deal of perseverance in fighting the Sphachiots; but, being afterwards surprised at a resistance which they did not expect, disappointed in their hopes, frightened at the approaches of the cold, and tired of a painful and disagreeable war, they loudly demanded to return home. The Sphachiots, on their side, found themselves reduced to the last extremity: almost all their villages had been set on fire: a great number of their women and children had been carried off; they had lost their flocks; their provisions were exhausted; and the earth which they could not cultivate, no longer afforded them any thing; so that they received with pleasure the first proposals that were made to them: they consented to pay the annual tribute to which all the Greeks are subject; and, by these means, they were enabled to return to their habitations, and continue their barter with the maritime towns.

"As the Turks, on this occasion, had not been able to take with them horses, and to cause themselves to be followed by beasts of burden, they had thought of loading three or four thousand Greeks with their baggage; and in the different battles which they had to fight, they placed these Greeks in front of them, in order to make themselves a rampart of their bodies.

"This trait of barbarity and cowardice, which was related to us by a great number of Sphachiots, was what most affected these brave mountaineers, and what most contri-

buted to reduce them to a deplorable condition. Frequently they durst not fire on their enemies, for fear of killing those whom they considered as their brothers, still more unfortunate than themselves."

It has been sometimes proposed at Constantinople to cut off all the Greeks in the empire in one day; and Mr. Olivier says, recourse will undoubtedly be had to this atrocious measure in Crete, if ever the island be threatened by a hostile power. The Turks in this island have profited so far by their commerce with the Europeans, that they alone, of all their countrymen, have established a quarantine.

These volumes certainly contain more information than any that have before been published concerning the Ottoman empire, nor does there appear any reason to doubt its accuracy. The volumes which are yet to appear will, however, be of far greater value. Since the death of Nadir Shah we have known little or nothing of Persia. Mr. Olivier was several months at that court upon a mission of the highest importance, which furnished him with an opportunity, he says, of observing the great, of studying the common people, and of collecting interesting materials for the history of the intestine wars which, during half a century, have desolated that empire. Upon Egypt we cannot now expect much; yet we doubt not, that in so able a traveller we shall find something which has escaped his predecessors, numerous as the gleaners have been in that field.

The translation is often inelegant, and has too many of those gallicisms with which translations have infected our language. In one sentence there is at once a bull and a bathos. Lambro was attacked by forces so considerable, *that he was entirely destroyed, and ran the greatest risk of losing his life.*

ART. XVIII. *The Journal of Frederick Hornemann's Travels, from Cairo to Mourzouk, the Capital of the Kingdom of Fezzan, in Africa. In the Years 1797-8. 4to. 195 pages and 2 Maps.*

IN this age of enterprise and discovery, few pursuits, of a useful and benevolent kind, have been followed with more ardour, than that of endeavouring to ascertain the productions of nature, and the manners and conditions of society in the various countries and regions of the globe. For this purpose, vessels

have been fitted out by our own and other European governments, at the public expence; whilst patriotic societies, concurring with individual zeal and mercantile speculation, have given to these researches an interest of extension far beyond what they possessed at any former period. And as this spirit appears



to have suffered but little abatement during ten years of a most unprecedented and calamitous war, there is reason to hope that the advantages of a permanent peace would enable us to obtain a variety of useful and instructive information, with respect to almost every part of the world.

Among other undertakings of this kind, a society was formed in 1788, for the purpose of exploring the interior of Africa; and a volume of their transactions, printed in the years 1790-92, sets forth, in detail, such communications, respecting this subject, as might be collected on enquiry from British consuls; from the recitals of Negro or Moorish traders; or from that of shereefs and others who had passed with the caravans on religious pilgrimage, in different directions between, Mecca and the various and remote stations of Mahomedans in Africa; which was taken as a preliminary step, that might afford such reasonable conjecture and inference as would warrant and direct the course of further investigation on this interesting subject. With these views Mr. Ledyard and Mr. Lucas, who had transmitted all the accounts that could be obtained in this way, were a few years afterwards employed for the purpose of penetrating into the heart of the country, in order to ascertain the truth of these recitals, to correct them on personal information, and to elucidate by an actual survey, any future plan for turning the knowledge thence derived to account. But Mr. Ledyard died at Cairo, before his enterprising spirit could start towards its object; and Mr. Lucas, deterred by difficulties and danger, proceeded no farther than to Mesurata, seven days journey S. E. of Tripoli, where he collected some information from the shereef and traders of Fezzan, and shortly after returned to England.

The society, therefore, sought out a new traveller; and Major Houghton was appointed, in the year 1790, to sail for the mouth of the Gambia, and to traverse the country from west to east. He accordingly arrived on the coast of Africa November 10th of that year, and commencing his journey immediately, ascended the Gambia to Medina, 900 miles (by the water course) from the mouth of the river, and thence proceeded to Bambouk and the adjoining kingdom of Kaissou; where, in September 1791,

he unfortunately terminated his travels with his life, near the town of Jarra.

Mr. Park, however, who was engaged in the service of this society in 1795, more successfully followed the route of Major Houghton, and further explored the banks of the Niger, to Sego and Sila, the first of that great line of populous and commercial cities which divide the southern from the northern deserts of Africa; the very existence of which, for centuries past, had been rather matter of rumour than of information; and had even become the subject of philosophic romance, in default of authentic accounts and descriptions.

The informations thus obtained by Mr. Park, were communicated in May 1798, which year forms the memorable epoch, when the researches of this society announced to the world the course of the Niger from west to east; and after the distance of 2300 years corroborated the testimony of Herodotus, which had been contested during that long period, both by ancient and later writers; and ultimately rejected, in the last century, by the learned D'Anville. Mr. Park was also enabled to mark the districts of population covering the great belt of land intersecting Africa from west to east, and has obtained such information with respect to the settlements on the fertile banks of the Niger, as may now be so far depended upon as to give assurance of objects of commerce and learned inquiry that will amply repay future research.

The society, availing itself of the intelligence conveyed by Mr. Park, engaged a new emissary, Mr. Hornemann, whose travels are the subject of the present work, to extend their researches in a new line of direction, proceeding from the city of Cairo to the westward. This gentleman left London in July 1797, and proceeded to Paris, where his reception was proportionate to the lively interest which was every where taken in his scheme of enterprise, and in the means of promoting its success. The first members of the learned society of the National Institute tendered him their patronage, encouragement, and assistance; and through the means of M. Laroche, who had been appointed consul for Mogadore, he formed a most useful acquaintance with a Turk of distinction, (a native of Tripoli) then resident at Paris, who gave him letters of introduc-

tion, strongly recommending him to the friendship and protection of several leading Mahomedan merchants at Cairo, who were, in habits of trade with people of the remotest regions of Africa.

Thus provided, Mr. Hornemann left Paris, in August, for Marseilles, where he embarked about the end of the month, and arrived at Alexandria in the middle of September. Having staid here a few days, he proceeded to Cairo, where he resided for some time, in order to study the language and manners of the Mograbs, or western Arabs, with whom he was to associate in his future travels. Here, however, he was detained much longer than he intended by the breaking out of the plague; and still further by the arrival of the French on the coast of Egypt; which latter circumstance would have entirely frustrated all his designs, if it had not been for the protection afforded him by the commander in chief, who received him with every mark of attention, and not only directed the necessary passports to be prepared for him, but offered him money, or whatever might be thought requisite to the undertaking.

Under these favourable auspices, Mr. Hornemann engaged a servant of the name of Joseph Frandenburgh, a native of Germany, who about ten or twelve years past had been forced to embrace the Mohammedan religion; and having three times made the voyage to Mecca, had acquired a perfect knowledge both of the Arabic and Turkish languages. With this useful companion, he set out on his travels from Cairo to Fezzan, about the beginning of September 1798. They performed this journey in company with the caravan, which yearly returns from Mecca to the western countries of Africa, and on their first setting out, Mr. H. was furnished with a curious instance of the manners and customs of his fellow travellers.

"Soon after sunset," he observes, "our Sheikh gave the signal for halting, and we pitched our tents. My dragoman, or interpreter, might even in Europe, have passed for a good cook; and from remains of the provision which our hospitable friends at Cairo had supplied, was preparing an excellent supper; when an old Arab of Augila, observing his preparations, and that myself was unemployed, addressed me nearly as follows: 'Thou art young, and yet dost not assist in preparing the meal of which thou art to partake; such perhaps may be the custom in

the land of infidels, but it is not so with us, and especially on a journey: thanks to God, we are not, in this desert, dependant on others, as are those poor pilgrims, but eat and drink what we ourselves provide, and as we please. Thou oughtest to learn every thing that the meanest Arab performs, that thou mayest be enabled to assist others in cases of necessity; otherwise thou wilt be less esteemed, as being of less value than a mere woman: and many will think they may justly deprive thee of every thing in thy possession, as being unworthy to possess any thing: adding, sarcastically, perhaps thou art carrying a large sum of money, and payest those men well.' This remonstrance was not thrown away, I immediately assisted in every thing that was not beyond my force; and proportionally gained on the good opinion and esteem of my fellow-travellers, and was no longer considered as a weak and useless idler in their troop."

On passing through the desert, from the valley of Natron to the mountains of Umme-sogier, Mr. H. observed vast quantities of petrified wood, rising out of this large tract of land; sometimes standing upright, or scattered in single pieces; but oftener found in irregular layers, or strata, covering together a considerable space of ground. He thinks, also, that if there remains any trace of a western branch of the Nile, as mentioned by ancient writers, it is probably to be found in this desert; which bears the name of *Bahr-bella-ma*, or *river without water*; and well accords with its name; its sandy surface resembling that of a lee shore, over which the waters, streaming before the storm, have, on their ebb, deposited timber, or whatever else was carried on by the tide. None of this, however, appeared to justify the wreck of vessels, as he saw no wood that had the least appearance of the tool, or of having been wrought for any purpose of man.

Mr. H. represents the people of Umme-sogier as extremely poor, "depending wholly for subsistence on their dates, which they in part sell to the Arabs of the desert, and in part carry to Alexandria, and exchange for corn, oil, or fruit. Their manners are rude and simple, as might be expected from a society so small and separated from every other, by vast tracts of desert, in every direction." "An old man," says Mr. H. "told me that the Bedouins once attempted to deprive them of their rock, and the pittance which the date trees around them furnished; and would have

succeeded, had not a *marabut*, or holy man, who lies buried in the village, so dazzled the eyes of the invaders, that they could not find the place, though constantly roving round it. A like miracle was hoped for, and (in vain certainly) expected in favour of Cairo when the French invaded Egypt."

Our traveller next proceeded to Siwah, a small independent state, whose principal and most fruitful district is a well watered valley of about fifty miles in circuit; in which he discovered some ruins of an extensive building, which are thought to be those of the *celebrated temple of Jupiter Ammon*. But notwithstanding the very ingenious attempt of Sir William Young, the secretary of the society and the editor of this work, to reconcile Mr. Hornemann's account of these ruins, and the basis on which they stand with that lately given by Mr. Browne, who had before visited the same spot, it must yet remain a matter of conjecture whether these are the remains of the building in question. The accounts of the two travellers disagree in several particulars, which the editor has endeavoured to reconcile, and though the reasons which he has advanced may not enforce conviction, yet as the result coincides with the sentiments of that very able geographer, Major Rennell, they are certainly entitled to attention.

The latter observes, after many other remarks, "that on a review of the subject, so many particulars accord with the ancient descriptions; such as the dimensions, and agreement of geographical situation, the fruits, the copious fountains, fertility of soil; and finally, although a negative proof, perhaps one of the strongest circumstances of all, the declaration of the inhabitants that no other fertile spot exists in the vicinity, or nearer than the lesser oasis."

On the 29th of September, the caravan departed from Siwah, on its way to Schiacha; at which latter place, Mr. Hornemann and his servant were brought into a situation of more peril and danger than any that occurred during the whole journey. Being suspected by the natives to be spies and christians, they were pursued by an armed force, and escaped destruction only by the singular address and firmness of Mr. Hornemann, who personated the mussulman so successfully, that he first gained the good opinion of the chief, and afterwards that of

the mob, who, as in most similar cases, were still more ignorant, fanatical, and brutal than their leader.

On their arrival at Temissa, the inhabitants of the place came out, in great numbers, to greet the caravan with welcome and congratulation on their arrival; and were so incessant in their repetition of the same words, that it struck our traveller as a very singular ceremony; but he was soon given to understand, that this mode of receiving their friends, denoted polite manners, according to the usage of the country. The more noble and educated the man, the oftener did he repeat his questions. "A well dressed young man," says Mr. Hornemann, "attracted my particular attention as an adept in the perseverance and redundancies of salutation. Accosting an Arab of Augila he gave him his hand, and detained him a considerable time with his civilities, when the Arab being obliged to advance, with greater speed, to come up again with his companions, the youth of Fezzan thought he should appear deficient in good manners if he quitted him so soon; for near half a mile he kept running by his horse, whilst all the conversation was, How dost thou fare? Well, how art thou thyself? Praised be God thou art arrived in peace! God grant thee peace. How dost thou do? &c. &c."

At an intermediate village between Zuila and Mourzouk, called Hemera, says Mr. H.

"I was regaled with the great Fezzan dainty of locusts or grasshoppers, and a drink called *lugibi*. The latter is composed of the juice of date trees, and when fresh is sweet and agreeable enough to the taste, but is apt to produce flatulencies and diarrhoea. At first I did not relish the dried locusts, but when accustomed grew fond of them. When eaten, the legs and wings are broken off, and the inner part is scooped out, and what remains has a flavour similar to that of red herrings, but more delicious."

Mr. Hornemann, soon afterwards, gives a curious description of the audience which took place between the people of the caravan and the sultan of Fezzan, which is no further interesting than by shewing the arbitrary manner in which he and his ministers govern the poor spiritless slaves over whom they preside; and whose general condition may be well understood, by its being observed that a rich man at Mourzouk, is one who

*eats bread and meat every day.* The caravans coming to Mourzouk from the south or west, bring as articles of commerce, slaves of both sexes, ostrich feathers, Zibette tigers skins, and gold, partly in dust and partly in native grains, to be manufactured into rings and other ornaments for the people of interior Africa. From Bornou copper is imported in great quantities. Cairo sends silks, malays, striped blue and white calicoes, woollen cloths, glass imitations of coral, beads for bracelets, and likewise an assortment of East India goods. The merchants of Bengasi, who usually join the caravan from Cairo at Agimeer, import tobacco, manufactured for chewing, or snuff, and sundry wares fabricated in Turkey.

The caravan from Tripoli, chiefly deals in paper, false corals, fire-arms, sabres, knives, and the cloths called abbes, and in red worsted caps. Those travelling from Gadames bring nearly the same articles. The smaller caravans of Taurieks and Arabs import butter, oil, fat, and corn, and those coming from the more southern districts bring senna, ostrich feathers, and camels for the slaughter house.

Mr. Hornemann's journal terminates at Mourzouk, and upon the whole, furnishes but scanty materials for a history of the countries through which he passed; but this appears to be more owing to the difficulties attending the researches which Mr. Hornemann was disposed to make, than to a want of zeal or qualifications for the undertaking. He is young, hardy, intrepid, and intelligent, and with these requisites, if he should be fortunate enough to survive the dangers that surround him, we may expect to receive from the new journey he is now pursuing to Bornou and Soudan, a variety of curious and useful information. It may also be observed, that if the narrative of Mr. Hornemann be not so complete and interesting as might have been expected, that the annexed dissertation on the oasis of Siwah, by Sir William Young, the geographical illustrations of Major Rennell, and the observations on the language of Siwah, by Mr. Marsden, give a value to this performance, which will be acknowledged by every zealous and enlightened enquirer, who makes this hitherto neglected branch of geographical investigation, the object of his research.

ART. XIX. *Travels in the United States of America, commencing in the Year 1793, and ending in 1797; with the Author's Journal of his two Voyages across the Atlantic.* By WILLIAM PRIEST, Musician. 8vo. pp. 214.

MR. PRIEST is a man with no pretensions to science, and with neither knowledge nor leisure for research and disquisitions, but he has a quick eye at discovering the peculiar and ridiculous, and has brought forward many little but amusing traits of national character, which profounder writers would have overlooked, or perhaps despised. There is a passage in the beginning of this journal which staggered our faith in the author's veracity. He says "The lower order of the inhabitants at Falmouth, chaunt, or rather speak in recitative, a strange dialect, in which I could distinguish several English words." p. 3. This exaggeration is too like falsehood.

The journal of the voyage is unnecessarily minute. We derive neither amusement nor instruction from a log-book. This part contains an odd specimen of the writer's manners.

"September 8th. Fine morning; wind at W.S.W. A beautiful dolphin struck at an

artificial flying fish, hanging at our bowsprit; the hook breaking, he escaped;—continued playing round our bows for some time, and struck at several flying fish; but we could not again tempt him with the artificial bait.

*Mem.* To read this lesson once a month."

Mr. Priest landed at Woodburg, a small town, chiefly inhabited by quakers and other dissenters, of the most rigid kind, so very primitive in their appearance, that a barber cannot make a living among them.

His account of the manners and customs of the country is lively, and bears a resemblance to the accurate pictures of the Flemish artists.

"About eight or nine in the morning, they breakfast on tea and coffee, attended always with what they call *relishes*, such as salt fish, beef-steaks, sausages, broiled fowls, ham, bacon, &c. At two they dine on what is usual in England, with a variety of American dishes, such as bear, opossum,

raccoon, &c. At six or seven in the evening they have their supper, which is exactly the same as their breakfast, with the addition of what cold meat is left at dinner. I have often wondered how they acquired this method of living, which is by no means calculated for the climate: such stimulating food at breakfast and supper, naturally causing thirst, and there being no other beverage at these meals than tea or coffee, they are apt to drink too freely of them, particularly the female part of the family; which, during the excessive heats in summer, is relaxing and debilitating; and in winter, by opening the pores, exposes them to colds of the most dangerous kind.

"The manner of living I have been describing, is that of people in moderate circumstances; but this taste for *relishes* with coffee and tea, extends to all ranks of people in these states.

"Soon after my arrival at this city, I went, on a party of pleasure, to a sort of tea-garden and *tavern*,\* romantically situated on the bank of the Scuykill. At six in the evening we ordered coffee, which, I was informed, they were here famous for serving in *style*. I took a memorandum of what was on the table; viz. *coffee, cheese, sweet cakes, hung beef, sugar, pickled salmon, butter, crackers, ham, cream, and bread*. The ladies all declared, it was a most *charming relish*!"

"We supped," he says, "at Annapolis, in the American fashion, on fried squirrels and coffee!"

"Lancaster was originally a German settlement: the inhabitants were so desirous of perpetuating their language, that they established German schools for the education of the rising generation; but their descendants finding the inconvenience of being without a knowledge of English, now send their children first to the German, and afterwards to the English schools; by which means they acquire a tolerable idea of both languages. They still retain many characteristics of their ancestors; such as frugality, plainness in dress, &c. At our first concert, three clownish-looking fellows came into the room, and, after sitting a few minutes, (the weather being *warm*, not to say *hot*) very composedly took off their coats: they were in the usual summer dress of farmers' servants in this part of the country; that is to say, *without* either stockings or breeches, a loose pair of trousers being the only succedaneum. As we fixed our admission at a dollar each, (here seven shillings and sixpence,) we expected this circumstance would be sufficient to exclude *such* characters; but, on inquiry, I found (to my very great surprise!) our three *sans culottes* were

German gentlemen of considerable property in the neighbourhood!

"They manage these matters better at Hanover; (a settlement of Germans about forty miles hence.) One of the articles of their dancing assembly is in these words; 'No gentleman to enter the ball-room without *breeches*, or to be allowed to dance without his coat.'

The latter part of the volume contains extracts of greater length than value. We are not pleased to find a novel writer's story of an Indian in a traveller's journal. The following facts should be made as public as possible.

"For some time before I left Baltimore, our papers were full of a shocking transaction, which took place on board an Irish passenger ship, containing upwards of three hundred persons. It is said, that, owing to the cruel usage they received from the captain, such as being put on very scanty allowance of *water* and provision, a contagious disorder broke out on board, which carried off great numbers; and, to add to their distress, when they arrived in the Delaware, they were obliged to perform quarantine, which, for some days, was equally fatal.

"The disorder was finally got under by the physicians belonging to the health office. We had several of the survivors on board, who confirmed all I had heard: indeed their emaciated appearance was a sufficient testimony of what they had suffered. They assured me, the captain sold the ship's water by the pint; and informed me of a number of shocking circumstances, which I will not wound your feelings by relating.

"It is difficult to conceive how a multitude of witnesses can militate *against* a fact; but more so, how three hundred passengers could tamely submit to such cruelties from a bashaw of a captain.

"I am happy to inform you, the Philadelphia Hibernian society are determined to prosecute this *flesh butcher* for *murder*. As the manner of carrying on this *trade* in human flesh is not generally known in England, I send you a few particulars of what is here emphatically called a *white Guinea man*. There are vessels in the trade of Belfast, Londonderry, Amsterdam, Hamburg, &c. whose chief *cargoes*, on their return to America, are passengers; great numbers of whom, on their arrival, are *sold* for a term of years, to pay their passage; during their servitude, they are liable to be *resold*, at the death or caprice of their masters. Such advertisements as the following, are frequent:—

"To be disposed of, the indentures of a strong, healthy, *Irishwoman*, who has two

\* By the word *tavern*, in America, is meant an inn or public house of any description.



years to serve, and is fit for all kind of house work. Enquire of the printer."

"Stop the villain!

"Ran away this morning, an Irish servant, named Michael Day, by trade a tailor, about five feet eight inches high, fair complexion, has a down look when spoken to, light bushy hair, speaks much in the Irish dialect, &c. Whoever secures the above described in any gaol, shall receive thirty dollars reward, and all reasonable charges paid.

N. B. All masters of vessels are forbid harbouring or carrying off the said servant at their peril."

"The laws respecting the *redemptioners*\* are very severe; they were formed for the English convicts before the revolution. There are lately Hibernian and German societies, who do all in their power to mitigate the severity of these laws, and render their countrymen, during their servitude, as comfortable as possible. These societies are in all the large towns south of Connecticut. In New England they are not wanted, as the *trade* is there prohibited. The difficulty of hiring a tolerable servant, induces many to deal in this way. Our friend S—— lately bought an Irish girl for three years, and in a few days discovered he was likely to have a greater increase of his family than he bargained for; we had the laugh sadly against him on this occasion: I sincerely believe the Jew regrets his new purchase is not a few shades darker. If he could prove her a *woman of colour*, and produce a bill of sale, he would make a slave of the child as well as

the mother! The emigration from Ireland has been this year very great; I left a large vessel† full of passengers from thence, at Baltimore: I found three at Newcastle: and there is one in this city. The number of passengers cannot be averaged at less than 250 to each vessel, all of whom have arrived within the last six weeks!

"While the yellow fever was raging in this city, in the year 1793, when few vessels would venture nearer than fort Mifflin, a German captain in *this trade* arrived in the river, and hearing that such was the fatal nature of the infection, that a sufficient number of nurses could not be procured to attend the sick for any sum, conceived the philanthropic idea of supplying this deficiency from his *redemption passengers*! actuated by this humane motive, he sailed boldly up to the city, and advertised‡ his cargo for sale:—

"A few healthy servants, generally between seventeen and twenty-one years of age; their times will be disposed of, by applying on board the brig."

"Generous soul! thus nobly to sacrifice his own countrymen, *pro bono publico*. I never heard this honest German was properly rewarded; but virtue is its own reward, and there is no doubt but the consciousness of having performed such an action is quite sufficient."

Mr. Priest designed to have gone among the Indians, but "never was able to raise the necessary supplies." We like his book so well, that we regret his disappointment.

ART. XX. *A Voyage up the Mediterranean in his Majesty's Ship the Swiftsure, &c.*  
By the Rev. COOPER WILLIAMS, A. M. 4to. pp. 309, and 42 plates.

THE author of this narrative was chaplain on board the *Swiftsure*, a seventy-four gun ship, during the interesting period from the 25th of May 1798, to the beginning of September 1800. Earl St. Vincent, during his blockade of Cadiz, hearing of the maritime preparations in the port of Toulon, under the direction of Bonaparte, detached a considerable part of his fleet, with chosen officers, commanded by rear admiral Nelson and commodore Troubridge, in order to intercept and frustrate the designs of the French general. The entrance of the squadron into the Mediterranean, is the point from which Mr. C. Williams begins his jour-

nal; and as, for the most part, he judiciously restricts his narration to those facts that come under his own notice, so the interest excited in the mind of the reader, varies in proportion to the opportunities of personal observation which were presented to the author.

Without entering into minute particulars, we shall give a slight sketch of the information contained in the volume before us, that the public may be enabled to draw their own conclusions with regard to its merit.

The detachments of the British squadron having joined off Toulon, and intelligence being received of the departure of the French fleet, admiral Nelson di-

\* The name given to these persons.

† These vessels frequently belong to Philadelphia, but land their passengers here, as there is a direct road to the back parts of Pennsylvania.

‡ I have preserved this advertisement, and several others equally curious.

rected his course towards Naples: here from some vague information of the motions of the enemy, he stood to the southward in hopes of falling in with them, and in order to lose no time, dashed, with characteristic boldness, through the straits of Messina, exhibiting to the crowded shores, the unexampled spectacle of a squadron of ships of the line passing through the fabled dangers of this celebrated channel. In pursuit of the French, concerning whom fresh information was now obtained, the British fleet steered for Alexandria; and in the passage to this place, the hostile armaments crossed each other's track, during a hazy night, unconscious of their relative situations. Admiral Nelson reached Alexandria the first, and, disappointed in his object, quitted the Egyptian coast. He then bore to the north till within sight of the shore of Asia Minor, and afterwards stood for Syracuse, where he arrived on the 19th of July, without having attained the object of his search, or having received any certain intelligence for the regulation of his future proceedings. The supplies of water and provision being compleated, the fleet again set sail on the 24th of July, to the southward, the admiral still suspecting Egypt to be the final destination of the French. Passing by the Morea in his way thither, and receiving here fresh confirmation of his suspicions, he was at length gratified on the morning of the 1st of August, with the sight of the towers of Alexandria and the harbour, now no longer unpeopled and solitary, but crowded with vessels, and the tri-coloured flag displayed from the walls. The French men of war were soon after discovered, arranged in a line of battle, at anchor in the bay of Aboukir; and on the very same evening, at half past six, an engagement commenced, which, in its immediate and remote consequences, was perhaps the most important of any of those splendid actions in which, during the late war, the British forces were concerned.

Although our readers have, we doubt not, dwelt with fond enthusiasm, and perused over and over again the official documents of this memorable event, yet we cannot resist the inducement of selecting a few of the most striking particulars as a specimen of the spirit and accuracy with which Mr. W. has recorded

those heroic deeds that he was a witness to.

The signal being made to bear down and engage,

"The sure presage of victory sat on the brow of every Briton, and a general ardour pervaded all ranks. The commanders, with that courage which distinguishes men inured to danger, saw the hazard of the contest, and prepared to meet it: their ships were trained to every exercise of arms; all means of preservation from fire, leaks, and other casualties, were arranged in order; a bower cable was got out of the after part of each ship and bent forwards, that she might anchor by the stern; the dreadful engines of destruction were ready primed and double loaded; the men at their quarters waiting, in silent expectation, the orders of their superiors; the officers respectfully looking towards their captains, and waiting with firmness the awful moment. The enemy's line presented a most formidable appearance: it was anchored in close order, and apparently near the shore; flanked with gun boats, mortar vessels, and four large frigates; with a battery of guns and mortars, on an island near which we must pass. This posture gave the most decided advantage to the French, whose well known perfection and skill in the use of artillery, has so often secured to them splendid victories on shore: to that they were now to look for success; for each ship being at anchor, became a fixed battery."

The dreadful catastrophe of the Orient, and the characteristic humanity of our gallant countrymen, are thus described:

"At three minutes past nine o'clock a fire was observed to have broken out in the cabin of L'Orient, to that point Captain Hallowell ordered as many guns as could be spared from firing on the Franklin to be directed; and, at the same time, that Captain Allen of marines, should throw in the whole fire of his musketry into the enemy's quarter, while the Alexander on the other side was keeping up an incessant shower of shot to the same point. The conflagration now began to rage with dreadful fury: still the French admiral sustained the honour of his flag with heroic firmness; but at length a period was put to his exertions by a cannon ball, which cut him asunder: he had before received three desperate wounds, one on the head, two in his body, but could not be prevailed on to quit his station on the arm-chest. His captain, Casa Bianca, fell by his side. Several of the officers and men, seeing the impracticability of extinguishing the fire, which had now extended itself along the upper decks, and was flaming up the masts, jumped overboard; some supporting themselves on spars and pieces of wreck, others

swimming with all their might to escape the dreaded catastrophe. Shot flying in all directions, dashed many of them to pieces; others were picked up by the boats of the fleet, or dragged into the lower ports, of the nearest ships: the British sailors humanely stretched forth their hands to save a fallen enemy, though the battle at that moment raged with uncontrolled fury. The *Swiftsure*, that was anchored within half pistol-shot of the larboard bow of *L'Orient*, saved the lives of the commissary, first lieutenant, and ten men, who were drawn out of the water into the lower deck ports during the hottest part of the action. The situation of the *Alexander* and *Swiftsure* was perilous in the extreme. The expected explosion of such a ship as *L'Orient*, was to be dreaded as involving all around in certain destruction. Captain Hallowell, however, determined not to move from his devoted station, though repeatedly urged to do so. He perceived the advantage he possessed of being to windward of the burning ship. Captain Ball was not so fortunate; he twice had the mortification to perceive that the fire of the enemy had communicated to his own ship. He was obliged therefore to change his birth, and move a little further off.

"Admiral Nelson, who had received a very severe wound on his head, and was obliged to be carried off the deck, was informed by Captain Berry of the situation of the enemy. Forgetting his own sufferings, he hastened on deck, impelled by the purest humanity, and gave directions that every exertion should be made to save as many lives as possible. All the boats of the *Vanguard*, and of the nearest ships that could swim, were sent on this service, and above seventy Frenchmen were saved by the exertion of those so lately employed in their destruction. The van of our fleet having finished for the present their part in the glorious struggle, had now a fine view of the two lines illumined by the flames of the ill-fated foe; the colours of the contending powers being plainly distinguished. The moon, which had risen, opposing her cold light to the warm glow of the fire beneath, added to the grand and solemn picture. The flames had by this time made such progress, that an explosion was instantly expected; yet the enemy on the lower deck, either insensible of the danger that surrounded them, or impelled by the last paroxysms of despair and vengeance, continued to fire upon us.

"At thirty-seven minutes past nine the fatal explosion happened. The fire communicated to the magazine, and *L'Orient* blew up with a crashing sound that deafened all around her. The tremulous motion, felt to the very bottom of each ship, was like that of an earthquake; the fragments were driven such a vast height into the air, that some moments elapsed before they could descend, and then the greatest apprehension was

formed from the volumes of burning matter which threatened to fall on the decks and rigging of the surrounding ships.

"Fortunately, however, no material damage occurred. A port-fire fell into the main-royal of the *Alexander*, and she once more was in danger of sharing the same fate as the enemy, but by the skill and exertions of Captain Ball it was soon extinguished. Two large pieces of the wreck dropped into the main and foretops of the *Swiftsure*, but happily the men were withdrawn from those places.

"An awful silence reigned for several minutes, as if the contending squadrons, struck with horror at the dreadful event, which in an instant had hurled so many brave men into the air, had forgotten their hostile rage in pity for the sufferers. But short was the pause of death."

The account of the battle of Aboukir is the prominent feature in Mr. Williams's book, and its early occurrence is from the deep interest thus excited detrimental to the relation of the succeeding events. The *Swiftsure* remained on the coast of Egypt some time longer, but the mind of the reader is not in a state to be much amused by the petty detail of gun-boat warfare, and Turkish cowardice and stupidity. A cruise on the coast of Syria relieves a little the monotonous succession of common maritime occurrences, and the reader attends Mr. W. with satisfaction in his excursions to Mount Carmel and Acre. Rhodes presents little worth notice, and the scenery about Syracuse and Palermo has already been described at full length by preceding travellers. The transactions at Naples, the disgraceful violation of public faith, the wanton revels of the modern Anthony, are veiled in cautious obscurity.

The twelfth chapter is chiefly occupied with a rapid tour from Leghorn to Venice, and back again; here, however, we find little new, and still less interesting. The next and last chapter treats of the author's voyage to Minorca, from Minorca to Lisbon, hence to Gibraltar, and finally to England.

The engravings annexed to the work, forty-two in number, from sketches by Mr. Williams, are coarse, but we believe faithful representations of the objects delineated. The style is easy, often spirited; and the frequent quotations though trite, are sufficiently appropriate. The intrinsic value of the book is, perhaps, inadequate to its size and price; and the author would have

acquired more fame, though less profit, if the volume and the account of the battle of the Nile had terminated together.

ART. XXI. *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt, in company with several Divisions of the French Army, during the Campaigns of General BONAPARTE in that Country; and published under his immediate Patronage, by VIVANT DENON. Translated by ARTHUR AIKIN.* 2 vols. 4to. pp. 340. 3 vols. 8vo. pp. 1070, 2 Maps, and 58 Plates to each.

ART. XXII. *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt during the Campaigns of General BONAPARTE, by VIVANT DENON. Translated from the French; to which is prefixed, an Historical Account of the Invasion of Egypt by the French.* By E. A. KENDAL, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. about 650, 2 Maps, and 7 Plates.

THE labours of Norden, of Pococke, of Savary, Bruce, and Volney, not to mention other travellers into Egypt, both earlier and later than these, have perhaps effected all that could be done by single unprotected individuals in the survey of the natural history, the antiquities, the domestic and political state of society, in a country which possesses such numerous claims on the notice of civilized Europe. When the French army, led by its Corsican general, disembarked at Alexandria, and commenced its unprovoked career of rapine and slaughter, it was generally expected, as some feeble compensation for the outrage, that a compleat investigation would take place of all the unknown, or but imperfectly explored remains of the ancient civilization of this interesting valley. Some of the highest names in France for science and literature were enrolled among the regenerators of the new colony; an immense assemblage was collected of the implements of science, as well as of the engines of war. The National Institute of Cairo was organised, and the publication of its transactions was eagerly looked for as a treasure of authentic and most important documents. But the secret recesses of the Pharaohs were not destined to be explored and pillaged by the plunderers of Italy, while the Sphinx and Memnonium, safe in their vastness, were under no danger of being dragged in triumph to the hall of the Laocoon. The destruction of their fleet at Aboukir deprived the French of all hope of effectual succour from Europe: the massacre perpetrated by them at the storming of Alexandria was but little likely to conciliate the esteem of the inhabitants; and the impudent avowal by their chief of his conversion to Mahometanism was too gross to deceive even Copts and Mamelukes. The extreme licentious-

ness and wanton cruelty which were the constant disgraceful attendants on the French arms, raised up an enemy to them in every Egyptian who had a hut to defend, and a wife or daughter to avenge. The Arabs, like vultures, hovered round their camps, and sanctified the profession of robbery by exercising it against the faithless invader, the common foe. The Mamelukes, aided by martial enthusiasts from Mecca, sustained their ancient reputation, yielding slowly, after many bloody combats, to the ascendancy of European discipline and French artillery. In the mean time, the commander in chief, leaving the compleat subjection of Egypt to be accomplished by his lieutenants, turned his victorious steps towards Syria. Every obstacle is overcome till he arrives before the walls of Acre; but here, foiled and repulsed from his almost achieved conquest, by the presence of a single British ship of war, he is obliged to retrace his path through the desert, and the Ottoman empire escapes being subverted from its foundations. The return of Bonaparte and some of his ablest officers to France, the assassination of Kleber his successor, the advancement of the incapable Menou to the supreme command, and the consequent distrust and dissensions of the army, were so many causes which depressed the spirits, and detracted from the resources of the French. The British armaments debarked at Aboukir and Suez, strong in their own courage, and in the general hatred entertained by the natives of their new masters; after a few victorious conflicts, Cairo and Alexandria were surrendered, and the French authority in Egypt came to a termination.

The expedition, however, of the French to the banks of the Nile differed materially from a mere military adven-

ture: the artists, the men of letters and of science, by whom it was accompanied, prove that the acquisition of knowledge, and a taste for scientific research, entered into the plan of the contrivers. Such, however, were the untoward circumstances, which we have already just touched upon, that as yet the only literary works that so vast an apparatus has produced, are the transactions of the Institute of Cairo, and the travels of Denon. The former work is upon the whole very unworthy of the European fame of the associated contributors; but the latter, partly on account of its intrinsic merit, and in part from the eager curiosity of the public, has, in the course of the last year, been twice translated into the English language. We shall therefore indulge ourselves in an ample analysis.

The Journal of Denon commences with his embarkation at Toulon, May 14, 1798, on board the *Junon*, one of the frigates composing the advanced guard of the armament. Calms, contrary winds, and delays off Corsica, Sardinia, and Sicily, for the junction of the transports from Genoa, Ajaccio, and Civita Vecchia, impeded their progress, so that the 9th of June had already elapsed by the time that the fleet appeared off Malta. On the 10th a landing was effected under the command of Desaix, and a sortie from the city was repulsed; the little detached island of Gozo having in the mean time surrendered to General Regnier. The 11th was spent in negotiation, and on the 12th at noon the impregnable citadel, and all the other fortresses, were surrendered to the French without the smallest opposition. The manners of the Maltese are notoriously dissolute. A convenient and much frequented port, a burning climate, a numerous nobility devoted to arms, and condemned to celibacy, are causes which, by their union, must contribute most powerfully to induce a general licentiousness; yet the conduct of the French troops appeared even to these so disorderly, that "the more respectable inhabitants kept themselves within doors; while our soldiers, heated by wine and the climate, inspired so much terror among the trades-people and lower classes, that they shut their shops, and hid their females. This fine city, where we saw none but ourselves, appeared dull to us."

On the 18th, all the troops, except the new French garrison, were re-embarked, and the fleet steered for Alexandria. The night of the 25th was distinguished by one of those instances of good fortune which Bonaparte and his friends are fond of attaching to his person.

"The gale had been so strong during the night, that the whole of the convoy was dispersed. We spent all the morning in collecting the transports, and in shortening sail for their coming up. During this manœuvre, chance discovered to us, through a thick fog, the English fleet, which was six leagues distant from us, steering to the west, and proceeding in quest of us towards the northern coast."

On the 29th at noon, the coast of Egypt was visible to the advanced squadron, "stretching like a white ribbon over the blue horizon of the sea;" a boat was sent to Alexandria, and returned with the alarming intelligence, that an English squadron, in search of the French fleet, had quitted the place only the evening before. The utmost expedition being thus rendered necessary, lest by the prompt return of the enemy the whole plan should be rendered abortive, the first landing was made in a gale of wind during the night of the 1st July, at great hazard, and with considerable loss; and in the course of the succeeding day Alexandria was taken by storm.

The account of Alexandria furnishes the reader with nothing new, except a few architectural details, which have either escaped former travellers, or have been esteemed by them unworthy of record. As soon as the troops had disembarked, parties were sent to occupy Rosetta, and the important stations on the coast, while the main body, under the commander in chief, commenced its march by the canal of Alexandria for Cairo. The forces had no sooner advanced into the Desert, than hostilities began by

"The Arabs attacking the advance-guard, and harassing the main body, insomuch, that death was the portion of the straggler. Desaix was on the point of being made prisoner, in consequence of his having remained fifty paces in the rear of the column. Le Mireur, an officer of distinguished reputation, and who, in consequence of a momentary absence, had neglected to comply with the request made to him to come up, was assassinated within a hundred paces of the



advance-guard. Adjutant-general Galois was killed in carrying an order to the commander in chief; and Adjutant Delanau made prisoner at a very small distance from the army, in crossing a ditch. A price being demanded for his ransom, the Arabs disputed the booty among themselves, and, to terminate the dispute, blew out the brains of this interesting young man."

The French, for the first time, got sight of the Mamelukes near Demenhur, but as yet experienced no molestation from them. They reached the banks of the Nile at Rhamanie, and proceeded up the river without any serious opposition, till their arrival at Embabey, in the neighbourhood of Cairo. Here the Mamelukes attempted to dispute their further progress, and an action took place, which terminated to the advantage of the invaders: the Mameluke cavalry had the temerity to await in their entrenched camp the onset of European infantry, and in consequence received a total defeat, losing their artillery, and being driven in disorder across the river.

While these things were transacting, Denon accompanied General Menou to Rosetta, whence he made excursions with the several detachments that were sent to reduce the natives, and to secure the navigation of that branch of the Nile. An entertainment given to one of the parties that he accompanied is thus described.

"A house of public entertainment, which had almost invariably belonged to the Mameluke, heretofore the lord and master of the village, was furnished in a moment, according to the fashion of the country, with mats, carpets, and cushions. A number of attendants, in the first place, brought in perfumed water, pipes, and coffee. Half an hour afterwards a carpet was spread, and on the outer part three or four different kinds of bread and cakes were laid in heaps, the centre being covered with small dishes of fruits, sweetmeats, creams, &c. the greater part of them pretty good, and very highly perfumed. This was considered but as a slight repast, which was over in a few minutes. In the course, however, of two hours, the same carpet was covered afresh with large loaves, immense dishes of rice, either boiled in milk, or in a rich gravy soup; halves of sheep badly roasted, large quarters of veal, boiled heads of different animals, and fifty or sixty other dishes, all crowded together, consisting of highly seasoned ragouts, vegetables, jellies, sweetmeats, and honey in the comb. There were neither chairs, plates, spoons,

forks, drinking-glasses, nor napkins: each of the guests, squatted on the ground, took up the rice in his fingers, tore the meat in pieces with his nails, dipped the bread in the ragouts, and wiped his hands and lips with a slice of bread. The water was served in a pot; and he who did the honours of the table took the first draught. In the same way, he was the first to taste the different dishes, as well to prevent his guests from harbouring any suspicions of him, as to show them how strong an interest he took in their safety, and how high a value he set on their persons. The napkins were not brought until after dinner, when each of the guests washed his hands. He was then sprinkled over with rose-water; and the pipes and coffee produced.

"When our repast was ended, our places were occupied by the natives of the second class, who were very soon succeeded by others. From a motive of religion a poor beggar was admitted: next came the attendants; and, lastly, all those who chose to partake, until nothing was left. If these repasts cannot boast the convenience of ours, and the elegance by which the appetite is whetted, it is impossible not to be struck by the abundance, by the frank hospitality they display, and by the sobriety of the guests, who, notwithstanding there are so many dishes, do not remain more than ten minutes at the table."

The naval battle of Aboukir now took place, and in its immediate and more remote consequences was productive of incalculable injury to the French. By cutting off all communication between the Egyptian colony and Europe much discontent was excited in the army, especially among those who, tempted by the exaggerations of Savary, had accompanied the expedition with hopes of speedy enrichment, or of stimulating their pallid appetites by the novel forms of foreign beauty, and the varied excitements of oriental lasciviousness. The English armament on the coast was also enabled to hold a communication with the Arabs, and by example and encouragement to sustain the spirits and resources of the natives in an active opposition to the French domination.

A short time after the capture of Cairo, an order from the commander in chief arrived at Rosetta, requiring such of the members of the Institute as had remained there to proceed to the capital; accordingly M. Denon, with his comrades, embarked on the Nile for Cairo. Immediately on his arrival thither he joined the suite of Bonaparte in an excursion to the Pyramids of Gizeh. The

general effect of the approach to the Pyramids is thus described :

“ As soon as we quitted our boats we found ourselves in the sands, and climbed the level on which these monuments rest. In approaching these stupendous buildings, their sloping and angular forms disguise their real height, and lessen it to the eye; and besides, as every thing regular is only great or small by comparison, and as these masses of stone eclipse in magnitude every surrounding object, and yet are much inferior to a mountain (the only thing with which our imagination can compare them) one is surprised to find the first impression given by viewing them at a distance, so much diminished on a nearer approach. However, on attempting to measure any one of these gigantic works of art by some known scale, it resumes its immensity to the mind; for as I approached to the opening, a hundred persons who were standing under it appeared so small, that I could hardly take them for men. It would be a good method for the artist to give an idea of the dimension of these edifices, by representing on the same ground-plan as the building some procession or religious ceremony analogous to the ancient customs. As it is, these monuments standing alone, and without any living scale of comparison, excepting a few detached figures in front, lose both the effect of their grand proportions, and the general impression which they would otherwise make.”

The recesses of the great pyramid, the only one into which an entrance has hitherto been discovered, were thoroughly explored, but without finding any passages, hieroglyphics, or tombs, which have not been already described. On his return to Cairo, M. Denon was employed nearly a month, at the request of the Institute, in making drawings of all the remains of antiquity, and other interesting objects in the vicinity of this city. While he was thus engaged, a serious insurrection against the French authority took place; four persons belonging to the commission of arts were among the number of the slain, and for some hours a general massacre was apprehended. At length, after the destruction of a considerable part of the city, and a prodigious slaughter of the inhabitants, the tricoloured flag waved again in impious triumph over the smoking ruins.

The caravan from Mount Sinai now arrived, with charcoal, gum, and almonds, and M. Denon wished to accompany it on its return as far as the borders of Arabia; being, however,

dissuaded from this expedition by the chief of the caravan, he obtained leave to go with a reinforcement that was just about to set off for the army of Desaix, to whom the conquest of the Thebais and Upper Egypt was committed. Here commences the new and most interesting part of this work, which henceforth, till the last chapter, is devoted to the military details of the campaign in Upper Egypt, and to a description of the stupendous architectural remains, which are profusely distributed over the whole of this part of the valley of the Nile.

M. Denon proceeded by water as far as Saoyeh. The chief objects worthy of notice, that are visible from the banks of the river, are the numerous pyramids of Saccarah and Meidum, which, from their various stages of decay, afford an opportunity of examining the principles upon which these enormous masses of masonry were erected. At Saoyeh our traveller joined the army, and commenced his campaign by accompanying the foraging parties, and those which were dispatched to collect the tribute from the adjacent villages. He was soon, however, engaged in more serious service. Murad Bey, the intrepid leader of the Mamelukes, having received some Arabian reinforcements, determined again to try the fortune of a battle: Desaix, with the hope of terminating the war by a single action, was equally eager for an encounter. The hostile armies met at Sedinan, and after a most sanguinary combat, in which the French narrowly escaped destruction, the Mamelukes were compelled to retire from the field, with the loss of their artillery.

“ At the first dawn of day we formed in a hollow square battalion, with two platoons on our flanks. Soon after we saw Murad Bey at the head of his formidable Mamelukes, and eight or ten thousand Arabs advancing to us, covering a league of the plain. A valley separated the two armies, which we had to cross to reach our enemies. We were hardly got to this unfavourable position, when the enemy surround us on all sides, and charge us with an intrepidity approaching to fury: our close files render their numbers useless; our musketry keep up a steady fire, and repel their first attack; they halt, fall back, as if retiring from the field, and suddenly fall upon one of our platoons and overwhelm it: all who are not killed immediately throw themselves on the ground, and this movement uncovers the enemy to our grand square; then we take advantage of it,

and pour in our fire, which again makes them halt and fall back. All that remain of the platoon enter the ranks, and we collect the wounded. We are again attacked in mass, not with the cries of victory, but of rage; the courage is equal on both sides, they are animated by hope, we by indignation: our musket-barrels are cut with their sabres, their horses fall against our files, which receive the shock unshaken; the horses are startled at our bayonets; and their riders turn their heads, and back them upon us to open our ranks by their kicks: our people, who knew that their safety consisted in remaining united, press on without disorder, and attack without breaking their ranks; carnage is on all sides, but each party fight without mixing with the other. At last the fruitless attempts of the Mamelukes urge them to a madness of rage, they throw at us their arms, which otherwise could not reach us; and, as if this were to be their last battle, they shower upon us their guns, pistols, hatchets, and the ground is strewn with arms of all kinds. Those who are dismounted drag themselves under our bayonets, and cut at our soldiers' legs with their sabres; the dying man summons his last effort to throttle his adversary. One of our men lying on the ground, was seizing an expiring Mameluke, and strangling him, an officer said to him, "How can you, in your condition, do such an act?" "You speak much at your ease," the man replied, "you who are unhurt; but I, who have not long to live, must have some enjoyment while I may."

"The enemy had now suspended their attack; they had killed many of our men; and though they retired, they had not fled; and our position was not at all amended. Directly after their retreat had left us uncovered, they opened upon us a battery of eight guns, which they had before masked, and which, at every discharge, brought down six or eight of our men. We had now a moment of consternation and dismay, and the number of our wounded every instant increased. To sound a retreat would be to revive the courage of the enemy, and to expose ourselves to every kind of calamity; to remain where we were would be to increase our disaster fruitlessly, and to risk the lives of us all; but in marching we must abandon our wounded, and give them up to certain destruction—a most distressing circumstance in all wars, and especially in the savage contest in which we were now engaged. What order was to be given? Desaix, in dreadful perplexity, stood awhile motionless; but the common interest, and the voice of imperious necessity, drowned the cries of the wounded; the word was given, and we marched on. We had no choice between complete victory, or entire destruction; and this extremity was so sensibly felt by all, that the whole army became, in courage and unani-

mity, as a single individual. Our light artillery, commanded by the impetuous Tournerie, perform prodigies of celerity and address; and whilst in its hasty course it is dismounting the Mameluke cannon, our grenadiers come up, the battery is abandoned; and this army of cavalry, ten times our number, immediately stand amazed, check their course, fall back, gallop off, and disappear like a vapour, leaving us without an enemy.

"Never was there a more terrible battle, a more splendid victory, and a more unexpected success. I still think of it as a frightful dream, which has only left in the mind a vague impression of terror."

Murad Bey, having found, by repeated experience, that his cavalry was unequal to a close contest with European infantry and artillery, now confined himself to that kind of warfare for which his troops were peculiarly qualified. Accordingly he attended at the distance of a league or two the motions of the French army, always prepared to take advantage of any favourable circumstance, cutting off their stragglers, exciting the country to insurrection, and wasting the spirits and strength of his opponents by harassing alarms, and fatiguing marches.

To repair his losses in the battle of Sedinan, and to enable him, if possible, to drive Murad Bey, with his remaining forces, out of Egypt, large reinforcements were sent to Desaix from Cairo. Having thus acquired a decided superiority, the General advanced up the valley of the Nile, notwithstanding the utmost endeavours of the Mamelukes to prevent him. M. Denon, accompanying the army in all their painful marches, and exposed to the various privations and inconveniences of a military life, now began to be rewarded with the sight of the architectural antiquities which for so many centuries have illustrated the territory of Egypt. The gigantic portico of Hermopolis was the first that offered itself to his notice, and prepared him for the still higher gratification which he soon after experienced at Tentyra.

"Nothing is more simple and better put together than the few lines which compose this architecture. The Egyptians, borrowing nothing from the style of other nations, have here added no foreign ornament, no superfluity of materials: order and simplicity are the principles which they have followed, and they have carried them to subli-

imity. At this point they have stopped, and have attached so much importance to preserving the unity of design, that though they have loaded the walls of these edifices with bas-reliefs, inscriptions, and historical and scientific representations, none of these rich additions intersects a single line of the general plan, all of which are religiously preserved unbroken: the sumptuous, and rich decorations which appear to the eye when close to the building, all vanish at a short distance, and leave full to view the grand elements of architectural composition, which are dictated by sound reason. It never rains in this climate; all that is wanted therefore is a covering of plat-bands to give shade, but beyond this, neither roof nor pediment are added; the plain-slope is the principle of solidity; they have therefore adopted this form for every main supporter, doubtless with the idea that stability is the first impression that architecture should give, and is an essential constituent of this art. With these people, the idea of the immortality of the Deity is presented by the eternity of his temple; these ornaments, which are always rational, always consistent, always significant, demonstrate a steadiness of principle, a taste founded upon truth, and a deep train of reasoning; and if we even had not a full conviction of the eminent height to which they had attained in the abstract sciences, their architecture alone, in the state in which we now find it, would give the observer of the present day a high opinion of the antiquity of this nation, of its cultivation, and the impressive gravity of its character.—

“ I could not expect to find any thing in Egypt more complete, more perfect, than Tentyra; I was confused by the multiplicity of objects, astonished by their novelty, and tormented by the fear of never again visiting them. On casting my eyes on the ceilings I had perceived zodiacs, planetary systems, and celestial planispheres, represented in a tasteful arrangement; the walls I had observed to be covered with groups of pictures exhibiting the religious rites of this people, their labours in agriculture and the arts, and their moral precepts; I saw that the Supreme Being, the first cause, was every where depicted by the emblems of his attributes; every thing was equally important for my pencil, and I had but a few hours to examine, to reflect on, and to copy what it had been the labour of ages to conceive, to put together, and to decorate. Our national impatience was dismayed with the constancy of application exhibited by the people who had executed these monuments; throughout was shewn equal care, and equal assiduity, which would make one believe that these edifices were not the works of their kings, but that they were constructed at the expence of the nation, under the direction of colleges of priests, and by artists whose labours were circumscribed by inva-

riable rules. A series of years might, indeed, have brought the arts to a higher degree of perfection in some particulars; but each temple is so equally finished in all its parts, that they appear all to have been executed by the same hand; no one portion is better or worse than any other; there appears neither negligence nor the bold strokes of a more exalted genius, uniformity and harmony prevail throughout. The art of sculpture, here made subservient and attached to that of architecture, appears to have been circumscribed in principle, in method, and in style of execution; a single figure expresses nothing, when taken out of its exact station in the group in which it is a part; the sculptor had his design chalked out for him, and could not introduce any deviation which might alter the true meaning that it was intended to convey: it was with these figures as with the cards that we use for our games, the imperfection of design is overlooked, that no obstacle may arise in instantly distinguishing the value of each. The perfection given by the Egyptians to the representations of their animals, proves that they were not without an idea of that bold style which expresses much character in a few lines, and their execution tended to the grave, and to ideal perfection, as we have already remarked in the instance of the sphinx.

“ As to the character of the human figure, as they borrowed nothing from other nations, they could only copy from their own, which is rather delicate than fine. The female forms, however, resemble the figure of beautiful women of the present day, round and voluptuous, a small nose, the eyes long, half shut, and turned up at the outer angle, like those of all persons whose sight is habitually fatigued by the burning heat of the sun, or the dazzling white of snow; the cheeks round and rather thick, the lips pouting, the mouth large, but cheerful and smiling; in short, the African character, of which the negro is the exaggerated picture, though perhaps the original type.

“ The hieroglyphics, which are executed in three different manners, are also of three species, and may take their date from as many distinct periods. From the examination of the different edifices which have fallen under my eye, I imagine that the most ancient of these characters are only simple outlines cut in without relief, and very deep; the next in age, and which produce the least effect, are simply in a very shallow relief; and the third, which seem to belong to a more improved age, and are executed at Tentyra more perfectly than in any other part of Egypt, are in relief below the level of the outline. By the side of the figures which compose these tabular pieces of sculpture, there are small hieroglyphics, which appear to be only the explanation of the subjects at large, and in which the forms are

much simplified, so as to give a more rapid mode of inscription, or a kind of *short band*, if we may apply the term to sculpture.

"A fourth kind of hieroglyphics appears to be devoted simply to ornament: we have improperly termed it, I know not why, the *arabesque*. It was adopted by the Greeks, and in the age of Augustus was introduced among the Romans; and in the fifteenth century, during the restoration of the arts, it was transmitted by them to us as a fantastic decoration, the peculiar taste of which formed all its merit. Among the Egyptians, who employed these ornaments with equal taste, every object had a meaning or a moral, and at the same time formed the decoration of the friezes, the cornices, and the surbasements of their architecture.

"I have discovered at Tentyra the representations of the peristyles of temples in caryatides, which are executed in painting at the baths of Titus, and have been copied by Raphael, and which we constantly see in our rooms, without suspecting that the Egyptians have given us the first models of them."

From Tentyra the army advanced along the bank of the river to the ruins of Thebes, celebrated by Homer for its hundred gates, the ancient metropolis of Egypt, whose vast circuit, as appears from its present remains, extended almost entirely across the valley of the Nile. The rapidity of the march hindered our traveller for the present from doing more than noticing the general effect, and ascertaining the relative position of these magnificent monuments. The enthusiasm of the army at the unexpected view of this ancient city in its whole extent is spiritedly described. "The whole army suddenly, and with one accord, stood in amazement at the sight of its scattered ruins, and clapped their hands with delight, as if the end and object of their glorious toils, and the complete conquest of Egypt, were accomplished and secured, by taking possession of the splendid remains of this ancient metropolis."

The intention of Desaix being to occupy the passes and strong posts previous to the commencement of active measures against the Mamelukes, and these not choosing to risk another battle, the French arrived without any material opposition at Syene, the southern frontier town of Egypt. Here General Beliard, with a detachment, established his quarters, and employed himself in fortifying the post, while Desaix at the head of the cavalry began a pursuit of

the Mamelukes, in hope of forcing them to a battle. Denon remaining with General Beliard had an opportunity of examining at leisure the temples and other remarkable objects in the vicinity. The islands of Elephantina and Philœ, the granite quarries near Syene, and the sculptured rocks by the river side, furnish our traveller with many interesting objects. After spending about twenty days at this extremity of Egypt, M. Denon embarked, and proceeded with some troops down the river. The flotilla anchored opposite to the ancient quarries of Silsilis, which are thus described:

"We anchored opposite the large quarries of free-stone cut in the mountains, which form the banks of the Nile here on either side. This spot is called Gebel Silsilis, and is situated between Etsu and Ombos. The stone of these quarries being of an equal grain and uniform texture throughout, blocks may be cut out of them as large as can be desired; and it is doubtless to the beauty and unalterability of this material, that we owe the vast size and fine preservation of the monuments which are our admiration at the present time, so many centuries after the date of their construction. From the immense excavations, and the quantity of fragments which may still be seen in these quarries, we may suppose that they were worked for some thousands of years; and they alone might have supplied the materials employed for the greater part of the monuments of Egypt. The distance would, in fact, prove no obstacle to the working of these quarries, since the Nile, during its inundation, would constantly come and float the boats which were loaded during the dry season, and carry them to the place of their destination.

"The mania of erecting monuments among the Egyptians, shews itself on every side in these quarries; which, after having furnished materials for the erection of temples, were themselves consecrated by monuments, and decorated with religious edifices. On the shore of the Nile may be seen porticoes with columns, entablatures, and cornices, covered with hieroglyphics, all cut out of the solid rock; and likewise a large number of tombs, also hollowed out of the mountain. These tombs are still very curious, though they are disfigured with trenches and rubbish.

"In several of these tombs small private chambers are found, many of which contain large scaled figures; these chambers are adorned with hieroglyphics traced on the rock, and terminated with coloured stucco, representing constantly offerings of bread, fruits, liquors, fowls, &c. The ceilings, also of stucco, are ornamented with painted scrolls in an exquisite taste; the floor is in-



laid with a number of tombs of the same dimensions and form as are given to the cases of mummies, and equal in number to the sculptured figures: those that represent men have small square beards, with a head-dress hanging behind over the shoulders; the women have the same dresses, but falling down in front over their naked necks. These latter are commonly represented with one arm passing within the arm of the figure beside them, and the other holding a lotus flower, a plant of Acheron, the emblem of death. The tombs that contain but a single figure are probably those of men who have died in celibacy; where three are contained, they represent perhaps a husband who had two wives, either at one time or successively. The access to these tombs being always made by violence, I could not observe how they were intended to open and shut; all that I could distinguish in the fragments that remained was, that the doors were all decorated with jambs covered with hieroglyphics, and surmounted with a coping, which forms a cornice, and an entablature on which a winged globe is always sculptured."

At Esneh M. Denon disembarked, and joined a party that was proceeding, under the command of General Beliard, against the Mamelukes. A second time he passed, in full march and without stopping, through the ruins of Thebes. The Mamelukes, reinforced by a large body of infantry from Mecca, had again appeared on the eastern bank of the Nile: they had intercepted and taken a convoy of military stores, had put to the sword the troops employed in guarding it, and had taken post near Copthos. Hither General Beliard proceeded, and a long, obstinate, and bloody series of engagements for three days and two nights took place, the general result of which was, that the French, at the expence of one-seventh of their numbers, succeeded in recovering their captured artillery, while the Mamelukes, and the remainder of the Meccan infantry, effected an undisturbed retreat. Reinforcements from Desaix arriving soon after, active operations were resumed, and the enemy was driven into the desert. From this time the war was wholly confined to skirmishes, marches and countermarches, till at length (some months after Denon had quitted Egypt) the French were glad to come to a compromise with the brave Murad Bey, and yield to him, as the price of peace, a large part of Upper Egypt.

M. Denon, by his writings, appears

to be a man of great natural humanity: hence, notwithstanding his allowable partiality for his countrymen, and his extreme care at all times to invest his Corsican hero with a placability and tender heartedness, that is perpetually refuted by facts, he has occasionally found it impossible to restrain his emotions of honourable resentment at the numerous atrocities committed by the robbers whom it was his fate to accompany. Although he conceals from us, that at the capture of Alexandria, when all resistance had ceased, the place was given up for three hours to indiscriminate lust and rapine; although the massacre at Cairo is artfully represented as an act of self defence, and justified upon the tyrant's plea—necessity; although he dares debase himself by the infernal sentiment, "For our own security we ought, perhaps, to have spared none who had seen French soldiers retire discomfited;" yet even this friend, this advocate, thus describes the situation of the inhabitants:

"We who boasted that we were more just than the Mamelukes, committed daily and almost necessarily a great number of iniquitous acts. The difficulty of distinguishing our enemies by their exterior form and colour, was the cause of our continually putting to death innocent peasants. The soldiers who were sent on scouting parties, frequently mistook for Meccans the poor merchants belonging to a caravan, with whom they fell in; and before justice could be done them, which in some cases the time and circumstances would not allow, two or three of them had been shot, a part of their merchandise either plundered or pilfered, and their camels exchanged for ours, which had been wounded. The gains which resulted from these outrages, fell invariably to the share of the bloodsuckers of the army, the civil commissaries, Copts, and interpreters; the soldiers, who sought every opportunity to enrich themselves, being constantly obliged to abandon and forget their projects, by the drum beating to arms, or the trumpet sounding to horse. The situation of the inhabitants, for whose happiness and prosperity we were no doubt come to Egypt, was no better. If, through terror, they had been obliged to quit their houses on our approach, on their return, after we were withdrawn, they could find nothing but the mud of which the walls were formed. Utensils, ploughs, doors, roofs, every thing, in short, of a combustible nature, had been burned for cooking; and the earthen pots broken, the corn consumed, and the fowls and pigeons roasted and devoured. Nothing was to be found except

the bodies of their dogs, killed in endeavouring to defend the property of their masters. If we made any stay in a village, the unfortunate inhabitants, who had fled on our approach, were summoned to return, under penalty of being treated as rebels who had joined the enemy, and of being made to pay double contributions. When they submitted to these threats, and came to pay the *miri*, it sometimes happened that they were so numerous as to be mistaken for a body of men in arms, and their clubs considered as muskets, in which case they were sure of being assailed by several discharges from the riflemen and patrols, before an explanation could take place. Those who were killed were interred; and the survivors remained friends with us, until a proper opportunity presented itself for retaliation. It is true that, provided they did not quit their dwellings, but paid the *miri*, and supplied the wants of the army, they not only spared themselves the trouble of a journey, and avoided the unpleasant abode of the desert, but saw their provisions eaten with regularity, and might come in for their portion of them, preserving a part of their doors, selling their eggs to the soldiers, and having few of their wives and daughters ravished. In this case, however, the attachment they had shown us was considered as culpable, inasmuch that when the Mamelukes came after us, they did not leave them a crown piece, a horse, or a camel; and frequently the sheik of the village forfeited his life for the pretended partiality which was imputed to him.

"After marching thirteen hours, we came in the evening to Gamerissiem, unfortunately for this village; for the cries of the women soon convinced us that our soldiers, profiting by the darkness of the night, under pretence of seeking provisions, and notwithstanding their weariness, were enjoying by violence the gratifications which the place offered them: the inhabitants, pillaged, dishonoured, and urged to desperation, fell upon the patrols whom we sent to defend them; and these, attacked by the furious natives, were killing them in their own defence, for want of being able to explain their object, and to make themselves understood."

It is a singular circumstance, that among all the architectural remains of ancient Egypt, there is not to be discovered a single fortress, or palace, or theatre, or other building, adapted for civil purposes; tombs and temples, in eternal succession, offer themselves to the eye of the traveller, and demonstrate the absolute and unlimited authority of the priesthood.

Another characteristic of Egypt, is the vast profusion of hieroglyphics; of

paintings, and of sculptures, by which the subterranean tombs are adorned, the execution of which must have required the incessant labour of centuries—a labour whose effects could after all only be examined and judged of by the light of torches, and surrounded with the dead. The following is the description of the royal tombs near Thebes:

"It was across these humbler tombs that the kings were carried two leagues from the palace, into the silent valley that was to become for the future their peaceful and lasting abode: this valley to the north-west of Thebes becomes insensibly narrower, and flanked as it is with perpendicular rocks, whole ages have been able to produce only very slight alterations of its ancient form. Towards the extremity, the opening between the rocks even now offers scarcely space enough to pass by the tombs, so that the sumptuous processions which no doubt accompanied the ceremony of royal interment, must have produced a striking contrast with the frowning asperity of these wild rocks: if, however, they went by this road, it was probably only for the purpose of obtaining a longer space, in which to roll the full tide of funereal pomp, for the valley even from its commencement tending towards the south, the spot where the tombs are cannot be a great distance from the Memnonium. It was not till after marching three quarters of an hour in this desert valley, that in the midst of rocks we observed, all at once, some openings parallel to the ground: these openings at first displayed no other architectural ornaments than a door in a simple square frame, with a flattened oval in the centre of the upper part, on which are inscribed in hieroglyphics a beetle, the figure of a man with a hawk's head, and beyond the circle, two figures on their knees in the act of adoration. As soon as the threshold of the first gate is passed, we discover long galleries twelve feet wide and twenty in height, cased with stucco sculptured and painted; the arches, of an elegant elliptical figure, are covered with innumerable hieroglyphics, disposed with so much taste, that, notwithstanding the singular grotesqueness of the forms, and the total absence of demi-tint, or aerial perspective, the ceilings make an agreeable whole, and a rich and harmonious association of colours. It would have required a stay of some weeks, in order to discover or form any system concerning the subjects of so many and such mysterious paintings, and unfortunately I was only allowed a few minutes; even these were not granted to me with the best possible grace. I asked questions on all sides with impatience; preceded by torches, I had merely time to pass on from one tomb to another: at the end of the galleries were the sarcophagi unconnected with each other, con-

posed of a single block of granite, twelve feet long by eight in breadth, ornamented with hieroglyphics both within and without; at one end they were rounded, and at the other squared, like that in the mosque of St. Athanasius at Alexandria: the tombs were covered by a lid of the same material, and of an enormous mass, shutting with a groove; but neither this precaution, nor these vast blocks of stone, brought from such a distance and at so great an expence, have been able to preserve the relics of the sovereigns from the attempts of avarice; all the tombs are violated: on the lid of the first sarcophagus that we met with, the figure of the king, or of some protecting divinity, is sculptured; but the figure itself is so worn, that it is impossible to distinguish by the dress whether it is a king, a priest, or a divinity. In other tombs the sepulchral chamber is surrounded by a pilastered portico, whose galleries, bordered with recesses supported in the same manner, and lateral chambers hollowed into the rock, are covered with a white and fine stucco, on which are coloured hieroglyphics in a most wonderful state of preservation; for, except two of the eight tombs that I visited, which have been injured by water trickling down them, all the rest are still in full perfection, and the paintings as fresh as when they were first executed: the colours of the ceilings, exhibiting yellow figures on a blue ground, are executed with a taste that might decorate our most splendid saloons.

"The trumpet had already sounded to horse, when I discovered some little chambers, on the walls of which were represented all kinds of arms, such as panoplies, coats of mail, tigers' skins, bows, arrows, quivers, pikes, javelins, sabres, casques, and whips: in another was a collection of household utensils, such as caskets, chests of drawers, chairs, sofas, and beds, all of exquisite forms, and such as might well grace the apartments of modern luxury: as these were probably accurate representations of the objects themselves, it is almost a proof that the ancient Egyptians employed for their furniture Indian woods, carved and gilt, which they covered with embroidery; besides these were represented various smaller articles, as vases, coffee-pots, ewers with their basons, a teapot and basket. Another chamber was consecrated to agriculture, in which were represented all its various instruments, a sledge similar to those in use at present, a man sowing grain by the side of a canal, from the borders of which the inundation is beginning to retire, a field of corn reaped with a sickle, fields of rice with men watching them. In a fourth chamber was a figure clothed in white, playing on a harp with eleven chords: the figure was represented with ornaments, and as made of the same kind of wood as modern ones. How was it possible to leave such precious curiosities, without taking a

drawing of them? How return without having a sketch at least to shew? I earnestly demanded a quarter of an hour's grace: I was allowed twenty minutes; one person lighted me, while another held a taper to every object that I pointed out to him, and I completed my task in the time prescribed with spirit and correctness."

From the preceding analysis and extracts, the reader may judge for himself with regard to the quantity of amusement and information to be derived from these travels. We could have wished for more minute details of the antiquities, especially of the interesting paintings that adorn the tombs: and here, more than any where else, we regret the necessity that rendered the object of our traveller only secondary to the military transactions. A few words remain to be said concerning the respective merits of the two translations; Mr. Kendall's is preceded by an original sketch of the Egyptian expedition, from its commencement to the surrender of Alexandria to the British, compiled from the Gazettes, the intercepted letters, and other official sources. The narrative of Denon himself is in some degree, though not greatly, abridged, especially in that part which relates to the architectural remains. Many of the descriptions cannot be well understood without references to the engravings; and as Mr. K. has not inserted any of the architectural or hieroglyphical plates, it is obvious that these passages must have undergone much compression. An injudicious and unnecessary deviation from the original, is the constant substitution of the third for the first person. M. Denon's own account of his feelings, his adventures, his conversations, and a number of minute circumstances, that derive their chief interest from the vivacity and playful egotism of the narrator, become formal, dull, and often ridiculous, by being lowered to the tone of serious history.

In Mr. Aikin's version, "the only liberties that have been taken, are those of breaking the continuity of the original journal into separate chapters, without, however, in the least altering the order of its arrangement; and in a few instances of incorporating with the text such parts of the notes as appear to have been thrown to the end of the original work, merely in consequence of having been forgotten." There are a few

inaccuracies and marks of haste in both the translations; and as a comparative specimen of the style of each, we shall quote the following passages."

MR. AIKIN'S TRANSLATION.

"What monotony! what melancholy wisdom! what austere gravity of manners! I still admire with awe the organization of such a government; its stupendous remains yet excite the mingled sensations of respect and dread. The divinity, in sacerdotal habits, holds in one hand a hook, and in the other a flail; the former, no doubt, to restrain, and the latter, to punish: every thing is measured by the law, and enchained by it. The fine arts, subject to the same severe restrictions, bend under the weight of fetters, and their soaring genius is pinioned to the earth. The unveiled emblem of generation, traced even in the sanctuary of the temples, announces, that to destroy pleasure it was converted into a duty: not a single circus, not a single theatre, not a single edifice for public recreation; but temples, but mysteries, but initiations, but priests, but sacrifices; ceremonies for pleasures; for luxury, sepulchres. Surely, in the evil hour of France, some demon evoked the gloomy ferocious soul of an Egyptian priest to animate the monster, who imagined, by making us sullen, to render us happy.

"After traversing the building for the purpose of gaining an accurate idea of its architectural details, I found myself at the south-western extremity of the circumvallation, where the other smaller temples are situated. I entered one of them, and was struck with a new sensation of astonishment. Behind two buttresses is an open portico of twenty-eight columns, ungraceful in its proportions, but rendered imposing by its severity of style, so true is it in architecture, that where the lines are long, few, and uninterrupted, the effect is always grand and striking. At the end of this first portico, is a large open door, leading to a second colonnade of eight pillars in two rows, still more grave in their proportions, and whose character is rendered more terrible by their awful depth of shade; beyond this is a long narrow passage, succeeded by two others, each darker than the preceding, and at the extremity of all is a subterranean sanctuary, which appears to the imagination as the asylum of terror, the temple of the Eumenides. The whole of this monument is separated from the rest by a boundary wall. Having made a drawing of the exterior of this edifice, I was preparing to make one of the interior, which might in some measure partake of the character of its great original, when I found myself so much overcome with fatigue, and the terribly sublime emotions that I had experienced, as to be quite incapable of the task. I copied, however, the bas-reliefs, and the hierogly-

phics. I made myself master of the relative position of the various parts, and executed a general view of the temple, taken from the eastern gate, where the gigantic ruins of the more remote buildings appear by reflection in the distance.

"The heat was so intense, that my feet were scorched through my shoes, and I was unable to sit down for the purpose of drawing, till I had placed my servant between the sun and myself, in order to intercept the rays, and procure me a little shelter: the very stones were become so hot, that wishing to collect some carnelian agates, which are found in great abundance in the outskirts of the town, I was obliged to lay each hastily in my handkerchief as if it was a hot coal. Harassed and fatigued, I betook myself to a small Arabian tomb, which was to serve for our night's lodging, and which appeared to me a delicious *boudoir*, till I was told, that in our former march through this place a French soldier, who had loitered behind the column, was stabbed in this very spot: the marks of the assassination, yet visible upon the walls, filled me with horror; nevertheless, I lay down, I slept, and so weary was I, that I could even have reposed on the very carcass of this ill-fated victim."

MR. KENDAL'S TRANSLATION.

"What monotony! what melancholy wisdom! what gravity of manners! I still admire with alarm the organization of a government like this; by the traces of which I am even now terrified and chilled. The divinity, sacerdotally arrayed, holds in the one hand a hook, and the other a scourge, the one doubtlessly to stop, and the other to punish: law every where bears the chain and the measure. I saw the arts, bending under the weight of this chain, and their genius appeared to be borne down; the sign of generation, traced, without modesty, in the very sanctuaries of the temples, seemed to me to express only to destroy the pleasure of which itself they made a duty: not a circus, not an arena, not a theatre! temples, mysteries, ceremonies! for luxury, tombs! The evil genius of France will certainly invoke the soul of an Egyptian priest, if ever he seek to animate the monster that, to promote their welfare, would render its people melancholy and saturnine, like such a sort of man.

"After having over-run the space necessary for observing the details of the edifice, Mr. Denon found himself at the south-east part of this enclosure, which comprizes other unconnected temples. The interior of one of these temples filled him with a new sensation: behind two moles is an open portico of twenty-eight columns; this portico, heavy in its proportions, has a character, the austerity of which produces its nobleness; so true it is that in architecture, when the lines are long, few, and free from intersection;

the effect is always grand and imposing! At the bottom of this first portico, a large door discovers a second, supported by eight columns, in two ranks, of a proportion still heavier, and a character, the gloominess of which renders still more terrible; this is the Temple of the Eumenides: a long and narrow chamber, followed by two others more dark, faces a sanctuary, entirely buried; a wall of circumvallation insulates this edifice, which seems to be the asylum of terror. Mr. Denon would have made a design of the interior, with the sentiment with which it inspired him; but he felt at this instant so great a degree of lassitude, physical and moral, that he had no faculties for its execution; he was exhausted, and incapable of describing what he conceived; he had designed bas-reliefs and hieroglyphics, and he had taken a general idea of all the localities.

"It was so hot, that the sun had burned his feet through his boots; he could remain in one place only by causing his servant to

walk between the sun and himself, that the rays might be interrupted, and a little shade thrown upon him by his body. The stones had acquired so much heat, that in picking up some cornelian agates, which are found in great numbers, even within the enclosure of the town, he was so burnt by them, that in order to carry them he was obliged to throw them on his handkerchief, as he would have touched hot coals. Worn out with fatigue, he threw himself down in a little Arabian tomb, which had been prepared for him for the night, and which appeared to him a delicious chamber, till he was told that at the time of his passing Karnac before, the throat had there been cut of a Frenchman, who had lagged behind the column. The marks of this assassination, still imprinted on the walls, filled him with horror; but he was lain down, he was sleepy, and so weary, that he believes he should not have risen off the dead body itself of the unfortunate victim."



## CHAPTER II.

## T H E O L O G Y

AND

## ECCLESIASTICAL AFFAIRS.

IN the prospectus which we have already submitted to the public, we have stated it to be "our leading object to give a fair and sufficiently ample analysis of the works that come before us." This, which we deem the proper business of a Reviewer in every department of knowledge, appears to us peculiarly so in that of Theology; as there are no subjects upon which men more strongly feel, nor upon which their opinions are more divided. Impartiality, in persons employed as we are, is a virtue of difficult attainment—and in our endeavours to acquire it, we may not always be successful, but we will take care that no endeavours shall be wanting. We shall constantly bear in mind, that we appear not as controversialists, or directors of the public faith, but as those who are engaged to deliver to the public, according to the best of our ability, a fair unprejudiced account of the works in Theology which have been published during the last year. We have, indeed, our own opinions, and for their support we feel all due anxiety and zeal; but in the character which we now sustain, we shall strive to conceal them; for this volume cannot properly be made the vehicle of their diffusion, any more than an engine of hostility against the opinions of others. Hence, perhaps, this department of our Review may be rendered deficient in entertainment; but we console ourselves with the hope, that it will be more useful, and more certainly secure the great end of its publication. Under the influence of these reflections, we shall endeavour to give as just and complete an analysis as our limits will allow, of every theological work which is either capable of being analyzed, or which possesses merit sufficient to entitle it to that distinction.

Will nothing then provoke our animadversion and our censure? Yes. All those notions which manifestly tend to degrade the Supreme Being, and which are equally unsupported by scripture as by reason; all those inferences which the zeal of theologians may have falsely deduced from the premises; all those pretensions to the notice of the public, which are not warranted by a due portion of talents and of knowledge; and every thing uncandid and illiberal, hostile to freedom of inquiry, and unbecoming the philosopher or the christian, will meet with just and merited rebuke.

In conducting this part of our Review, we shall arrange the works which fall under our notice in the following manner: 1. Editions and translations of the bible, or of any part of the sacred books. 2. Works of sacred criticism. 3. The evidences of natural and revealed religion. 4. Contrôversial writings. 5. Sermons and practical theology. 6. Works of devotion; and 7. Works relating to

ecclesiastical history and church discipline. Keeping this arrangement in view, we shall present to our readers a short sketch of the theological productions of the last year.

I. Mr. Reeves, one of the patentees of the office of king's printer, has been very laudably engaged in publishing a *new edition of the Bible*, in a form which he thinks will conduce to its being more generally read. It is preceded by an useful and well-written introduction, and enriched by short notes compiled from some of the ablest commentators. Mr. Scarlett (whose death we were sorry to see lately announced) has given a *Scenic Arrangement to the Prophecy of Isaiah concerning the Destruction of Babylon*, which elucidates, in a very pleasing manner, that most beautiful passage of sacred writ.

II. Mrs. Cappe has performed a valuable service to the Christian world, by the publication of many *Critical Remarks and Dissertations on various Passages of Scripture*, written by her late husband. Memoirs of the author's life, drawn up by the editor with very great ability, accompany these curious and learned papers. Mr. Nisbett, in *The Triumphs of Christianity*, has vindicated the writers of the New Testament, from some serious charges brought against them by many unbelievers, and demonstrated the true meaning of the prediction relating to the coming of Christ. The learned translator of Michaelis has been attacked upon the subject of his curious dissertation on the origin of the three first gospels, by an anonymous author, in a pamphlet, entitled *Remarks on Michaelis and his Commentator*. To which Mr. Marsh has published a very able reply, in *Letters to the Anonymous Author of the Remarks*. The commentaries on Michaelis, having been carried, by the translator, no further than the gospel of Luke, the observations of the German professor, upon the remaining books, are put into the hands of the biblical student without any guide, amidst the difficulties and inaccuracies to which such a work must be liable. A sensible and judicious writer, conceiving that the professor's remarks on the Apocalypse need much correction, has endeavoured to supply the deficiency occasioned by Mr. Marsh's unavoidable avocations, in *Letters on the Evidence for the Authenticity and Divine Inspiration of the Apocalypse*; very properly addressed to Mr. Marsh. Mr. Whitaker has published, *A Commentary on the Revelation*, ingenious and well written. Much light has also been thrown by Mr. Moore, in a *Concio ad Clerum* upon *Daniel's Prophecy of the Seventy Weeks*. Mr. Burder has likewise contributed to the illustration of the sacred records, a valuable work, chiefly compiled from Harmer, entitled *Oriental Customs*.

III. The most valuable production of the last year, is, *Dr. Paley's Natural Theology*: or, *Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature*. The mind that can withstand the arguments which occur in every page of this excellent work, must be beyond the reach of reason. The believer in the existence of an intelligent first cause, will be gratified by the *Conversations on the Divine Government*, which plainly shew, according to the intention of the venerable author, "that every thing is from God, and for good to all." The cause of revealed religion can boast of few champions more worthy of distinction than Mr. Maltby. His *Illustrations of the Truth of the Christian Religion*,

is a masterly performance, and must carry conviction to the breast of every impartial and serious inquirer. Mr. Simpson's *Plea for Revealed Religion*, discovers an honest mind, and contains many observations of a curious and important nature.

IV. In the list of controversialists, Mr. Daubeny occupies the first place. He professes to *demonstrate the great Doctrine of the Atonement*, in *Eight Discourses on the Connection between the Old and New Testament, considered as two Parts of the same Divine Revelation*. The controversy concerning the Calvinistic interpretation of the articles of the church of England, has called forth Mr. Pearson and Dr. Kipling. Mr. Pearson has published *Two Letters to Mr. Overton*: and Dr. Kipling has very successfully endeavoured to prove, *The Articles of the Church of England not to be Calvinistic*. The Bishop of Bangor, also, in a *Sermon preached before the University of Oxford*, has offered some curious remarks upon the articles of the established church. Mr. Plumptre's *Christian Guide*, will be a useful manual to the less informed members of the national communion.

V. The catalogue of *Sermons* published during the year 1802, is, we believe, unusually long. *The Bishop of London's Lectures on the Gospel of St. Matthew*, hold a distinguished rank. *Zollikoffer's Sermons*, translated by Mr. W. Tooke, form a valuable addition to this branch of sacred literature. *A Seventh Volume of Sacred Biography*, will be found an acceptable legacy of the late popular preacher, Dr. Hunter. *Sandford, Baseley, and Scott*, also, are in the number of those who have added to a stock of sermons. Mr. Simeon has published the second part of his *Helps to Composition; or Five Hundred Skeletons of Sermons*: a work of more labour than merit. The *Single Sermons* belonging to the last year, have been preached either upon various occasions, or upon the *Thanksgiving for Peace*. It would swell this introduction beyond its proper limits, were we to notice here even the best of these; we must therefore refer our readers to the succeeding review.

VI. The labours of Mr. Reeves have been extended to the *Book of Common Prayer*; and he has very meritoriously provided the friends of our established church with a *new edition* of that book, containing much information respecting the various services of which it is composed, and notes upon the epistles, the gospels, and the psalms. *The Reformed Liturgy used at the Chapel in Essex Street*, has undergone various alterations, and has been placed before the public in almost a new form, by Dr. Disney.

VII. The only ecclesiastical historian is Mr. Brewster, of Stockton-upon-Tees, whose *Secular Essay, containing a retrospective View of Events connected with the Ecclesiastical History of England, during the Eighteenth Century*, will not entitle him to any distinguished rank amongst writers of this class. *The Necessity of the Abolition of Pluralities and Non-residence, with the Employment of Substitutes by the Beneficed Clergy*, is ably demonstrated by an anonymous writer. A well written pamphlet, in reply, has been sent into the world by the Rev. Mr. Hook, entitled, *Anguis in Herba! or a Sketch of the True Character of the Church of England and her Clergy*. To the same class of writings belong Mr. Poulter's *Proposals for a New Arrangement of the Revenues of the Clergy*; and some judicious *Observations on Dr. Sturges' Pamphlet respecting Non-residence of the Clergy*. To these we have also to add, as connected

with ecclesiastical discipline, *The Recorder: or a Collection of Tracts and Disquisitions, chiefly relative to the modern State and Principles of the People called Quakers*; by W. Matthews: and *Reasons for withdrawing from Society with the People called Quakers*; by John Hancock.

These are the principal works now before us, which we shall proceed to consider more at large.

### THE SCRIPTURES.

ART. I. *The Holy Bible, containing the Old Testament and the New, translated out of the original Tongues, and with the former Translations diligently compared and revised. By his Majesty's special Command. Appointed to be read in Churches.* London, published for JOHN REEVES, Esq. one of the patentees of the office of king's printer. 8vo. 10 vols.

IT would have afforded us considerable pleasure, to have been able to open this department of our review, by commencing not a new edition of the old translation of our bible by a king's printer, but a complete revision of the holy scriptures, set forth by authority. We should have esteemed this as a favourable omen, and entered upon our labours with greater activity and vigour. The editor of the bible now before us, appears to have been actuated by very laudable motives, and has executed the task he has undertaken with much taste and judgment. But something more than he has done, or can do, is wanted, and has been long looked for with anxious expectation. Men of the first eminence in our established church, both for rank and learning, have not only confessed, without reluctance, but proved, with much diligence and zeal, the necessity of a new translation, or, at least, of a very accurate revision of the books of sacred writ, and, by labouring with considerable success, upon separate parts, have both exemplified their sense of its importance, and furnished copious materials for the great object they have so strenuously recommended. The names of Secker, Newcome, Lowth, Blaney, Durell, and Newton, appear in the honourable list of those who have advised and aided this important measure, names possessing authority sufficient, one would imagine, to sanction an immediate attempt, and, at the same time, to repel every fear of innovation. The interests of revealed religion demand it; and the longer it is now delayed, the more numerous will be the triumphs of scepticism and infidelity.

Of the views by which the editor has been induced to publish the edition before us, he thus speaks in the preface:

"The design of this publication is to provide the public with an edition of our CHURCH BIBLE; which, according to what appears to be the taste of the present time, may be deemed a more convenient book for reading, than any of the bibles now in use.

"It has ever seemed to me a just cause of complaint, that while every English book, of any character, has had the advantage of being printed in various forms and sizes, to suit the different tastes of readers, THE HOLY BIBLE has been still printed in no other form than that of one single book, which, from the bulk of the contents, must necessarily make an unhandy and inconvenient volume, even if printed in a small type. All other books that are of any length, and are in much request, whether for instruction or amusement, are divided into convenient volumes, and generally have bestowed upon them the advantage of a larger print; from which it may reasonably be concluded, that this is a prevailing taste, and that for a book to have readers, it must have these recommendations. It appeared to me, that the readers of the bible were entitled to every accommodation of this sort; and further, that it was an experiment worth trying, whether persons might not be attracted, by such means, to the reading of the bible. Such sentiments as these suggested to me, to put to the press an edition of the bible in separate volumes, that would make a manual, commodious for perusal, like the editions of our best English books.

"How many of us would be at the trouble of reading our best English authors in such an inconvenient volume as the bible? Who would endure to read our best prose writers, if divided into verses like the bible? We all know, what answers must be

given to these questions: Why then should the bible be thus rendered less acceptable than all other books? If it is entitled to any peculiarity that might distinguish it above other books, surely it ought to be such as would attract, not such as would repel. This book should be printed in the most commodious size, and the text exhibited in the most intelligent form; it should be addressed to the eye and to the understanding, to invite and to detain every one who opens it. These advantages are lavished upon poets and historians, but the bible is sent into the world without them!"

In conformity with these principles, Mr. Reeves has divided the unweildy volume of which he justly complains, into nine, with notes accompanying each, or thrown together into one volume, forming a tenth. And to suit the taste of different readers, he has published these volumes in three different sizes. The largest of them, however, is nothing more than the royal octavo printed upon a quarto page, by which means a depth of margin is left which, to our eye, conveys no sensation of beauty.

Having thus removed what he considers as one "obstacle to the bible being generally read with the same degree of facility and satisfaction as other English books," there appeared to the editor another; "and that arose from the division of the matter into chapters, and more particularly into verses." Pref. p. ii. The history and progress of this contrivance is well detailed, and may convey some information and amusement to our readers.

"The sacred books, whether Hebrew or Greek, came from the pen of their writers, and were, in the hands of those for whom they were originally composed, without any division of this sort. The first need of any thing like such a division, was after the Babylonish captivity; the Jews had then mostly forgotten the original Hebrew; and when it was read in the synagogue, it was found necessary to have an interpretation into Chaldee, for the use of the common people. To make this interpretation intelligible, and useful, the reader of the Hebrew used to pause at short distances, while the interpreter pronounced the same passage in Chaldee, such pauses became established, and were marked in the manuscripts, forming a sort of verses like those in our present bibles. This division into verses was confined to the Hebrew scriptures, and to the people for whose use it was contrived; no such division was made in the transla-

tion of the SEVENTY, nor in the Latin version; so that the bible used in the Greek and the western churches, was without any such division, either in the old or new testament.

"It was, however, found necessary, in after times, to make a division and subdivision of the sacred books; but it was for a very different purpose; it was for the sake of referring to them with more ease and certainty. We are told that Cardinal Hugo, in the 13th century, made a concordance to the whole of the Latin bible, and that for this purpose of reference, he divided both the old and new testament into chapters, being the same that we now have. These chapters he subdivided into smaller portions, distinguishing them by the letters of the alphabet; and, by those means, he was enabled to make references from his concordance to the text of the bible. The utility of such a concordance brought it into high repute; and the division into chapters, upon which it depended, was adopted along with it, by the divines of Europe.

"This division into chapters was afterwards, in the fifteenth century, adopted by a learned Jew, for the same purpose of reference, in making a concordance to the Hebrew bible. This was Rabbi Mordecai Nathan, who carried the contrivance a step further; for instead of adhering to the subdivisions of Cardinal Hugo, he made others, much smaller, and distinguished them, not by letters, but by numbers. This invention was received into the Latin bibles, and they make the present verses of the old testament. In doing this, he might possibly have proceeded upon the old subdivisions long before used for the interpretation into Chaldee. We see, therefore, that the present division of the old testament into chapter and verse, is an invention partly Christian and partly Jewish, and that it was the sole purpose of reference, and not primarily with a view to any natural division of the several subjects contained in it.

"The new testament still remained without any subdivision into verses, till one was at length made, for the very same purpose of a concordance, about the middle of the sixteenth century. The author of this was Robert Stephens, the celebrated printer at Paris. He followed the example of Rabbi Nathan, in subdividing the chapters into small verses, and numbering them; and he printed an edition of the Greek testament so marked. This division soon came into general use, like the former one of the old testament, from the same recommendation of the coincidence that depended upon it; and Latin testaments, as well as bibles, were ever after distinguished into chapters and verses.

"It remained for the translators of the English bible to push this invention to an extremity. The beginning of every chapter



had been made a fresh paragraph in all the printed bibles; but the verses were only marked by the number, either in the margin or in the body of the matter; such minute subdivisions did not then seem fit to be made into distinct paragraphs. But the English translators, who had fled to Geneva, during the persecution of Queen Mary, and who published there a new translation, famous afterwards under the name of the Geneva bible, separated every one of the verses, making each into a distinct paragraph. This new contrivance was soon received with as much approbation as the preceding; and all bibles, in all languages, began to be printed in the same manner, with the verses distinguished into paragraphs; and so the practice has continued to the present time. A singular destiny, to which no other book has been subjected! For in all other works, the index or concordance, or whatever may be the subsidiary matter, is fashioned so, as to be subordinate to the original work; but in the bible alone, the text and substance of the work is disfigured in order to be adapted to the concordance that belongs to it; and the notion of its being perused, is sacrificed to that of its being referred to. In consequence of this, the bible is, to the eye, upon the opening of it, rather a book of reference, than a book for perusal and study; and it is much to be feared, that this circumstance makes it more frequently used as such; it is referred to for verifying a quotation, and then returned to the shelf. What book can be fundamentally understood, if consulted only in such a desultory way! Those who extend their reading, but still regulate their efforts by the chapters, are not more likely to see the scriptural writings in the true view."

The whole of the bible, in this edition, is divided into sections, without any regard to the present chapters and verses; and in general this is done with skill and judgment. But as the use of concordances, and the mode of reference adopted in theological writings, and in the pulpit, render it necessary that the established divisions, and subdivisions,

be in some manner retained, the numbers belonging to the present chapters and verses are printed in a character so small, yet so distinct, that while it serves the required purpose, it can give no offence to the nicest eye.

"The numerous parallel passages that load the pages of the larger editions of the bible, and contribute little that is useful to the generality of readers," are in part discarded, and in part transferred to the notes; but the whole of what are called the Hebrew and Greek renderings are retained, and printed neatly at the bottom of the page.

As it was thought necessary to make some distinction between the prose and the metrical parts of the Old Testament, the editor has printed the latter in the old division of verses, "judging it more prudent to retain a division already in use, than to hazard any new one that might be made into lines and versicles, according to some late theories of Hebrew poetry." Pref. p. viii. A scrupulous adherence to the old translation would, indeed, allow of nothing more.

The introductory remarks prefixed to each book, and the notes intended to illustrate the text, are compiled with great industry from the works of Patrick, Lowth, Whitby, and others, and will convey some instruction to those who would not be induced to seek for it in voluminous commentaries.

These are the prominent features which distinguish this edition from all that have preceded it; and although it will by no means supply the wants which many who are warmly attached to the important interests of sacred knowledge and of truth have long felt and lamented, it will entitle the editor to the well earned praise of industry and zeal.

ART. II. *A scenic Arrangement of Isaiah's Prophecy, relating to the Fall of the renowned City of Babylon and Belshazzar its King.* By NATHANIEL SCARLETT. 4to. pp. 27.

THE passage of Isaiah, which is illustrated in a pleasing and novel manner, in this small and elegant work, is one of the sublimest efforts of imagination, that the writings either of ancient or of modern times can produce. "The images are so various," observes bishop Lowth, "so numerous, and so sub-

lime; expressed with such force, in such elevated words, figures, and sentences, that it is impossible to conceive any thing of the kind more perfect. We hear the Jews, the cedars of Lebanon, the king of Lebanon, the king of Babylon, the ghosts of departed monarchs, and those who find the king's corpse,

and even God himself, speaking; and we behold each of them acting his respective part, as it were, in some well-cast drama. The persons are numerous, but not confused; bold, but not extravagant; a noble, sublime, and truly divine spirit, glows in every sentence; nothing can be found deficient, nothing redundant. In a word, for beauty of disposition, strength of colouring, greatness of sentiment, brevity, perspicuity, and force of expression, this prophecy of Isaiah stands among all the monuments of antiquity unrivalled."

This passage, quoted by Mr. Scarlett from Lowth's xiii. *Prælection*, seems to have suggested the scenic arrangement here presented to the public. It is preceded by a brief description of Babylon, a genealogical account of Belshazzar, a biographical sketch of that dissolute monarch, and a short history of the fall of himself and his kingdom. The whole of the xiii, and the first 27 verses of the xivth chapters, are then arranged in dramatic order, and different parts distributed to the following supposed speakers:

Jehovah,  
Isaiah,  
Jews,

Generalissimo's Prolocutor,  
Sardanapalus and Laborosoarchod,  
Buriers of the slain.

Bishop Lowth's translation is adopted throughout, but the common version is printed by the side of it, in a smaller character.

Chap. xiii. v. 1, Isaiah opens the drama by specifying the subject of it.

Ver. 2, 3, Jehovah is introduced, commanding the forces designed for the destruction of Babylon to assemble.

Ver. 4, 5, Isaiah speaks as though he heard and saw the forces advancing. Ver. 6—10, he directs his speech to the Babylonians, describing the dreadful consequences of the approaching visitation.

Ver. 11—13, Jehovah is then introduced, declaring the dreadful destruction of the inhabitants of Babylon.

The latter part of verse 13, to verse 16, Isaiah resumes his speech, announcing the complete dissolution of the city.

Ver. 17—22, Jehovah declares that the Medes shall be the principal agents, and that the desolation of Babylon shall be perpetual.

This great revolution being designed, among other purposes, to accomplish the deliverance of the Jews from the long captivity into which they were, before this event, destined to fall, the prophet, in a triumphant ode, next anticipates their return, and the subsequent enjoyment of rest, chap. xiv. v. 1—4.

This is followed by a chorus of Jews, v. 4—8, exulting in their deliverance, and expressing their astonishment at the fall of Babylon and its tyrant.

The scene is then transferred to Hades, where the shades of departed monarchs are supposed to hear of the approach of the king of Babylon. The chief of these sends proper persons to await his arrival at the outward door, the principal of whom Mr. S. calls the Generalissimo's Prolocutor. The address of the prolocutor to the monarch is continued in the 9th, and part of the 10th verses. Upon his being introduced, the shades of departed monarchs advance; two of whom receive, and alternately accost him with insulting language. Mr. S. has named two certain monarchs (Sardanapalus and Laborosoarchod) for uncertain ones, on account of the characters of these two being infamous and contemptible in history, v. 10, 11.

From Hades we are, in the five next verses, conveyed to Babylon, where a chorus of Jews stand over the body of the late king, addressing him as a fallen star, and upbraiding him for his ambition and pride. These retiring, the buriers of the slain are represented, in v. 16—20, as meeting with the king of Babylon's body, and in taunting language contrasting his former situation and conduct with his present condition.

Ver. 21—25, Jehovah is again introduced, confirming the decree concerning the destruction of Babylon by an oath; after which Isaiah closes the scene (v. 26, 27) by declaring the decree irrevocable.

A succinct account of the literal fulfilment of the preceding prophecy follows; and the whole is concluded by an inference in proof of the truth of revelation.

This elegant little work displays much ingenuity and judgment, and we should be glad to see the same mode of elucidation applied to other parts of the prophetic writings of the Old Testament.

## SACRED CRITICISM.

Among the works belonging to this class, the following justly claims the first place.

ART. III. *Critical Remarks on many important Passages of Scripture; together with Dissertations upon several Subjects, tending to illustrate the Phraseology and Doctrine of the New Testament. By the late Reverend NEWCOME CAPPE. To which are prefixed Memoirs of his Life, by the Editor, CATHERINE CAPPE. 2 vols. 8vo. pages 356, and 442.*

THE contents of these volumes are highly curious and interesting; the result of laborious and patient investigation, begun in early life, and continued, without interruption, through a long succession of years.

"The author," says the very intelligent editor, "having chosen the ministry, conceived it to be his first duty, as he was to preach the gospel, to endeavour to understand it accurately; and having from these motives engaged in the inquiry, he became so much interested in it, he daily discovered in the writings of the New Testament views so magnificent, extensive, and consolatory, such transcendent displays of the wisdom and goodness of God, that what at first he considered a matter of duty became afterwards his highest pleasure.

"That the writer did not enter on the study of the scriptures, from a desire of accommodating them to any pre-conceived system of doctrines, formed either by himself or others, will sufficiently appear from the mode of investigation he adopted and pursued. Convinced that, as in the works of God, experiment, and not hypothesis, is the only guide to truth; so also, that in what respects the right understanding of his word, a similar mode of investigation must be pursued, if we wish to be successful in our inquiries; his opinions were the result, not the basis of his researches."

Whatever, therefore, the biblical student may think concerning these opinions, contrary in almost every respect to those which have been long established, and differing in a very great degree even from such as the boldest inquirers have hitherto been led to adopt, he must commend the principles upon which they have been formed; and, if he have any candour and ingenuousness, any sincere love of truth, he will deem them deserving of a fair investigation. He may not be able to embrace all or any of the novel views of Christian doctrine that are here exhibited, but he will find much useful information concerning some pe-

culiarities of scripture phraseology, and meet with many subjects of a nature too important not to engage his most serious attention. Convinced, as we are, that discussion is favourable to truth, and even necessary to its prevalence, we regret that these volumes did not appear in more auspicious times, when the public mind was more generally turned upon religious inquiries; and when the learned author, in the full possession of those extraordinary talents, by which he seems to have been distinguished, might have recommended them to the notice of the world, by a greater degree of accuracy than, as a posthumous publication, they can now possess, and have aided the investigation which they challenge from every one who aspires to an acquaintance with the word of God.

Strictly adhering to the resolution we have formed, of not obtruding our own private opinions, or of controverting every position which we do not approve, we shall proceed to detail, as briefly as its importance will allow, the nature and extent of the information which these volumes profess to convey.

The first paper in this work, is entitled "*A Commentary on the Proem of St. John's Gospel.*" The interpretation here given of this noted passage, very closely resembles that which was affixed to it by the Polish Unitarians. Rejecting the modern explication of the term *λογος*, by wisdom, &c. Mr. C. considers it as properly denoting "the first great preacher of the word of God," p. 19, in conformity with the peculiar style of John, which abounds with similar metonymies. And as a key to the opening of the sense of this introduction, he remarks, that it was the design of this evangelist, not merely to supply what the other historians had omitted, but to record such transactions, and such discourses chiefly, as would afford him an opportunity of shewing the accomplishment of his mas-

ter's predictions, concerning the bestowment of spiritual gifts.

"The gift of the Holy Spirit," says Mr. C. "appears to have been much in the mind of John, at the time when he wrote his gospel. In the beginning of it, relating the testimony which the Baptist bears to Jesus, he is much more minute than the other evangelists, as to what respects the future greatness of Christ, as the dispenser of these miraculous powers; and it is under this idea, I conceive, that he wrote the *prom* of his gospel."

Again,

"John, being about to confirm what the first evangelists had written, and to supply what he thought it expedient to add to their histories, concerning the illustrious personage who was the author of that doctrine, in the propagation of which, upon full conviction of its truth, and heavenly origin, he was himself engaged, and which had made, and was still making, very important changes in the world; zealous to extend the blessings of the gospel, and having it in his view, by this work, to increase the number of its disciples, it was natural, at his entrance on such a work, that the divine authority with which the gospel was first published, the commission under which it was then preached, and the miraculous powers with which the preachers of it had been qualified for their ministry, should rush upon the writer's mind, to form as it were the position which the subsequent history was to illustrate and establish?"

The common, and an amended version, are printed in corresponding columns, accompanied by a paraphrase, and followed by long critical notes.

The 1st verse, in Mr. Cappe's version, is as follows: "In the beginning was the word, and the word was with God, and God was the word." It is thus paraphrased:

"From the first the word was *so* with God, that God was the word; *i. e.* the Christian dispensation did not take its rise from any of the present preachers of the gospel, but from Jesus Christ, the great original preacher of that word of God, who, during all his ministry, as the subsequent history will show, was favoured with the extraordinary presence of God, and who, before he came forth under that character into the world, *i. e.* out of the privacy in which he had hitherto lived, was so fully instructed, and qualified, and authorized, for the errand upon which God sent him, that it was not so properly he that spake to men, as God that spake to them by him."

Ver. 2, 3. "He was in the beginning, or from the first, with God; all things were by him, and without him was

not any that has been." Thus paraphrased:

"Therefore as it was fit, in the ministry that he committed to his apostles, all things have been by his authority, and according to his direction; and of their own mere motion, without his warrant, nothing has been done by his ministers."

*Life, in v. 4, is the doctrine of eternal life.*

What in v. 5 is rendered in the common version by "The darkness comprehended it not," is translated by Mr. C. "The darkness hath not overtaken it." *i. e.* The light of eternal life has not been extinguished. This interpretation was long since suggested by Schlichtingius.

Ver. 9, is thus rendered by Mr. C. "He was the true light, who, having come into the world, is enlightening every man, *i. e.* both Jew and Gentile."

Ver. 10. "The world," the Jewish dispensation, "was made for him, yet the world," the subjects of that dispensation, "knew him not."

Ver. 11. "He came into his own country, and his own countrymen received him not."

Of the three descriptions of persons mentioned in v. 13, Mr. C. observes,

"The first were born of Abraham's blood on *both* sides; the second being the offspring of a passion which, to gratify itself, wandered beyond the limits of Abraham's family, were *ἐκ δαλματὸς σαρκὸς*; and proselytes, being in the language of the Jews, the *children* of him by whom they were converted, were *ἐκ δαλματὸς ἀνδρός*."

Ver. 14. "Nevertheless the word was flesh, yet full of grace and truth; he tabernacled among us, and we beheld his glory, as of the only begotten *with* the Father." This verse is thus paraphrased:

"Yet though the first preacher of the word was thus honoured with such signal tokens of divine confidence and favour, with such extraordinary previous dispositions to prepare the world for his reception, with such wonderful communications of divine wisdom and power, with authority to confer such important privileges on those who received him and obeyed him; though he was invested with so high an office, and though his doctrine was confirmed by such demonstrations of God's presence with him, and he was hereafter to dispense the gifts of the Holy Spirit, he was, nevertheless, as the progress of this history will show, a mortal man; yet his death was no detriment to the interests either of his doctrine or his friends, for, even after he had left this world, in the

clear and comprehensive views of truth which he imparted to his disciples, and in the abundance of spiritual gifts that he bestowed upon them, he tabernacled among us; and herein we beheld the glory of this illustrious oracle of God; not, indeed, any radiant splendor, like that which came down into the tabernacle or temple, but the *peculiar glory* that was destined for Jesus, this beloved son."

Ver. 15. "For he was before me;" is rendered, "He was my principal."

Ver. 16. "Grace for grace;" is explained to signify supernatural communications imparted to his disciples, in proportion to these which he had received of the Father.

Ver. 18. "No one hath seen God at any time, the only begotten son, who is in the bosom of the Father, he hath declared him."

"For no man, not even Moses, the mediator of the ancient dispensation, has been honoured with such discoveries of God, and such communications from him, as his beloved son; he has made the nearest approaches to him, and most perfectly exhibited him to men. While he was in the world, he was enabled to speak (concerning him) as never man spake, and *now* received into the presence of the Father, he has been *there* distinguished by him with such demonstrations of his love, that by the spiritual gifts which he has been empowered to bestow on his disciples, for the propagation of his doctrine, he has become, what it was foretold he should be, *the great enlightener of the world.*"

The peculiarities of this interpretation are defended in many notes, which exhibit an extensive acquaintance with scripture language, and considerable skill in sacred criticism.

This, like many of the subsequent dissertations, is concluded by some general reflections, which the editor suggests "may probably have been delivered from the pulpit." The fifth and sixth of these, relating to the *permanency of the gospel*, and the *solicitude of God for its due reception*, are eloquent and impressive; we are sorry that our limits will not permit us to extract them for the pleasure and benefit of our readers.

The next dissertation relates to the *terms kingdom of heaven, of God, and of Christ, as used in scripture*. Having adduced many passages to shew that these phrases manifestly denote one and the same thing, Mr. C. proceeds to examine the commencement, the nature, and the duration of the kingdom to which they refer. The declarations of scripture

concerning it, are traced from the preaching of John the Baptist, to the death of Jesus; and throughout this period the author thinks that it is always spoken of as yet to come, though near at hand, and evidently predicted to appear in that generation. A short time before his apprehension and death, Jesus speaks of the *glory* which he was about to receive; and not many days after his ascension, and the consequent gift of miraculous powers, Peter declares that God *had glorified him*. "It appears then," says Mr. Cappe, "that when the Holy Spirit was bestowed, Jesus had entered on his glory; his *kingdom* was now come, and he had been invested with the glory which he had with the father before the world was; the kingdom of heaven was now, not at hand only, it was commenced," p. 142. From this notion of the commencement of the kingdom of God or of Christ, its *nature*, it is thought, may be discovered. Several passages of scripture, relating to the office and dignity of Christ after his ascension, are for this purpose examined, and the conclusion is, "that it is the *power from on high, the dispensation of the spirit, the extraordinary gifts* with which his doctrine (the gospel) was preached and patronized, which, in scripture language, is called the kingdom of Christ; this was his regal power and dignity: it was the preaching of the word with the Holy Ghost sent down from heaven, with the demonstration of the spirit and of power," p. 146. According to these conceptions of the *nature* of the kingdom of Christ, the period of its *duration* is supposed to be accurately defined in scripture, and particularly by Paul, who "speaks expressly of the *end* of it; 1 Cor. xv. 24, when Christ should deliver up the kingdom to the Father."

"This kingdom could not be his own celestial recompence of happiness and glory; it could not be the reign of truth and righteousness; these cannot fail, nor can they, even in any figurative sense, be *delivered up*. But the miracles with which the Christian cause was maintained and promoted, might, in a figurative sense at least, be delivered up unto the father. Miracles might cease; it was fit they should cease, and we know they were to cease. There was no promise, nor any intimation that they should continue beyond the period of the Jewish economy, nor is there any evidence much to be relied on, that they did. Jesus promised to be with his disciples to the end of the *age*; it is certain their supernatu-



ral powers did not cease before; miracles were undoubtedly among them till that period; and though they might be withdrawn, not suddenly, but gradually, they did not prevail beyond the dissolution of the Jewish state, as they had done before that catastrophe; *this*, therefore, may very properly be deemed the period of the resumption of the supernatural powers. Hitherto Jesus had governed his people by the Holy Spirit, his doctrine had been supported and patronized by miraculous communications; *at that time* this kingdom ceased; the interests of Christianity were committed to the ordinary operations of divine providence; Jesus *delivered up* the kingdom to the Father. He had then "put down the rule, authority, and power," over which he was destined to prevail; the "principalities," the "powers," the "rulers of the darkness of this world," Eph. vi. 12. The "spiritual wickednesses, in high places," against which, till then, his disciples had to wrestle. Being ascended into heaven, and seated on the right hand of God, "angels, authorities, and powers, were made subject to him," 1 Pet. iii. 22, *i. e.* the ordinances of the Jewish dispensation were now perfectly abolished; he had spoiled and triumphed over "principalities and powers;" his gospel had been preached through the whole world, according to his own prediction, Matt. xxiv. 14; "for a witness to all nations," in consequence of which "Satan" (that adversary against the truth, which lay in the national prejudices) was "falling from heaven," Luke x. 18; and now the great obstacle to its progress, and the chief, if not hitherto the only source of persecution against its disciples, the Jewish economy, was taken out of the way. *That was the consummation* of his kingdom, the *last act* of that regal power, which, according to his own highly figurative language, *he came to exercise in royal state*, "in the clouds of heaven," Matt. xxvi. 64; "and all the holy angels with him," xxv. 31; "In the glory of his Father," Mark viii. 38; "with power and great glory," Luke xxi. 27.

The figurative language in which these extraordinary events are thought to be spoken of, is shewn to be agreeable to the phraseology of scripture; according to which any signal acts of Divine Providence are called the *coming* or the *reign* of God: and it is in perfect conformity with this, that the continual display of divine power, on behalf of the gospel, extended through the whole period from the ascension of Christ to the destruction of Jerusalem, is called the kingdom of God or of Christ.

The phrase *coming in the kingdom*, Mr. C. observes, is confined, in scripture language, to what he esteems the last

act of that kingdom, the dissolution of the Jewish state; this is thought to have arisen from the Jewish notions of royalty, derived either from their own constitution, in which the judge or king had only an executive power, or from what they knew of the governors and kings appointed by the Romans, who had no concern in the legislation of their respective provinces and kingdoms.

"The phrase *coming in a kingdom*, had acquired such connexion with the administration and execution of justice, that the last act of Christ's regal power, consisting of the most signal judiciary distinctions, naturally drew this and the kindred phrases to itself."

Such, according to the work before us, is the nature of the kingdom of heaven, of God, or of Christ: but, as was natural and unavoidable, the *parts* of this complex idea, taken separately, as well as the whole combined together, are denominated by the same terms. Miracles in support of the doctrine of Christ, are the kingdom; so also is the doctrine, and the establishment and diffusion of that doctrine. It is considered as equally natural, that the *kingdom* should also signify the rights and privileges of the kingdom, and the effects, results, and issues of it: and thus it happens, "that the future perfection and happiness of Christians, and that future life and state in which this perfection and happiness is to be enjoyed, is sometimes signified under the image of a kingdom, and expressed by such terms as the kingdom of God, of Christ, of heaven."

This very interesting dissertation is concluded by some general reflections arising out of the preceding inquiry, and illustrating several passages of scripture connected with the principal subject of it.

We are next presented with a short illustration of the *Discourse of Jesus with Nicodemus*, John iii. 1. 19.

As a key to this discourse, Mr. Cappe explains the phrase, *to see, or to enter into the kingdom of God*; as signifying to become a teacher or minister of that kingdom, a partaker of its powers and honours. *To be born again* is a phrase of similar import. *To be born of water and the spirit*, is "publicly to acknowledge the Messiah, and to be publicly acknowledged by the ceremony of baptism as not unfit for intercourse

with his people; and to receive those supernatural qualifications which were requisite for the ministry of his kingdom." *Earthly things* are what Jesus had lately spoken to the people concerning his death and resurrection from the dead; *heavenly things* are those of which he was now speaking to Nicodemus, the extraordinary powers with which the preaching of his doctrine was to be accompanied. Verse the 13th is considered as manifestly parenthetic, the observation of the evangelist, occasioned by the remark in the preceding verse, and containing a declaration of the accomplishment of his master's prediction, concerning the gifts of the Holy Spirit. With verse the 15th the discourse of Jesus is supposed to conclude, and "the following verses are the remarks of the writer on the last topic of the discourse (viz. the exaltation of the Messiah) the truth of which, and therefore the truth of all that is connected with it, he observes, is put beyond doubt *now* by facts well known, and that cannot be disputed."

The next dissertation is entitled *Christ in the Form of God*; and is a laboured explanation of Philip, ii. 6, 12; a passage which has long exercised the learning and ingenuity of commentators. Our readers, undoubtedly, well know, that one great subject of dispute in this passage, is the proper translation of that part of it, which in our version is rendered, "*He thought it not robbery to be equal with God*"; one party maintaining that the words in the original cannot be justly construed in any other manner; and another contending that they should be rendered, *He thought not of the robbery of being equal with God*; or by words similar to these: the one referring this phrase to the dignity, the other to the humiliation of Christ. The former translation has been maintained by the advocates for the divine nature of the Messiah; the latter, by those who believe in his simple humanity. Mr. Cappe, though a decided Unitarian, adopts the former of these; and considers the clause as referring to the dignity of Christ.

The dissertation is divided into two parts. The first of which is devoted to the explanation of the whole passage; and the second, to the defence of the common rendering of the terms  $\alpha\gamma\alpha\theta\iota\sigma\mu\acute{o}\varsigma$   $\epsilon\iota\sigma\eta\lambda\theta\epsilon\iota\varsigma$ .

The meaning of the whole passage is collected from the import of the several terms. "*To be in the form of God*, is a phrase," Mr. C. observes, "that may be applied if not to *every* prophet that goes forth from God with messages of his to mankind, yet to *any one* who, having himself received messages for men from God, sends forth others to convey those messages to their destination," p. 229. Instances to prove this are selected from the Old Testament. *To be equal with God*, is no more than to be like God, But in ver. 7, is rendered *yet*; and the terms *men* and *man* in ver. 7 and 8, are considered as denoting persons of mean and low condition. The sense, therefore, which Mr. C. gives to the passage is this: "Let the same mind be in you which was in Christ Jesus, who, being divinely authorized to send forth prophets or teachers into the world, as God had sent him, did actually exercise this authority; and thought it no infringement of what he owed to God to assume it. Nevertheless he was eminently meek and lowly of heart, condescended to be as a servant among his disciples, did not at all affect to be above the lowest class of mankind; and declined not even a violent, unjust, and ignominious death, such as is appropriated to the meanest rank of the most atrocious criminals. Thus he humbled himself. Wherefore God hath highly exalted him, and bestowed upon him an honour which no human or angelic being ever enjoyed; so that by his name, by means of the Holy Spirit shed forth by him, as the proof of his exaltation, on his disciples, all authority is about to be put down, whether of that dispensation which was ordained by the ministry of angels, or the authority of civil government, or of idol deities, and people of every language are praising God for the conviction they have thus received that Jesus is the Christ."

In the second part Mr. C. states, with considerable force, the reasons which induce him to object to the giving of the clause, *thought it not robbery*, &c. a sense which refers to the humility rather than to the dignity of Christ. He observes, that it is ineffectual, as similar things are said elsewhere; that it is unnecessary, because the term translated *equal* cannot possibly signify more than *similitude*; that it is contrary to the tenor of the apostle's argument; that the word

ἀπαγγελίᾳ will not bear the sense thus applied to it; and that such an interpretation has no support from ancient Greek writers. An appeal, however, having been made by Dr. Lardner, in order to justify this interpretation, to a passage in Heliodorus, to one in the letter from the Gallic churches, preserved in Eusebius, and to several in Origen; these are examined by Mr. C. with considerable skill, and shewn to bear the meaning commonly applied to the term in the passage to the Philippians.

In the *Paraphrase and Exposition of John, v. 16, to the end*, which follows; the author considers the resurrection there spoken of, to be a spiritual resurrection, an awakening of the then incredulous to faith in him, by means of the extraordinary powers bestowed upon his ministers.

The volume concludes with *A Commentary on the Sixth Chapter of John*. Of this our limits will allow us to say no more than that Mr. C. considers the obscurity which prevails in it designed by our Lord "to revolt those among his hearers whose ambition would have led them to proclaim him a king;" that he interprets the famous 62nd verse of the resurrection of Jesus; and supposes the terms, eating his flesh and drinking his blood, to denote the future acknowledgment of his being the Messiah, in consequence of events which should succeed *his death and resurrection*.

The second volume opens with *An Exposition of the Lord's Prayer*. The introductory observations are very excellent; and we recommend them to the attention of every one who wishes to understand the scriptures.

"The Lord's Prayer, like the sermon on the mount, as it is called, has been considered contrary to evidence, and, without any just foundation for the notion, as intended directly for the use of all Christians, indiscriminately, in every age of the world, and in every circumstance. That they were intended for the use of all Christians, is not the point I should contest: what I doubt is, whether they were intended for their use *directly*. This idea has been too hastily taken up, concerning the scriptures in general. For the use of men at large, undoubtedly, they were intended; but in the way of inference, application, and accommodation, not in their first and immediate aim. The things related by the historians, and written by the authors of the Epistles, were connected with particular occasions, and referred

to particular objects, were clothed in certain definite circumstances, and took their use from peculiar, singular events. To these they referred in their first and immediate intention; and in *that* reference were without any limitation, not signified in the terms or manner of the speaker; in their whole extent just, right, and wise. So far as *other* cases approach to an entire similitude to the cases in question, to which the words originally allude, so far they are completely applicable; equally pertinent, and obligatory as in their first direction. And so far as the terms are capable of expressing, with perspicuity and good effect, ideas different from those which were originally annexed to them; in the mind of the speaker; provided this be not given for the original import of them, so far they may be converted to a different purpose, and made use of by as many as can find them capable of yielding them that advantage. Thus, the writers of the New Testament have often availed themselves of the language, the narratives, and sayings of the Old. But surely, no cautious and sober-minded man would assert concerning any of the cases to which the sayings were applicable, or concerning any sense of *another* speaker, which the terms might be used to express, that *this* was the *true* import of the terms; that they *related* in the mind of the original speaker, to the objects to which they were thus applicable; or that the sayings were *meant* for all to whom they could afterwards, at any time, in this manner be addressed."

Upon these principles Mr. C. endeavours to prove, that every petition in the Lord's Prayer had a peculiar reference to the circumstances of the first disciples; yet is capable of a construction which will justify the use of this formulary by Christians of the present day. This, like some other of the dissertations, seems to have formed the subjects of some discourses from the pulpit, and is accordingly accompanied with reflections of a moral and practical nature.

The following paper contains an *Explanation of the History of the Temptation of Christ, with Notes and Reflections*.

Conversant with the figurative language of the East, and forming the most enlightened views of the nature of the divine government, the author hesitates not to reject, as a manifest absurdity, and a libel upon the character of the supreme moral governor, the interpretation which supposes the tempter to be a real personage, and one of many fallen angels; nor does he call in the aid of that hypothesis which considers

the whole transaction to have passed only in a vision of the night, "when deep sleep falleth upon men." He considers it as a figurative representation of what passed in the mind of Jesus, weakened by long abstinence, and brooding in the deep solitude of the desert, over the magnificent things that had lately befallen him, and which would naturally lead him to expect circumstances very different from those in which he had been for so many days irresistibly placed. Full of anxiety and doubt, he is tempted to make repeated trials of that protection and patronage of God, which he was assured would be ever afforded to the Messiah: but, recurring at every suggestion of this evil nature, to the principles and precepts of the sacred writings, he at length subdues the temptation, recovers a more calm and submissive disposition, and resolves to await the time which his Father should appoint, for exhibiting him in the character he was destined to sustain.

This ingenious explication is supported by several judicious notes; and the whole is concluded by some very beautiful and eloquent reflections.

The elaborate *Dissertation on Baptism* is designed to shew, that this rite was intended to be a public declaration on the part of those who submitted to it, that they were desirous of being instructed in the principles which the person who administered it professed to teach, and a willingness on his part to receive them under his instruction. Various passages of scripture connected with this subject are ably illustrated, and particularly that well known formula, Matt. xxviii. 19. As connected with this dissertation there follows,

A paraphrase on *John's Address to those who came to be baptised, and his Exhortation*. This affords the author an opportunity of still further illustrating the ideas he had unfolded in the preceding paper concerning repentance, and of explaining some passages in which that term occurs.

Next to this the editor has judiciously placed, *Reflections on the Mission of John the Baptist*; the object of which is to shew that his testimony was prophetic itself, as well as the accomplishment of prophecy; to account for its not being accompanied with the power of working miracles, and to prove the propriety and importance of such a testimony, borne

to such a character as the Messiah, and amidst such a people as the Jews.

A *Commentary on Matt. v. 17, 20*; in which it is shewn, that the abolition of the Mosaic law was not designed to be effected by Jesus Christ, but the necessary consequence of the destruction of the Jewish capital and temple, may be considered as introductory to a longer paper, entitled,

*Idea of Judaism*. This is divided into two parts; the first of which is employed in the examination of the peculiar end and objects of that dispensation. "The essential principle of the Jewish economy," it is observed, "was, that this people, as a nation, should be secure and prosperous, while they obeyed the civil and religious constitutions of their country; endangered and distressed, when they departed from them, or neglected them" (p. 197); so that the correspondence of their fate with their character, might be an exhibition of the moral government of God: an object which, it is here distinctly proved, could not have been attained by affording a sensible specimen of God's moral government, either in individuals, or in the world at large; or in respect of moral virtue, or of internal comfort. Having endeavoured, we think not without success, to establish these truths, Mr. C. proceeds to demonstrate the wisdom which appeared in the appointment of the time, the place, and the previous circumstances of the people destined for this service. The second part is occupied in considering the wise design exhibited in the nature of the constitution, which separated this chosen people from the rest of the world, and attracted the attention of surrounding people to their character and their fate; an effect which it is thought must have been produced, owing to the connexions of the Jews with neighbouring nations. These connexions are pointed out in an appendix to this paper. As in some measure connected with this dissertation, some remarks are next presented to us,

*On the interest of distant churches in the visitation of Jerusalem and Judea, (viz. the destruction of the capital) and on the propriety of mentioning this visitation in the apostolical epistles to distant churches.*

In the two succeeding papers, the one entitled, *A Paraphrase on 1 Thess. iv. 13 to the end, and ch. v. 1, 12*: the other, *On the future Life of Man*: the singularity

of the author's opinions is more particularly conspicuous. His object is to shew, that many passages which are commonly supposed to refer to a future resurrection of the body, have no reference to such an event; that the notion of a simultaneous resurrection of mankind has no countenance from scripture; and that the future life of man begins immediately, or soon after death. There are few, it may be, to whom the interpretations here given will appear just, or the arguments founded upon them conclusive. But the contrary hypothesis is certainly not without its difficulties; and an attempt to establish a position which is consonant with the common feelings of our nature, is deserving at least of respectful attention, and of calm inquiry.

To this dissertation succeeds a brief commentary on those passages of scripture which contain the phrase, *the name of Christ*; and the work concludes with an exhibition of *Christian principles deduced from scripture, for the purpose of assisting in the right interpretation of it, and of promoting a steady and enlightened faith in it*. Of this it is not possible, nor necessary, to say more than that it brings within a narrower compass the doctrines of the preceding pages, and may be regarded as comprising the leading articles of the author's creed.

Our readers will now be able, in a great measure, to appreciate the work which has engaged so much of our attention. We have treated it with much

respect; but not with more than it deserves. The sentiments it contains are, indeed, novel; but they lead to important consequences. We wish to see them fully examined. Truth cannot fail to be a gainer by the discussion of topics which appear to have occupied, during a long life, the mind of one who, by laborious study, had earned the reputation of being "mighty in the scriptures."

This work is enriched by *Memoirs of the Life of the Author*, drawn up by Mrs. Cappe. We have seldom been more pleased or instructed than by the perusal of these memoirs. The life of Mr. Cappe, like that of most studious men, afforded only scanty materials for the pen of his biographer; yet these, scanty as they are, she has so worked up, as to give them the highest and unceasing interest. Every person of taste will find, in these introductory pages, the purest gratification; while the man of reflection and of piety, will gain no little aid to the improvement of his dispositions, and the confirmation of his virtue. Several extracts are given from the MS. sermons of the author, which fully justify the high character he sustained for piety and eloquence. The very able editor has afforded us reason to hope for the publication of some of her late husband's discourses; and we will venture to assure her, that she can not perform a service more acceptable to the public, or more useful to the cause of religion and virtue.

ART. IV. *The Triumphs of Christianity over Infidelity displayed, or the Coming of the Messiah, the true Key to the right Understanding of the most difficult Passages in the New Testament, &c.* By N. NISBETT, A. M. Small 8vo. pp. 276.

THIS work may be considered as a republication of two former treatises, written by the same author; the one published in 1789, entitled, *An Illustration of various important Passages in the Epistles of the New Testament, &c.*; the other entitled, *The Scripture Doctrine concerning the coming of Christ, unfolded upon Principles which are allowed to be common to the Jews, both in ancient and modern Times*; of which, we believe, only the first part was printed, and which was published in the year 1792. These now appear in an enlarged and more perfect form, and exhibit, in one connected view, a subject of great importance both to the interests

of Christianity, and to the elucidation of many passages in scripture, which the advocates of revelation have not understood, and the unbeliever has urged to justify his scepticism. These passages relate to the coming of the Messiah, an event which has been thought by many to form a part of the predictions which are said to be contained in scripture concerning the end of the world, and a general judgment. The language of the scoffers in the days of the apostle Peter has been deemed even by Christians as not unreasonable, and adopted by unbelievers as the language of triumph. "Where is the promise of his



coming? For since the fathers fell asleep, all things continue as they were from the beginning of the creation." So said the sceptics in the apostolic age. "In the primitive church," says the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, "the influence of truth was very powerfully strengthened by an opinion, which, however it may deserve respect for its usefulness and antiquity, has not been found to be agreeable to experience. It was universally believed, that the end of the world, and the kingdom of heaven, were at hand. The near approach of this wonderful event had been predicted by the apostles; the tradition of it was preserved by their earliest disciples; and those who understood, in their literal sense, the discourses of Christ himself, were obliged to expect the second and glorious coming of the son of man in the clouds, before that generation was totally extinguished, which had beheld his humble condition upon earth. Yet the revolution of seventeen centuries has instructed us not to press too closely the language of prophecy and revelation. But as long as for wise purposes, this error was permitted to subsist in the church, it was productive of the most salutary effects on the faith and practice of Christians, who lived in the awful expectation of that moment when the globe itself, and all the various race of mankind, should tremble at the appearance of their divine judge."

"What renders this objection more formidable," observes Mr. Nisbett, "is, that it really contains nothing more than is to be met with in the writings of Christians themselves; and of those too of no small eminence for their knowledge of the sacred writings;" p. 6. The orthodox Lowth, father of the celebrated translator of Isaiah, confesses, without reserve, that the apostles were mistaken. Grotius insinuates that, for wise purposes, the pious deception was permitted to take place: the present bishop of Landaff is not extremely solicitous to relieve the apostles from the accusation of error: and a learned university preacher recommends the advocate of Christianity to concede the objection to the adversary.

While the champions of the gospel are thus flying from the field, and leaving this Goliath to insult even the armies of the living God, the author of the

work now before us comes boldly forward, "having his loins girt about with truth, and wielding the sword of the spirit, which is the word of God," and despoils the foe of the armour in which he boasted.

"If the gospel history be genuine, it must be a history of the controversy between Jesus and the Jews; not only whether Jesus himself was *the Messiah*, but what was the true nature of the Messiah's character; the one supposing that he would be a temporal prince to raise them to universal empire; the other declaring that his kingdom was not of this world, but was wholly of a spiritual nature. Such being the acknowledged sentiments and prejudices of the whole Jewish nation in general, and of the disciples of Jesus in particular, concerning the nature of that kingdom which he had announced to be *at hand*; it must be evident, that the primary object of Jesus, in the exercises of the duties of his office, must have been to give, both to the one and the other, such proofs of his being *the Messiah*, as the real nature of that character would admit of; such as were sufficient to satisfy an impartial inquirer; such, in a word, as would have a tendency, gradually, to correct their prejudices, without too severely wounding their feelings! And, what mode of conduct was it proper for him, as a wise man, to pursue, in order to ensure these important purposes? The extreme delicacy of the situation of Jesus, and the difficulties which he had to encounter in consequence of those prejudices, in unfolding to them the true nature of his character, must, from his very entrance upon his public ministry, be sufficiently evident. Every one must immediately perceive, from a due consideration of the nature of the expectations of the Jews, at the time of his appearance, the absolute necessity which Jesus was under, of acting with the utmost prudence and circumspection; of his being very sparing of his declarations, on the one hand, that he was himself the Messiah; lest the too great eagerness of the people should frustrate the important purposes which he had in view: and on the other, lest, while he checked their ardour, he should totally destroy their hopes of his being the Messiah, by not giving them the necessary assurance of his coming in that character, and thereby induce them to forsake him. If this was the mode of conduct which it was natural for Jesus to pursue, and, if it was the only one which it was possible for him, in such circumstances, to pursue with success, it will follow, as a necessary consequence, that it is the only view in which the gospel history can possibly be studied, to the fullest advantage. The New Testament has sometimes been termed a sealed book, and the numerous and unsuccessful controversies concerning its genuine meaning, has but too much

justified the use of this epithet; but, if the gospel history be examined, in the manner here proposed, as a *history of the proofs which Jesus exhibited of his being the Messiah, and of the manner of his producing those proofs*; the judicious and attentive reader will not only be furnished with an important fund of entertainment and instruction, which no other method of studying the New Testament can possibly afford him; but he will have a sure clue to the right understanding of it, particularly upon the subject of the objections of the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, respecting the coming of Christ, which cannot fail to produce the highest and most heartfelt satisfaction, to all who are competent judges of the nature of evidence.

"If the gospel history be thus examined," Mr. Nisbett continues to remark, "the judicious and attentive reader cannot fail to observe, the most unequivocal and decisive proofs of our Lord's having conducted himself in such a manner, as to consult, with an unexampled tenderness and humanity, the prejudices of his countrymen, and at the same time to check the eagerness which naturally arose from the extreme ardour of their expectations of the coming of the Messiah as a temporal prince! Far from being forward in declaring himself to be the Messiah, even to his most intimate friends and associates; it was highly to the credit of his character, and an unequivocal proof of his consummate wisdom and prudence, that, in general, he left this to be inferred, from the excellence of the doctrines which he taught, from the many wonderful works which he performed, and from the perfect purity and integrity of his moral and religious conduct. Occasionally however, and as circumstances and events more particularly required, he gave them the most direct and unequivocal assurances of the coming of the Messiah, which answered the purpose of keeping up their expectations of his coming in that character, and of insuring their attachment to him, until, by the full disclosure of the important, and particularly interesting events which were to take place during his abode upon earth, they should be led to perceive, how much they had mistaken the nature of his character. And it is particularly worthy of remark, that even when Jesus did think it necessary to make these assurances of the coming of the Messiah, it was in a language the most cautious and guarded that can well be imagined. For example, he did not say, Ye shall not have gone over the cities of Israel before I shall declare myself to be the Messiah; but ye shall not have gone over the cities of Israel till the Son of Man, the Messiah, be come. He did not say, there be some standing here who shall not taste of death till they see me coming in my kingdom; but till they see the Son of Man coming in his kingdom."

But as it is not the object of the writer to amuse the reader with a fanciful theory, or to present him with a romantic, but ill founded, view of the gospel history, he proceeds to examine the gospels themselves, and to shew that "they afford unquestionable proofs of our Lord's having conducted himself in the manner before described."

In the tenth chapter of Matthew's gospel, Jesus is represented as investing the twelve with extraordinary powers, and giving them a commission to announce to their countrymen the approach of the Messiah's kingdom. One passage in that chapter is much to Mr. Nisbett's purpose, and his remarks upon it are pertinent and forcible. "When they persecute you," said our Lord, "in this city, flee to another; for verily I say unto you, ye shall not have gone over the cities of Israel, till the Son of Man be come."

"It is not easy," observes our author, "to imagine that the disciples of Jesus could, in such circumstances as have been described, have entertained any other idea, of *his coming*, here mentioned, than of *the coming of the Messiah*, or of *the kingdom*, which he had announced to be *at hand*; for to that coming, it is evident, beyond all reasonable dispute, their whole attention was originally directed. With a belief that Jesus might possibly be the Messiah, they had joined him, and they lent a willing and anxious attention to his instructions upon that head, in the hope that he would give them such information as they wanted; and the very circumstance of their having been invested with a commission to announce its approach, naturally led them to understand *the coming of the Son of Man*, in the sense of *the coming of the Messiah*. As ye go, preach, saying, the kingdom of heaven is at hand. And here, in the 23d verse, he tells them, most evidently, for their encouragement to perseverance in the faithful discharge of their duty, in the midst of uncommon difficulties, that *they should not have gone over the cities of Israel, till the Son of Man, the Messiah, came*. What can deserve the name of demonstration of the true meaning of a writer, if this does not—or how can any other sense be possibly put upon the expression, *the coming of the Son of Man*, and more especially, in this connexion, than the coming of the Messiah, without violating all the rules of good writing, and rendering it impossible to ascertain what his real meaning was? If Jesus had meant, by this phrase, as has been contended, *the second and glorious coming of the Son of Man in the clouds, to judge all mankind, at the last day*; it would at that period, at least, have been utterly impossible for the

disciples to have understood him : and what is still more striking, and is particularly worthy of observation, is, that if they can be supposed to have so understood him, they must have immediately, and without hesitation, forsaken him, as an impostor; as not answering their expectations; for they then, most incontestably, entertained ideas which were totally incompatible with such an event. Nor is it easy to imagine, how any one, claiming the character of the Messiah, should have had the most distant conception of such an event taking place, in his own time, any more than his followers; much less that, in a series of arguments manifestly intended for their encouragement, under peculiar difficulties, he would have made use of one which, from the very nature of it, must either have been wholly unintelligible to them, or must have had a direct tendency to discourage all their expectations of his being *the Messiah*."

The 24th and 25th chapters of Matthew furnish much ground for inquiry, and the author's remarks are curious and interesting; and to our mind, in general, satisfactory. The latter of these chapters is commonly supposed to contain three distinct parables; the two first of which are allowed to refer to the coming of Christ to the destruction of Jerusalem; while the third is considered as relating wholly to a future general judgment. This has long appeared to us an inconsistency, and utterly unwarranted by the phraseology there employed. Mr. Nisbett has very happily solved the difficulty, by representing the 25th chapter as properly divided into two parables: the first being the parable of *the virgins*; the second, of *the traveller*; with which the concluding verses of the chapter, generally considered as referring to a different subject, are no more than a comparison.

"When it is considered," observes Mr. Nisbett, p. 142, "that the whole of the long discourse in the 24th chapter was delivered only four days prior to our Lord's crucifixion, and in consequence of the inquiry of the disciples when, as the Messiah, he should come and establish his kingdom; that he assured them, verses 33, 34, that his kingdom would come in that generation; that he connected the full manifestation of the nature of his coming with the destruction of Jerusalem; and that this awful event would fully demonstrate, that the kingdom, which they so earnestly expected, was not a temporal, but a spiritual kingdom; and particularly that he directed them to be in a constant state of watchfulness, for these important and interesting events, when all these things are fully and impartially considered,

it will, perhaps, appear by no means improbable or unnatural to suppose that our Lord, in the parable which immediately follows, intended to direct his disciples to pay particular attention to the importance of the new situation in which they would then be placed in a moral and religious view, rather than to those temporal and worldly objects which they had, till then, so constantly connected with the coming of the Messiah, and particularly as they would be answerable for the improvement or neglect of the advantages which that new situation would afford them, v. 14. For he, to wit, the Son of Man, is as a man travelling into a far country, who called his own servants, and delivered unto them his goods: and unto one he gave five talents, to another two, and to another one; to every man according to his several or particular abilities, and immediately took his journey.

"The judicious reader can scarcely entertain a doubt, that in this parable a resemblance is asserted between a *traveller* and *the Son of Man*; but for what purpose is this comparison instituted, if not to shew that the resemblance was a striking one? And this it will appear to be in these three respects; first, in *his departure* into a far country, or his ascension into heaven; for there does not appear to be any part of his history in which this resemblance can be traced, but that. Secondly, in *his return*, after a long absence, or at some far distant period, viz. from *heaven*; agreeable to the prophetic declaration of the angels after his ascension, Acts i. 11. *This same Jesus who is taken up from you into heaven, shall so come, in like manner, as ye have seen him go into heaven*. And thirdly, in his reckoning with his own servants, as the traveller is represented to have done with *his*; or, in other words, his calling all men to an account for their conduct during his absence.

"Upon all these accounts the analogy between our Lord and the traveller appears to be very striking, and the parable seems to have been admirably fitted to the great purposes which Jesus, throughout his whole ministry, appears to have had more immediately in view, namely, to unfold to them the various events which were to happen, as they were able to bear them; to correct, in the most gradual gentle manner, the prejudices of his disciples, concerning *the nature of the Messiah's kingdom*, and by these means to draw their attention to *his coming* under *the character of the Messiah*; not as they imagined, as the founder of a mighty temporal kingdom, but of a *kingdom of righteousness*, a moral and religious system, which was to train them to virtue and goodness, and to fit them for a state of immortal happiness in a future world."

The language of the 41st and 46th verses required some more particular

notice; and we regret that Mr. Nisbett has not shewn, what we are persuaded he might have done with little difficulty, that it presents no obstacle to the interpretation he has adopted.

After having carefully examined all the passages in the writings of the evangelists which relate to the coming of Christ, Mr. Nisbett says,

"Let the judicious and impartial reader now determine, from the evidence which has at large been laid before him in the preceding pages, and even from this short abstract, whether his *first* or his *second coming* is to be understood in these discourses of Christ, and let him pronounce sentence upon the *truth* or *falsehood* of Christianity, as his cool and deliberate judgment shall direct him. While the Christian records possess such ample evidence of the truth of the case, no apprehension, it may with confidence be affirmed, needs to be entertained, as to the consequences of such a decision! If the gospels be examined, with that accuracy and precision to which they are, on all accounts, justly entitled, as histories, and as histories containing the genuine evidences of the real nature of the Messiah's character, in opposition to that which the Jewish nation had formed of it, no sound and impartial reasoner will think it necessary to concede the objection to the adversary. However imperfect the preceding view of the subject may be, enough of evidence has been adduced to render it in the highest degree probable that no such meaning was ever intended by our Lord, as *that he should come again in person, in that generation, to judge all mankind!*"

"But the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," Mr. Nisbett goes on to observe, "has not only charged our Lord with having asserted, that the second coming of the Son of Man in the clouds, to judge all mankind, would be in that generation; but, as was very naturally to be expected from such a charge, he has farther declared, that 'the near approach of that wonderful event had likewise been predicted by the apostles! And he has principally grounded this assertion upon the First Epistle to the Thessalonians,' p. 166.

This leads therefore to a careful investigation of this epistle, and of such passages in the other epistles as are liable, through misinterpretation, to be referred to any other event than the destruction of the Jewish capital. This inquiry is conducted with great skill and judgment, and "establishes such a de-

lightful harmony between them and the gospels, and so completely does away all suspicion of the authors of them having expected the *end of the world* in their time, that the mouth of infidelity must become dumb, and the credit of the apostles established, as being well acquainted with the doctrine of their great master with respect to *his coming*, and with the extensive designs of Christianity with respect to future ages," p. 258.

In the midst of so much just and accurate interpretation of scripture, we were greatly surprised to meet with the following passage, p. 69: "He (Jesus) then adds, nearly in the same language which he had used in ch. x. 25, *whosoever will save his life, by meanly shrinking from his duty, on account of any such sufferings, shall lose it; and whosoever shall lose his life for my sake shall find it.* In the two following verses, the superior advantages of preferring duty to interest, however extensive, are set in the strongest light which it is in the power of language to convey; for, says our Lord, *what is a man profited, if he shall gain the whole world, and lose his own soul; or what shall a man give in exchange for his soul?* No equivalent for it can be found in the whole universe of God. He then concludes the argument by telling them, that their conduct in the discharge of their duty would be the subject of a future reckoning; for, says he, ver. 27, *the Son of Man shall come in the glory of his Father with his angels, and then he shall reward every man according to his works.* Nothing can be more evident to an attentive reader, than that the disciples of Jesus are here directed to a *state of happiness in a future world, &c.*"

We apprehend that no such direction is here intended; and we are astonished that Mr. Nisbett should have overlooked the succeeding verse, or, not having overlooked it, that he should have departed so widely from the principles which it has been his object to establish, as to refer these words to any other event than the destruction of Jerusalem. "*Verily I say unto you,*" declares our Lord, immediately after the words above quoted, "*there are some standing here who shall not taste of death, till they see the Son of Man coming in his kingdom.*" Mr. Nisbett appears to us to have been led into this error by the terms *lose his own soul* and *in exchange for his soul*. But

from this error the canon proposed by the learned university preacher, and which he has quoted with so much approbation, p. 112, might have preserved him. "Whenever the same word," says Dr. Edwards, "is used in the same sentence, or in different sentences, not far distant from each other; we ought to interpret it precisely in the same sense, unless either that sense should involve a contradiction of ideas, or the writer expressly informs us that he repeats the word in a fresh acceptation." Now Mr. Nisbett cannot fail to know, that the original word is the same in the 25th and the 26th verses, though in the former it is translated *life*, and in the latter *soul*. According to Dr. Edwards, it should have the same signification in both passages; and we hesitate not to affirm, that it has. Pearce and Newcome have so rendered it; but the latter appears not to have clearly understood our Lord's meaning. We beg leave to submit our opinion to Mr. Nisbett's consideration. The predictions of Jesus concerning his future sufferings at Jerusalem, had caused some offence to his disciples, who were daily expecting that he would assume the temporal power to which they imagined he was destined. Peter ventured to express the feelings of himself and his fellow disciples on the occasion. His master rebuked him, and endeavoured gently to draw off their affections from worldly objects. 'Ye see,' said he to them, 'the hardships which I

endure, and if ye continue in my service, these, and more than these, must fall to your share. In some degree ye now partake of my sufferings; but when by the hands of wicked men I shall have been removed from you, ye will be exposed to yet greater trials. Seek not to escape them by deserting the cause in which ye have embarked; for this will assuredly bring upon you a greater calamity in the desolation that awaits your country. Continue steadfast in your profession; and, though ye attain not to worldly honour, ye will save your lives, in that day when your enemies shall miserably perish. The sacrifice ye make may be great; but what does a prudent man value more than life, or what recompence can he receive in this world for the loss of so great a blessing? As ye value your lives, therefore, take up the cross and follow me: for the Son of Man will come with great power, to the destruction of the unbelievers, and the security of his friends; and this generation shall not pass till he has thus recompensed these two different classes of men, into which the inhabitants of this land will then be divided.'

Such appears to us the sense of a passage which we conceive is generally misunderstood. We now take leave of Mr. Nisbett, whose interesting work we earnestly recommend to the diligent perusal not only of the sceptic, but of every friend to Christian truth.

ART. V. *Introduction to the New Testament*, by JOHN DAVID MICHAELIS, late Professor in the University of Gottingen, &c. Translated from the fourth Edition of the German, and considerably augmented with Notes, and a Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of the Three first Gospels. By HERBERT MARSH, B.D. F.R.S. Second edition, 4 vols. 8vo.

CONFINING our attention to the literature of the year, we have little more concern with the volumes now before us, than to offer our sincere congratulations to every friend of learning and religion, upon the appearance of a second edition of a work so replete with curious and valuable information: the fruit of the united labour and talents of two such eminent scholars as Michaelis and Marsh. The suffrage which the work has thus obtained from our countrymen, leads us to hope, that the love of Oriental literature will be confirmed and increased, and that our divines will

be as eminently distinguished for theological learning, as they are for classical literature and science.

We have carefully collated the present with the preceding edition. The translator's notes to the two first volumes, have received a few corrections and additions, but none of consequence sufficient to claim our particular notice. We lament, in common with many others, that the learned editor has been prevented from completing his annotations upon the two last volumes of this important work. His commentary on the author's text, at present extends no



further than the three first gospels. In his remarks upon the remaining books of the New Testament, the Professor has brought forwards many subjects of interesting inquiry; in the investigation of which the biblical student will often require the aid of that extensive erudition, and accurate discrimination, which so eminently distinguish the former part of the translator's labours. We sincerely hope, therefore, that the period is not far distant, when Mr. Marsh will be able to resume his theological studies, and to give to the world the continuation of those admirable criticisms upon the late Professor's valuable

work, by which he has justly obtained the reputation of a profound scholar and a sound divine.

To the notes upon the three first evangelists, Mr. Marsh has added *A Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of the Three first Canonical Gospels*. This elaborate performance contains so much matter of a novel kind, and is so contradictory to the opinions which have been generally embraced upon the subject of it, that the learned author must have been prepared to see many of his positions controverted. One adversary has already appeared, in a small work which we shall now proceed to notice.

ART. VI. *Remarks on "Michaelis's Introduction to the New Testament, Vols. iii. iv. translated by the Rev. HERBERT MARSH, and augmented with Notes." By way of Caution to Students in Divinity.* 8vo: pp. 43.

HAVING expressed his fears lest the "minute researches" of Michaelis and his translator, should prove injurious to the young and inexperienced, shewn the danger which harmonists incur of doing violence to the narrative of the evangelists, in order to force all its parts into an exact method; and endeavoured to vindicate Luke from the implied charge of the Professor, that he did not write by inspiration; the anonymous author of these remarks ventures upon the attack of the translator's formidable dissertation. He objects to the hypothesis which it is designed to establish, because it appears to want simplicity; and to represent the divine evangelists as "the mere copiers of copyists, the compilers from former compilations, from a farrago of gospels, or parts of gospels, of unknown authority every one of them." He denies, that, in part of it, it can be defended by testimony; and asserts, that "the silence of the christian church, and of the whole series of christian writers, amounts to a direct contradiction of such a document as the author of the dissertation supposes, having ever existed. He next charges Mr. Marsh with having endeavoured to fabricate to himself some little matter of confirmation of his hypothesis, by quoting the *τὰν δαδικὰ ευαγγέλιον*, and a supposed work, called *Ἀπομνημονεύματα τῶν Ἀποστόλων*; the former of which he regards as spurious, and the latter, he asserts, is expressly mentioned by Justin Martyr

as the four gospels now extant. He thinks that the difficulty respecting the verbal agreement of the three evangelists, which first led Mr. M. to frame his hypothesis of a common document, is misrepresented, or much exaggerated; and observes, that almost all the instances of verbal agreement, are taken from the speeches or discourses of our Lord: a circumstance which appears to him to offer a much more reasonable solution of the difficulty, than that which has been invented by the translator of Michaelis.

That the evangelists wrote from a common document, therefore, he does not deny, "but that document was no other than the preaching of our blessed Lord himself," whose discourses, he thinks, "might often have been repeated in the Greek, before they were committed to writing. He then points out several incidents mentioned by Luke alone, which, he says, "the hypothesis of compilation leaves unaccounted for;" and concludes by briefly noticing the objections of Michaelis to the authenticity of the apocalypse.

This pamphlet, feeble in argument, and frequently defective in style, has been considered by Mr. Marsh, principally perhaps on account of some severe charges levelled not only against his hypothesis, but also against himself, as deserving of particular notice; and an answer has accordingly appeared under the following title.

**ART. VII.** *Letters to the Anonymous Author of Remarks on Michaelis and his Commentator, relating especially to the Dissertation on the Origin and Composition of our Three first Canonical Gospels.* By HERBERT MARSH, B. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. pp. 39.

IN these letters Mr. Marsh undertakes "a regular and systematic Defence of the Dissertation," but with a particular reference to the preceding article. To the objection, that the hypothesis is destitute of simplicity, he replies, that in a *relative* sense it is a very simple one. The assertion, that, according to this hypothesis, the three first evangelists are mere copiers of copyists, &c. he asserts, is a gross misrepresentation, as he has supposed the document from which the evangelists formed their histories, to consist of communications made by the apostles; a work, therefore, of good authority, and he believes, that by establishing this point, new support is given to the authority, credibility, and integrity, of the gospels. He contends, that one part, at least, of his hypothesis, viz. ; that St. Matthew wrote his gospel in Hebrew, is confirmed by the voice of all antiquity; and if it be allowed, that it is silent respecting common Hebrew documents, that this is easily to be accounted for, by the acknowledged ignorance of the Hebrew language, which prevailed among the Christian fathers, the destruction of Jerusalem, and the devastation of Palestine, and the necessary superseding of the original by more complete works, to which it served as a basis. The accusation of having fabricated evidence in support of the hypothesis, is a serious charge, but very successfully repelled. Nothing can be more clear and explicit, than the words of Mr. Marsh, in his Dissertation concerning the *Των δώδεκ ἐναγγελίων*, and the *Απομνημονεύματα των Αποστόλων*; and the anonymous remarker has laid himself open to the imputation either of such carelessness as totally disqualifies him for the arduous task he has undertaken, or of disingenuousness

highly discreditable in a professed friend of religion and of truth. In a long note in this part of the pamphlet before us, it is proved, that "Justin's *Απομνημονεύματα* were not our four gospels, but some *single* gospel; and many curious remarks are offered upon the accuracy of that early writer's quotations. Upon the hypothesis which has been adopted by the remarker, in opposition to that which is maintained in the Dissertation, Mr. M. observes, "You are forced at last to admit 'a common document,' though, in order to have the appearance of differing from me, you contend, that this common document was no other than 'the preaching of our blessed Lord himself.' Is not then the preaching of Christ himself an original document, according to my hypothesis? Most assuredly it is. There is, indeed, one material difference between us, that according to my hypothesis, the preaching of Christ was committed to *writing* from communications made by the apostles, whereas according to your hypothesis, it was abandoned to the uncertain vehicle of *oral tradition*. According to my hypothesis, the preaching of Christ was rescued from those fluctuations which are the unavoidable consequence of mere verbal repetition; whereas, according to your hypothesis, nothing short of a perpetual miracle could have rescued it from corruption." p. 35. This hypothesis Mr. Marsh proceeds critically to examine.

We consider this little pamphlet as an able defence of the Dissertation; and if we are inclined to condemn the asperity by which it is marked, we are, at the same time, ready to allow, that it is not altogether unprovoked.

**ART. VIII.** *The Evidence for the Authenticity and Divine Inspiration of the Apocalypse, stated; and vindicated from the Objections of the late Professor F. D. MICHAELIS; in Letters addressed to the Rev. H. MARSH, &c. 8vo. pp. 92.*

THIS is another publication arising from the important work of the late German Professor. The author lamenting in common, we believe, with

many others, that the progress of the translator's notes has been interrupted; and that a considerable part of the text of Michaelis, in which the apocalypse

occurs, has lately been published without his valuable commentary, and fearing that some time may elapse before the public shall receive the sequel of his valuable remarks, deems it "desirable, that the misconceptions of the great Michaelis, on the important subject of the authenticity of the apocalypse, should be met by some earlier, though it be not a perfect answer."

In these letters, therefore, he proposes to review the evidence which has been adduced for the authenticity and divine inspiration of the apocalypse; to add thereto some few collections of his own, and occasionally to make remarks on those observations of Michaelis, which tend to invalidate it. His first object is to ascertain the time when the book was written; and, after a minute inquiry, he places the date of the apocalypse in the beginning of the year 97. He then proceeds to review the external evidence which affects its authority; and he does this with considerable skill and candour. He begins with Irenæus, whose testimony, though not first in respect of time, is first in importance, being more "comprehensive, positive, and direct," than any which that age affords, and extending from about thirty or forty years after the date of the apocalypse, to about eighty years after the same period. Having thus proved the reception of the apocalypse before the middle of the second century, he takes a retrospect of the quotations and allusions in writers prior to that period. These are Ignatius, Polycarp, Papias, Justin Martyr, Athenagoras, and a writer from the Gallic churches. That Ignatius does not, in direct terms, mention the apocalypse, is attributed to the peculiar circumstances under which this father wrote his epistles; travelling to Rome, a prisoner, guarded by a band of ferocious soldiers. But though he did not mention the apocalypse, he is thought, by this author, to have alluded to it; and several passages are quoted to prove that he did. The evidence of Polycarp is of the same kind. The evidence of Papias is claimed both by the Professor and our author, but upon no better ground than conjecture on each side. Justin Martyr affords a testimony in favour of the apocalypse, "full, positive, and direct." Of Athenagoras, contemporary with him, there is no dispute. The writer of the epistle

from the Gallic churches, has, in one or two passages, used the very words of the apocalypse. About the same time with Irenæus, and during the first century from the publication of the apocalypse, Melito, Theophilus, Apollonius, Clemens of Alexandria, and Tertullian, add great weight to the evidence in its favour.

The rejection of the work by Marcion, who mutilated other books of scripture; and by the Alogi, who rejected the gospel of John, our author thinks, is favourable to its pretensions, as it furnishes a proof, that the book was in existence, and received by the church. One objection of Michaelis, grounded upon the assertion of the Alogi, that there existed no church at Thyatira, is carefully examined, and answered in a very satisfactory manner: after which our author proceeds to cite the evidence of Hippolytus and Origen, who belong to the third century. "These two learned men," he observes, "had the opportunity of knowing and considering all the arguments which the novel objectors" (who, he supposes, arose in their times) "had alleged against the authenticity of the apocalypse," and yet their testimony in its favour is decisive. He then examines all the succeeding evidence, amongst which are the opinions of Dionysius and Eusebius, which, he proves, do not invalidate the preceding testimony, and he sums up the whole in these words: "And here, Sir, I close what, in a short time, and under many disadvantages, I have been able to collect of the external evidence for the apocalypse. We have seen its rise as of a pure fountain, from the secret rock of the apostolical church. We have traced it through the first century of its passage, flowing from one fair field to another, identified through them all, and every where the same. As it proceeded lower, we have seen attempts to obscure its sacred origin, to arrest or direct its course, to lose it in the sands of antiquity, or bury it in the rubbish of the dark ages. We have seen these attempts repeated in our own times, and by a dextrous adversary. But it has at length arrived to us, *qualis ab incessu*, such as it flowed forth at first. By clearing the passage, we discover more of the sacred water than we could expect, and amply sufficient for our purpose."

He then passes on to the *internal* evidence, and in the examination of this, the remaining part of the book is occupied. In this inquiry we discover the same candour and ability as in the former part, but, to our minds, it does not afford the same conviction. The continued obscurity in which events declared, so many hundred years ago, to be at hand, are still enveloped, and the dissimilarity of style in this book, and in the gospel written by John, are some among many difficulties which we think are not removed in the work be-

fore us. The external evidence of the authenticity and genuineness of this extraordinary book is, we acknowledge, very powerful; but the internal evidence fails in so many points, or rather, we should say, leads to such an opposite conclusion, that we are compelled to confess with Michaelis, "that during this inquiry, our belief in the divine authority of the apocalypse has received no more confirmation than it had before: and we must leave the decision of this important question to every man's private judgment."

ART. IX. *A Commentary on the Revelation of St. John, accompanied with Historical Testimony of its Accomplishment to the present Day.* By the Rev. E.W. WHITAKER, Rector of St. Mildred's, Canterbury. 8vo. pp. 497.

THE method which the author professes to pursue in this commentary, is, "to give, at the commencement of every distinct portion of the vision, an account of the contents of that part, divested of all figurative language; then to subjoin the text; to throw into notes the reasons on which the interpretation of the several symbols proceeds; and to close the whole section with historical testimony of the completion of that part of the prophecy." For every explanation of a symbol, the author attempts to produce the authority of "some text of holy writ;" and the historian of the "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," is pressed into the service of revelation, and compelled to yield his testimony to the accomplishment of the predictions of a christian prophet.

The time of the commencement of the prophecy, is supposed, by Mr. Whitaker, to be that at which Nerva succeeded to the imperial throne; and the *first seal* comprises the period between that event and the death of Marcus Aurelius. The *second* extends from the accession of Commodus to that of Severus. By the *third seal* is presignified the period that elapsed between the accession of Severus and the death of Alexander. The completion of the *fourth seal* commenced with the succession of the tyrant Maximus\* to the em-

pire, and ended with the death of Valerian. The events predicted by the *fifth seal*, were accomplished between the death of Valerian and the persecution under Diocletian. The *sixth* denotes the period from the beginning of the persecution under Diocletian, to the establishment of christianity by the emperor Constantine. The subject of the *seventh* is, "the subsequent overthrow of the ruling powers of the world, who had refused to obey God, and receive the gospel of Christ."

The prophecy proceeds, in the seventh chapter,

"To mark the suspension of the judgments, by which the Roman empire should finally be overthrown, during a season of extension of the gospel, and another period of trial to the servants of God, formed by the prevalence of heresies, and all the persecutions to which they should give rise, and in which those who were approved should be made manifest, having passed unvanquished through so great tribulation."

In the eighth chapter, the sounding of the *seven trumpets* commences, which are thus explained by our author. The *first trumpet* prefigures Alaric and his Goths: the *second*, Attila with his Huns: Genseric is the great star of the *third*: the *fourth* denotes the fall of the western empire in the reign of Augustulus. The subject of the *fifth* is Mahomet. The prophecy in the sounding of the *sixth*

\* That Maximin, who was a Thracian, is here denoted, Mr. W. thinks, is obvious (p. 48), from the use of the term *ελαφία*, which signifies a Thracian weapon. For the same reason we might conclude, that the distress of Mary, predicted by Simeon, Luke ii. 35, was occasioned by Thracians; or that the angel of the apocalypse, ch. i. and ii. had assumed the appearance of one of that nation. No term is more common in the version of the LXX.

trumpet, was completed in the conquests of the Ottomans. The *seventh* relates to events which are yet to happen. The *seven thunders* mentioned after the sounding of the *sixth* trumpet, are the *seven crusades*. The *little book* which the apostle was ordered to eat, contains what happened in the west; while the transactions alluded to in the *fifth* and *sixth* trumpets were taking place in the east: and the two witnesses are the Jewish and Gentile Christians who rejected the corrupt doctrines and practices of the Romish church. The woman and her child mentioned in the twelfth chapter, is the church and Constantine; and the dragon is pagan Rome. The thirteenth and seventeenth chapters are considered as parts of the same description, and as relating to the restoration of the power of ancient Rome in the papal tyranny. The beast with the two horns, denotes the monastic orders arising in the east in a time of prosperity and peace, divided, at first, into two classes, the Cœnobites and the Anchores; and, in after times, into the Dominicans and Franciscans; conspicuous above all the rest. The name forming the number of the beast, is, with bishop Newton, said to be either *ו'רמ'י'א*, or *Λατ'ν'ος*. In developing this part of the prophecy, the corruptions and abuses of the Romish church are exposed with an unsparing hand; and the detail of these, which occupies more than two hundred pages, is well adapted to excite the most ardent gratitude for the blessing of the reformation; an event which Mr. Whitaker considers as being predicted in the fourteenth chapter. Luther is the angel flying in the midst of heaven; and the

second and third angels are Calvin and Zuingle, and the other early reformers. The remainder of the chapter, our author apprehends, will be soon accomplished, but not before the Ottoman empire has fallen, the encroachments in Italy have extended to the capital of the ecclesiastical state, and the seat of the papacy has been removed to Jerusalem.

With the explication of the fifteenth and sixteenth chapters, the commentary ends. The last of these, contains the *seven vials* or bowls. The *first* of which, Mr. W. supposes, signifies the continuance of papal errors after the reformation; the *second* the prevalence of foreign war, and particularly naval; the *third* that of civil war; the *fourth*, oppression on the part of the rulers of the world, and suffering and impiety in their subjects; the *fifth*, affliction, vice, and ignorance, in the papal state; the *sixth*, the gradual decay, and final removal of the Ottoman empire, and the success of papal and atheistical propagandists; and the *seventh*, a complete revolution over the whole globe, now shortly to happen, and to prove the grand consummation of all things, preceded by great disturbances, and symptoms of the divine wrath, and the appearance of a mighty host pouring down on men by a divine commission.

Such are the leading features of the commentary before us; how far this explication of a book which has been, for so many centuries, the fertile source of fanciful conjecture and contradictory hypothesis, is sanctioned by reason, or by the testimony of history, we shall leave our readers to determine.

**ART. X.** *Brief Commentaries upon such Parts of the Revelation and other Prophecies, as immediately refer to the present Times, &c. containing a Summary of the Revelation; the prophet's Histories of the Beast of the bottomless Pit; the Beast of the Earth; the grand Confederacy, or Babylon the Great; the Man of Sin; the little Horn; and Antichrist.* By JOSEPH GALLOWAY, Esq. formerly of Philadelphia, in America: Author of *Letters to a Nobleman, and other Tracts on the late American War.* 8vo. pp. 475.

THIS bold interpreter of prophecy is one of the class of those, who forsaking the good old protestant principles upon which the symbols of the apocalypse have hitherto been most generally explained, can see in them nothing but the prefiguration of "Modern Atheistical France." The beast of the bottomless pit "is obviously, that political and atheistical monster, the revolutionary power

now ruling the French nation with the most absolute despotism, and resolving to overwhelm the world with *atheism, anarchy* and *ruin*." The beast of the earth can be nothing but "the French republic, surpassing all other states, hitherto known in the world, in the extension and extremity of impiety, depravity and mischief to mankind." If we look for Paul's *man of sin*, "where shall we find him?"



We cannot look for it among the present powers of Europe without seeing *the republic of France*, in all *her* conduct, not only acting up to it in its fullest extent, but excelling, and without shame or remorse, glorying in this very character, and shewing *herself* the only and exact prototype of the man of sin." And what else can Daniel's little horn signify? "Where shall we find a power which so perfectly answers the little horn; a power so worthless, so wicked and abandoned, so lost to all that is virtuous and good, so *avowedly* impious in principle, and of course so LITTLE in the sight of God, as the revolutionary power of France?" And what can the antichrist of John mean, if not that power which has "proselyted a whole nation, computed at twenty-five millions of souls, to its system of atheism?"

Our readers may perhaps conclude from this specimen, that the whole work is one regular system of unmixed and unqualified abuse of a neighbouring people; but we can assure them, that the author is not destitute of reasoning powers, and that he exhibits considerable skill in the explication of enigmatical language. To prove this, we shall present to them a passage from which they will doubtless conceive a very high opinion of his supereminent talents as an unraveller of mysteries. Speaking of the beast of the earth, he says:

"We have seen, that, in prophetic dialect, the word *"sea"* is made use of, to denote the manner of the rise of wicked civil societies. A meaning not less comprehensive and important, we may conclude, is here affixed to the word *"earth."* Now a little knowledge of the nature of that body will shew, that the word is here made use of to point out two great features of the power typified by this other beast, viz. that it should arise out of one great kingdom or nation, and be a revolutionary power; and that it should surpass in depravity of morals, in impiety and mischief, all other civil societies, which had ever existed before it in the world.

"To justify this interpretation of the two meanings of the word *earth*, it is necessary to remind the reader, that he is upon hieroglyphic ground, and that the apocalypse is written in a dialect, the types and figurative expressions of which are taken from the forms, faculties, and qualities of things in the natural world. Here then the prophet tells us, that he saw this "beast come up out of

the earth," a great body in the natural world, possessing divers faculties and qualities. Now that which comes up out of, or springs from a thing, either in the vegetable or animal world, partakes of the faculties and qualities, and of course bears the resemblance of the thing itself, out of which it came up, or from which it arose: as a tree, for instance, partakes of the nature and qualities of the seed of the tree from which it came up; or an elephant, or a man, of the elephant or man from which he sprung. To justify, therefore, the interpretation here, we must prove that the power intended to be foretold by the word *earth*, must resemble, in its abilities and qualities, those of that particular body.

Now the earth is one great, distinct, independent body in the natural world, and so is a proper symbol for one great, distinct, independent nation in the moral and political world. The earth is a revolutionary body, performing revolutions not only upon its own axis, but round the sun. It must therefore be allowed, that the earth is a proper type for a revolutionary power or nation, which has undergone sundry political revolutions. The earth again is a revolutionary body, which performs its revolutions, without the aid of any other natural body; and therefore it is an apposite figure, to denote a revolutionary nation, which performs its revolutions, without the assistance of any other political body. The earth is also the great body, out of which all the additional means of sin and misery are acquired; such as arsenic, and all other deadly poisons; sulphur and saltpetre; also the principal ingredients of that destroying composition, gunpowder; together with iron, steel, and flint, which complete the system of modern destruction. Moreover, gold and silver, those common means of human corruption, excess and intemperance, are thence extracted. "*Efodiantur oves, irritamenta molorum.*" "Riches, which lead to all manner of evil, are dug out of the earth." By the use of these metals, mankind are drawn into all manner of sin, intemperance, and disease, by which a greater number of the species is cut off before their time, in the career of sensuality and sin, than by all other means whatever. Hence it is, that "a beast coming up out of the earth" is an accurate figure for a revolutionary power, the most wantonly destructive and consummately sinful."

If the reader be captivated by this incomparable passage, he has only to purchase the book, and he will at once be put into possession of nearly five hundred pages of reasoning equally ingenious, conclusive and resistless.

ART. XI. *Prophetiæ de Septuaginta Hebdomadis apud Danielelem explicatio: quam Reverendo admodum in Christo Parti Beilbeio Episc. cæteroque clero Lond. concione ad eos habitâ in æde D. Alphægii, 12<sup>o</sup> Martii, A. D. 1801. Propositam, eorum hortatu in lucem edit.* JOHANNES MOORE, LL.B. Collegii de Sion Præses, Adjiciuntur ad calcem notæ, &c. 8vo. pp. 82.

THIS learned author conceives, that the difficulties which have embarrassed those commentators who have endeavoured to elucidate the well-known prophecy of the seventy weeks by Daniel, have arisen chiefly from their paying too much regard to the niceties of chronology, and too little, to the precise meaning of the terms which the prophet has employed. It is his first object therefore to discover the events to which the words of the prophecy are applicable. The phrases, "to make reconciliation for iniquity, and to bring in everlasting righteousness;" he refers to the death of Christ: and "to anoint the most holy," to the glory which Christ received after his ascension. The "sealing up the vision and prophecy" mentioned in the same verse, he considers as relating to the publication of the apocalypse by John. The last work of divine authority; and the "finishing the transgression and the making an end of sins," he interprets as denoting the consummation of the wickedness of the Jewish people, in the period that elapsed between the death of the Messiah, and his coming as a prince, to the destruction of his enemies. The author also transposes the division of the weeks, placing the seven after the sixty-two weeks; and what in the common version is translated: *the street shall be built again, and the wall, even in troublous times: he renders, the street and the wall, and the tower serving for oppression* (Turreis, sc. Antonia, Tyrannidi ministrans) *shall be destroyed.* The "covenant confirmed with many" he con-

siders as prophetic of the *shortening of the days before the desolation of the Jewish capital for the elect's sake*, promised by Jesus to his disciples, Matt. xxiv.; and the phrase "for the overspreading of the abominations he shall make it desolate:" as it stands in the English version, he renders, "*et in aulâ Templi visentur abominanda eversoris.*"

These are the principal variations from the common rendering and interpretation of this obscure passage; and these are justified by many judicious and learned notes.

Though the author considers a minute attention to chronology as unnecessary, and even unfavourable to the explanation of this passage, yet he endeavours to reconcile the prediction with the subsequent course of events. But in doing this, he strikes out into a new path. The commencement of the seventy prophetic weeks, he dates from the twentieth year of the reign of Artaxerxes Mnemon. If these weeks be divided into three portions: the first portion, comprehending sixty-two weeks, will extend to the 14th year of Tiberius; the next, including six weeks and a small part of the seventh, will terminate in the destruction of Jerusalem; and the third portion will be accomplished in the third year of the reign of Domitian.

Such is the outline of a very able commentary upon an important passage of scripture. We recommend this work to the serious attention of every one who is interested in theological inquiries.

ART. XII. *Oriental Customs: or an Illustration of the Sacred Scriptures, by an explanatory Application of the Customs and Manners of the Eastern Nations, and especially the Jews, therein alluded to. Together with Observations on many difficult and obscure Texts, collected from the most celebrated Travellers, and the most eminent Critics.* By SAMUEL BURDER, 8vo. pp. 400.

OF this judicious and useful compilation, we cannot convey to our readers a better idea, than in the author's own words:

"A spirit of inquiry and research seems to have animated those persons, who during the two last centuries explored the regions of the East. Many of them were men of

considerable natural talents, acquired learning, and true religion. While they indulged a laudable curiosity in collecting information on general subjects, they did not neglect sacred literature. By their industry the geography, natural history, religious ceremonies, and miscellaneous customs of the Bible and the eastern nations have been

compared and explained, and that essentially to the advantage of the former. But with regard to these writers it must be observed, that many excellent things of the kind here adverted to are only incidentally mentioned. Some observations which they have made, are capable of an application which did not present itself to their minds; so that in addition to a number of passages which they have professedly explained, select portions of their works may be brought into the same service. To collect these scattered fragments, and make a proper use of them, is certainly a laborious work: it has, however, been ably executed by the late Mr. Harmer; his observations on divers passages of scripture, are well known and highly esteemed. It must be acknowledged to his praise, that he led the way in this department of literature, and has contributed as much as any one man to disseminate the true knowledge of many parts of holy writ. But his work is too copious for general utility: it will never fail to be read by the scholar; but it cannot be expected that the generality of christians can derive much benefit from that, which from its extent is almost inaccessible to many persons. It must also be admitted that some of the subjects which are there discussed, may be dispensed with, as not being of much interest or importance. The style is sometimes prolix, and difficult of conception, and the arrangement is certainly capable of improvement. On the whole, the book would be more valuable if it were more select in its subjects, and compressed in its language. This object long appeared so important, that I determined to execute an abridgment of these observations for my own private use; but upon further reflection and advice, I was induced to undertake the compilation of a volume to include the substance of the best writers of this class. The production now offered to the public, is the fruit of the resolution just mentioned. I have endeavoured to select from Mr. Harmer's Observations whatever appeared important and interesting. This has not indeed been done in the form of a regular abridgment; but after extracting such materials as appeared suitable, I have inserted them in those places, where, according to the passages prefixed to each of the articles, they ought to stand. This method I apprehend to be new, and not before attempted, but I hope will prove both agreeable and useful. As it is the avowed intention of each article to explain some passage, it is proper that it should be inserted at length, and in a manner so conspicuous, as at once to attract the attention of the reader. To the materials collected from Mr. Harmer, have been added some very important remarks from Shaw, Pococke, Russel, Bruce, and other eminent writers. It is admitted, that many of these things have repeatedly passed through the press; but as the valuable observations

which have been made by travellers and critics, lie interspersed in separate and expensive publications, a compendious selection of them appeared very desirable, and is here accomplished."

We select the following as a specimen of the additional remarks:

No. 50. *Levit. ii. 13. With all thine offerings thou shalt offer salt.* Salt amongst the ancients was the emblem of friendship and fidelity, and therefore was used in all their sacrifices and covenants. Bruce mentions a kind of salt so hard, that it is used as money, and passes from hand to hand, no more injured than a stone would be. A covenant of salt seems to refer to the making of an agreement wherein salt was used as a token of confirmation. Baron du Tott, speaking of one who was desirous of his acquaintance, says, upon his departure, "he promised in a short time to return. I had already attended him half way down the staircase, when stopping, and turning briskly to one of my domestics, bring me directly, said he, some bread and salt. What he requested, was brought; when, taking a little salt between his fingers, and putting it with a mysterious air on a bit of bread, he eat it with a devout gravity, assuring me, that I might now rely on him." (part i. p. 214.) Among other exploits which are recorded of Jacob ben Laith, he is said to have broken into a palace, and having collected a very large booty, which he was on the point of carrying away, he found his foot kicked something which made him stumble; putting it to his mouth, the better to distinguish it, his tongue soon informed him it was a lump of salt; upon this, according to the morality, or rather superstition of the country, where the people consider salt as a symbol and pledge of hospitality, he was so touched that he left all his booty, retiring without taking away any thing with him.

"(D'Herbelot, *Bibl. Orient.* p. 466. This use of salt is also evident, from Homer;

Then near the altar of the darting king,  
Disposed in rank, their hecatomb they bring;

With water purify their hands, and take  
The sacred offering of the salted cake.

Il. i. 584.

And again:

Above the coals the smoking fragment turns,  
And sprinkles sacred salt from lifted urns.

Il. ix. 281.

Notwithstanding the more favourable opinion which we understand prevails concerning the fidelity of that notorious traveller Mr. Bruce, our faith in him we confess is so weak, that we were sorry to find Mr. Burder so frequently

appealing to his authority; and we were not a little surprised, at our very entrance upon this work, to meet with the well-known marvellous tale of the Alys-

sinian banquet on the flesh of a living cow. The quotation from Mr. Antes affords no corroboration of this disgusting and improbable relation.

ART. XIII. *An Essay on the Method of illustrating Scripture from the Relations of Modern Travellers in Palestine and the neighbouring Countries.* By JOHN FOSTER, A. B. Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, 8vo. pp. 47.

THIS Essay is "published, in pursuance of the will of the late Mr. Norris, as having gained the annual prize instituted by him in the University of Cambridge." The motto prefixed to it by the author, "*Vix ea nostra voco*," is necessarily descriptive of one essential part of its character; a copious reference to the remarks of other writers. Assuming it as a general principle, founded on established facts, that oriental laws, customs and manners have undergone no material alteration from time immemorial, Mr. Foster takes a cursory view of the books of scripture, and selects some of the passages which most obviously require the aid of that method of illustration which results from an acquaintance with the works of modern travellers. The following extract will afford a good specimen of the author's manner, and at the same time serve to correct Mr. Harmer's explication of a remarkable text. Psalm cxxiii. 2. "*As the eyes of servants look unto the hands of their masters, and as the eyes of a maiden unto the hand of her mistress; so our eyes*

*wait upon the Lord our God, until that he have mercy on us.*" Modern travellers inform us, that eastern servants pay the minutest attention to the commands of their masters. A motion of the hand, or a glance of the eye, which would be almost imperceptible to a stranger, they instantly understand and obey. The psalmist probably borrowed his beautiful image from this general custom, and meant, in different words, that he would watch, and improve by the visitations of Providence, with the same earnestness, as servants used to attend to the signs of their masters. Mr. Harmer conceives, that the idea is taken from the eagerness, with which a guilty servant watches that motion of his superior's hand, which is to terminate his chastisement; but he seems to have adopted only a particular part of a general allusion." p. 26.

This essay is interesting, no less from the manner in which it is conducted, than from the subject it proposes to illustrate, and appears to us well entitled to the honour it has received.

#### EVIDENCES OF NATURAL AND REVEALED RELIGION.

ART. XIV. *Natural Theology, or Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature.* By WILLIAM PALEY, D. D. 8vo. pp. 586.

"IT is one thing," observes the learned and justly celebrated author, "to assent to a moral proposition, another and a very different thing to have properly imbibed its influence." Upon this principle will be founded the most permanent value, and the most extensive utility of the present admirable work. We have indeed, of late, heard much of atheism; and the diffusion of that gloomy system has been frequently and with confidence asserted. Of this, we must acknowledge our doubts. That there are and even have been many practical atheists, we well know; but the number of speculative atheists, we are fully persuaded, is small. The class of those who profess to believe in the

existence and perfections of a supreme Being, and who yet never worship him, and seldom even think of him, is, we fear, large and extended; but we want more proof than has hitherto been given to convince us that there are many who calmly resign all faith in the existence of divine intelligence, and who cordially believe that the universe is the production of chance. If however we should be unhappily mistaken; if, contrary to our opinion, there should be many whose minds are so strangely constituted, or whose judgment has been so fatally warped, that they are not able to trace, in the things which are made, the eternal power and godhead of him who made them; what hope can we indulge that

they will yield to the influence of any arguments? On such minds, not even the demonstrations by which every page of Dr. Paley's work is distinguished, will be sufficient to produce a conviction of the truth. But the thoughtless theist will here be taught to reflect with frequency and with admiration upon the great first cause of all things; his faith in one great and good Being will be confirmed and invigorated, and the efficacy of that faith will be more constantly exerted, and more eminently beneficial. The work is divided into twenty-seven chapters, of which the first five are devoted to the statement and application of the argument. The statement is formed from the supposable case of a person finding a watch in a place remote from the habitation of man; from observing the mechanism of which, he is led inevitably to the inference, that by whatever means it was conveyed into that situation, it must have had a maker, who comprehended its construction, and designed its use. It is not necessary to this conclusion, that he should have seen a watch made, find that watch perfect, or be able to understand all its parts. To be told of accidental configuration, a principle of order, of the laws of metallic nature, or of his own ignorance, could have no power to drive him from this conclusion. Supposing again that in the course of its movement, it be found to produce another watch, similar to itself, and to contain a system of organization, separately adapted to that purpose, the effect upon the observer would certainly be to increase his admiration of the contrivance, and of the skill of the contriver; and though he might be led to think it probable that the watch he had found did not come immediately from the hand of the artificer, he would be still more firmly convinced that intelligence was concerned in its production, and that a watch must have been formed with the means of propagating its species, and that the artificer who formed it must in justice be considered as the former of all that had resulted from the contrivance. To suppose that no art or skill had been exerted in the business, is *Atheism*: "for every indication of contrivance, every manifestation of design, which existed in the watch, exists in the works of nature, with the difference on the side of nature of being greater and more, and that in

a degree which exceeds all computation." p. 19.

This argument is first applied to the eye, with great ingenuity and success. All the various parts of that organ are examined with great accuracy, and its wonderful contrivances exhibited in a very striking manner. Sturmius, we are told, held, that the examination of the eye was a cure for atheism; and no one who attentively reads this chapter will doubt that if atheism can be cured, this remedy is sufficient. To give our readers some idea of the nature of this argument (if indeed there be any who have not already fully examined it) we shall place before them two passages from many equally forcible and curious:

"The resemblance between the two cases is still more accurate, and obtains in more points than we have yet represented, or than we are, on the first view of the subject, aware of. In dioptric telescopes there is an imperfection of this nature. Pencils of light, in passing through glass lenses, are separated into different colours, thereby tinging the object, especially the edges of it, as if it were viewed through a prism. To correct this inconvenience had been long a desideratum in the art. At last it came into the mind of a sagacious optician, to inquire how this matter was managed in the eye; in which there was exactly the same difficulty to contend with, as in the telescope. His observation taught him, that, in the eye, the evil was cured by combining together lenses, composed of different substances, i. e. of substances which possessed different refracting powers. Our artist borrowed from thence his hint; and produced a correction of the defect, by imitating in glasses made from different materials, the effects of the different humours through which the rays of light pass before they reach the bottom of the eye. Could this be in the eye without purpose, which suggested to the optician the only effectual means of attaining that purpose?

"In considering vision as achieved by the means of an image formed at the bottom of the eye, we can never reflect without wonder upon the smallness, yet correctness, of the picture, the subtlety of the touch, the fineness of the lines. A landscape of five or six square leagues is brought into a space of half an inch diameter; yet the multitude of objects which it contains, are all preserved; are all discriminated in their magnitudes, positions, figures, colours. The prospect from Hampstead Hill is compressed into the compass of a sixpence, yet circumstantially represented. A stage-coach travelling at its ordinary speed, for half an hour, passes in the eye, only over one-twelfth of an inch,



yet is this change of place in the image distinctly perceived throughout its whole progress; for it is only by means of that perception, that the motion of the coach itself is made sensible to the eye. If any thing can abate our admiration of the smallness of the visual tablet, compared with the extent of vision, it is a reflection, which the view of nature leads us, every hour, to make, viz. that, in the hands of the Creator, great and little are nothing."

After a satisfactory reply to an objection, which the author thinks may possibly be raised from the use of such a complicated apparatus as the eye, when it must have been in the power of the Deity to have given the animal the faculty of vision *at once*; we are led to the consideration of the ear. Of this we know less, yet sufficient to prove a wise adaption to a useful purpose. It is there clearly shewn, that the generation of the animal, will by no means account for the contrivance of these organs; that every observation that had been made concerning the watch, at the opening of the argument, applies, with strict propriety, to animals, to plants, and to all the organized parts of the works of nature; and that all the hypotheses that can be maintained to account for the phenomena of organized matter, which exclude the agency of intelligence, are vain and absurd.

The sixth chapter is entitled, The argument cumulative, and is designed to shew, that, "if other parts of nature were inaccessible to our inquiries, or even if other parts of nature presented nothing to our examination but disorder and confusion, the validity of one such example in the eye would remain the same. The object of the seventh chapter is

"To teach three things: first, that it is a mistake to suppose, that, in reasoning from the appearances of nature, the imperfection of our knowledge proportionably affects the certainty of our conclusion; for in many cases it does not affect it at all: secondly, that the different parts of the animal frame may be classed and distributed, according to the degree of exactness with which we can compare them with works of art: thirdly, that the mechanical parts of our frame, or, those in which this comparison is most complete, although constituting, probably, the coarsest portions of nature's workmanship, are the properest to be alleged as proofs and specimens of design."

From this class, therefore, of mechanical parts of the human frame, the

author proceeds, in the three succeeding chapters, to select such examples as are most striking and best understood, or that are capable of explanation without plates or figures, or technical language. These examples are taken from the bones, the muscles, and the vessels of the human frame. From the bones are selected the vertebræ of the neck; the construction of which is most evidently artificial; the *fore-arm*, or, the arm between the elbow and the wrist, which consists of two bones, moved by means of a most curious, yet simple contrivance—the *spine* or back bone, which considered in its articulations, its ligaments, and its perforation; with the corresponding advantages which the body derives from it, for action, for strength, and for that which is essential to every part, a secure communication with the brain, cannot fail to excite the highest admiration—the reciprocal enlargement and contraction of the chest, depending upon a very beautiful contrivance, the *patella* or knee-pan, in its form and office, unlike any other bone of the body, serving for protection, and mechanical advantage, and the *sculler-blade*. Next to the configuration of the bones, come to be considered the curious structure of the joints, the contrivance to suffer the vessels to pass them in security, the gristle, the cartilages, and the regular supply of mucilage, by which they are rendered capable of such long and constant wear.

The care exhibited to preserve the important vessels of the human frame, is thus strikingly shewn:

"The joints, or rather the ends of the bones which form them, display also, in their configuration, another use. The nerves, blood vessels, and tendons, which are necessary to the life, or for the motion, of the limbs, must, it is evident, in their way from the trunk of the body to the place of their destination, travel over the moveable joints; and it is no less evident, that, in this part of their course, they will have, from sudden motions and from abrupt changes of curvature, to encounter the danger of compression, attrition, or laceration. To guard fibres so tender against consequences so injurious, their path is in those parts protected with peculiar care: and that by a provision in the figure of the bones themselves. The nerves which supply the fore arm, especially the inferior cubital nerves, are at the elbow conducted, by a kind of covered way, between the condyles,

or rather under the inner extuberances of the bone, which composes the upper part of the arm\*. At the knee the extremity of the thigh-bone is divided by a sinus or cleft, into two heads or protuberances; and these heads on the back part stand out beyond the cylinder of the bone. Through the hollow, which lies between the hind parts of these two heads, that is to say, under the ham, between the ham-strings, and within the concave recess of the bone formed by the extuberances on each side; in a word, along a defile, between rocks, pass the great vessels and nerves which go to the leg†. Who led these vessels by a road so defended and secured? In the joint at the shoulder, in the edge of the cup which receives the head of the bone, is a notch, which is joined or covered at the top with a ligament. Through this hole, thus guarded, the blood-vessels steal to their destination in the arm, instead of mounting over the edge of the concavity."

The ninth chapter, relating to the muscles, is highly curious and satisfactory. The exact relation which they bear to the joint that they are designed to move; the manner in which their action is performed; their careful disposition so as not to obstruct or interfere with one another's action, though amounting in number to four hundred and forty-six; their being formed and placed so as to act where their situation would have been inconvenient, or destroyed the beauty and proportions of the body; and the great mechanical variety in their figure, prove them to be the result of counsel and contrivance, and forcibly lead the mind to the acknowledgment of an intelligent Creator.

"The ejaculations can never too often be repeated, "How many things must go right for us to be an hour at ease! How many more, to be vigorous and active!" Yet, vigor and activity are, in a vast plurality of instances, preserved in human bodies, notwithstanding that they depend upon so great a number of instruments of motion, and notwithstanding that the defect or disorder sometimes of a very small instrument, of a single pair, for instance, out of the four hundred and forty-six muscles which are employed, may be attended with grievous inconveniency. There is piety and good sense in the following observation taken out of the Religious Philosopher. "With much compassion," says the writer, "as well as astonishment at the goodness of our loving Creator, have I considered the sad state of a

certain gentleman, who, as to the rest, was in pretty good health, but only wanted the use of these two little muscles that serve to lift up the eye-lids, and so had almost lost the use of his sight, being forced, as long as this defect lasted, to shove up his eye-lids every moment with his own hands!" In general we may remark how little those who enjoy the perfect use of their organs, know the comprehensiveness of the blessing, the variety of their obligation. They perceive a result, but they think little of the multitude of concurrences and recitudes which go to form it."

From a general view of the muscles of the human frame, the author proceeds to notice such as possess a peculiar advantage of structure and such single muscles (as the digastric, which moves the lower jaw) which bear peculiar marks of mechanical contrivance.

The next chapter treats of the vessels necessary to the circulation of the blood; of those by which the chyle is formed and conveyed into the circulation of the process of digestion, of the wonderful contrivance of the gall-bladder, of the pipe by which the saliva is conveyed to the mouth, and of the exquisite structure of the *larynx*. The mind that can peruse this chapter, without feeling persuasion of the existence of supreme intelligence, and the deepest veneration and the most ardent gratitude, must be a stranger to the most important affections of human nature. The conclusion is just and forcible:

"For the sake of method, we have considered animal bodies under three divisions, their bones, their muscles, and their vessels: and we have stated our observations upon these parts separately. But this is to diminish the strength of the argument. The wisdom of the Creator is seen, not in their separate but in their collective action; in their mutual subserviency and dependence; in their contributing together to one effect, and one use. It has been said, that a man cannot lift his hand to his head, without finding enough to convince him of the existence of a God. And it is well said, for he has only to reflect, familiar as this action is, and simple as it seems to be, how many things are requisite for the performing of it; how many things which we understand, to say nothing of many more, probably, which we do not, viz. first, a long, hard, strong cylinder, in order to give to the arm its firmness and tension; but which, being rigid, and, in its substance, inflexible, can

\* Cles. An. p. 255, ed. 7th.

† Ib. p. 65.

only turn upon joints : secondly, therefore, joints for this purpose, one at the shoulder to raise the arm, another at the elbow to bend it ; these joints continually fed with a soft maucilage to make the parts slip easily upon one another, and held together by strong braces to keep them in their position : then, thirdly, strings and wires, i. e. muscles and tendons, artificially inserted for the purpose of drawing the bones in the directions in which the joints allow them to move. Hitherto we seem to understand the mechanism pretty well ; and understanding this, we possess enough for our conclusion : nevertheless, we have hitherto only a machine standing still ; a dead organization ; an apparatus. To put the system in a state of activity (to set it at work) a further provision is necessary, viz. a communication with the brain, by means of nerves. We know the existence of this communication, because we can see the communicating threads, and can trace them to the brain : its necessity we also know, because, if the thread be cut, if the communication be intercepted, the muscle becomes paralytic ; but beyond this we know little ; the organization being too minute and subtle for our inspection.

“ To what has been enumerated, as officiating in the single act of a man's raising his hand to his head, must be added likewise, all that is necessary, and all that contributes, to the growth, nourishment, and sustentation of the limb, the repair of its waste, the preservation of its health ; such as the circulation of the blood through every part of it ; its lymphatics, exhalants, absorbents ; its excretions and integuments. All these share in the result ; join in the effect : and how all these, or any of them, come together without a designing, disposing intelligence, it is impossible to conceive.

From considering the mechanism of the human frame in its several parts, we are next led, chap. xi. to contemplate the animal structure, regarded as a mass. Here we cannot fail to be much struck by the exact correspondency of the two sides of an animal, by the curious *package*, or arrangement of the internal parts, by the symmetry of the external covering, which conceals a mechanism, the constant operations of which, if exposed to view, would keep us in a state of perpetual alarm. The power which this mass possesses, of preserving an erect posture, especially in two-legged animals, is more curious than we are generally aware of ; and the teeth, nails and skull exhibit deviations from the general conformation that prove the existence of design.

The general plan in the mechanism of the human frame, is observed to prevail in all animal bodies, yet with such variations as are required by the particular exigency of different subjects. This affords, if possible, a still stronger evidence of intelligence and design. In chapter xii. entitled Comparative Anatomy, the variations are pointed out, as they occur in the covering of the different animals, in the structure of the mouth, the gullet, the intestines, the bones, the lungs, in the instruments of motion, and in what are called the five senses. Besides the variations which are discovered from an anatomical comparison of one animal with another, there are many interesting examples to be found of a peculiar organization, adapted to the peculiar nature and wants of different creatures. Some of the most extraordinary of these form the subject of the thirteenth chapter.

Another mark of design (chap. xiv.) is exhibited in what Dr. P. calls Prospective Contrivances, i. e. the providing of things beforehand, which are not to be used until a considerable time afterwards. From a variety of examples, are selected the following : the human teeth ; the milk of the female parent ; the eye, at the time of its formation of no use ; and the lungs. In the formation of these there is implied a contemplation of the future, which belongs only to intelligence.

The application of the original argument is carried still further in the next chapter, which treats of relations, or the fitness of different parts in the animal frame to one another, for producing a particular effect. These relations are either general or particular : to the first may be referred the parts and powers in the animal œconomy that necessarily act upon food, the relation of the kidneys to the bladder, and of the ureters to both ; the position of the eyes ; the relation of one sex to another : “ inexplicable without design ; so much so, that were every other proof of contrivance in nature, dubious or obscure—this alone would be sufficient ;” and lastly, the relation which the teats of animals bear to the mouth of the suckling progeny. Of particular relations, the swan and the mole exhibit the most striking.

There is also another species of rela-

tion which Dr. P. calls (ch. xvi.) *Compensations*. Thus, the proboscis of the elephant, compensates for his short unbending neck; the structure of the upper mandible of a parrot, compensates for the peculiar form of the beak; the spider's web; the insect's eye; the ruminating faculty in the sheep, deer and ox tribe, and the gizzard of graminivorous birds, are striking instances of compensation, proving intelligence and design.

Chap. xvii. opens to us relations of a yet higher kind; of animated bodies to inanimate nature; of the wings of a bird, for instance, to the air; and of the fins of a fish to water; of the ear, and the organs of speech to air; of the organs of vision to light; and of sleep to night.

The following passage cannot be read without admiration:

"If the relation of sleep to night, and, in some instances, its converse, be real, we cannot reflect without amazement upon the extent to which it carries us. Day and night are things close to us: the change applies immediately to our sensations; of all the phenomena of nature, it is the most familiar to our experience: but, in its cause, it belongs to the great motions which are passing in the heavens. Whilst the earth glides round her axle, she ministers to the alternate necessities of the animals dwelling upon her surface, at the same time, that she obeys the influence of those attractions which regulate the order of many thousand worlds. The relation therefore of sleeping to night, is the relation of the inhabitants of the earth to the relation of their globe; probably it is more: it is a relation to the system, of which the globe is a part; and, still further, to the congregation of systems, of which this is only one. If this account be true, it connects the meanest individual with the universe itself; a chicken roosting upon its perch, with the spheres revolving in the firmament."

As a species of relation, *instincts* come next to be considered. Out of the long catalogue that might be formed of these, Dr. P. suggests (ch. xviii.) such as he thinks most extraordinary, and combats with ingenuity and success, the theory that resolves instinct into sensation; although neither that nor any other theory would be sufficient to destroy or weaken the proof which the actions of various animals exhibit of contrivance and counsel.

Ch. xix. contains some curious remarks upon the insect tribe. Several

parts of their nice structure furnish evidence of wise mechanical contrivance, as the sting of the bee, &c. Others combine with mechanism, some of the operations of chymistry, or the principles of natural philosophy: the glow-worm guides her wandering mate by a phosphoric hymeneal torch; and the gossamer spider floats through the air suspended to his silky balloon.

Plants exhibit less of a designed and studied mechanism than animals, yet there are some which display phenomena too curious to be wholly omitted in a work of this nature. Some of these are selected for the subjects of chapter xx. General properties belonging to plants are first noticed, and then some particular species; as the vallisneria of the river Rhone; the cuscuta europæa; the misseltoe; the colchicum autumnale; and the dionæa muscipula.

The next chapter is devoted to remarks upon air, water, fire and light, under the absurd and exploded title of elements.

Ch. xxii. treats of the proofs which astronomy affords of the agency of an intelligent Creator. Upon this subject Dr. Paley observes:

"My opinion of astronomy has always been, that it is not the best medium through which to prove the agency of an intelligent Creator; but that, this being proved, it shews, beyond all other sciences, the magnificence of his operations. The mind which is once convinced, it raises to sublimer views of the Deity, than any other subject affords; but is not so well adapted, as some other subjects are, to the purpose of argument. We are destitute of the means of examining the constitution of the heavenly bodies. The very simplicity of their appearance is against them. We see nothing but bright points, luminous circles, or the phases of spheres, reflecting the light which falls upon them. Now we deduce design from relation, aptitude, and correspondence of parts. Some degree therefore of complexity is necessary to render a subject fit for this species of argument. But the heavenly bodies do not, except perhaps in the instance of Saturn's ring, present themselves to our observation as compounded of parts at all. This, which may be a perfection in them, is a disadvantage to us, as inquirers after their nature. They do not come within our mechanics.

"And what we say of their forms, is true of their motions. Their motions are carried on without any sensible intermediate apparatus: whereby we are cut off from

one principal ground of argumentation and analogy. We have nothing wherewith to compare them; no invention, no discovery, no operation or resource of art, which, in this respect, resembles them. Even those things which are made to imitate and represent them, such as orreries, planetaria, celestial globes, &c, bear no affinity to them, in the cause and principle by which their motions are actuated. I can assign for this difference a reason of utility, viz. a reason why, though the action of terrestrial bodies upon each other be, in almost all cases, through the intervention of solid or fluid substances, yet central attraction does not operate in this manner. It was necessary that the intervals between the planetary orbs should be devoid of any inert matter, either fluid or solid, because such an intervening substance would, by its resistance, destroy those very motions, which attraction is employed to preserve. This may be a final cause of the difference; but still the difference destroys the analogy.

"Our ignorance, moreover, of the sensitive natures, by which other planets are inhabited, necessarily keeps from us the knowledge of numberless utilities, relations, and subserviencies, which we perceive upon our globe.

"After all; the real subject of admiration is, that we understand so much of astronomy as we do. That an animal confined to the surface of one of the planets; bearing a less proportion to it, than the smallest microscopic insect does to the plant it lives upon; that this little, busy, inquisitive creature, by the use of senses which were given to it for its domestic necessities, and by means of the assistance of those senses which it has had the art to procure, should have been enabled to observe the whole system of worlds to which its own belongs; the changes of place of the immense globes which compose it; and with such accuracy, as to mark out, beforehand, the situation in the heavens in which they will be found at any future point of time; and that these bodies, after sailing through regions of void and trackless space, should arrive at the place where they were expected, not within a minute, but within a few seconds of a minute, of the prefixed and predicted time: this is wonderful, whether we refer our admiration to the constancy of the heavenly motions themselves, or to the perspicuity and precision with which they have been noticed by mankind. Nor is this the whole, nor indeed the chief part, of what astronomy teaches. By bringing reason to bear upon observation (the acutest reasoning upon the exactest observation), the astronomer has been able, out of the confusion (for such it is) under which the motions of the heavenly bodies present themselves to the eye of a

mere gazer upon the skies, to elicit their order and their real paths.

"Our knowledge therefore of astronomy is admirable, though imperfect: and, amidst the confessed desiderata and desideranda, which impede our investigation of the wisdom of the Deity, in these the grandest of his works, there are to be found, in the phenomena, ascertained circumstances and laws, sufficient to indicate an intellectual agency in three of its principal operations, viz. in chusing, in determining, in regulating; in chusing out of a boundless variety of suppositions which were equally possible, that which is beneficial; in determining, what, left to itself, had a thousand chances against conveniency, for one in its favour; in regulating subjects, as to quantity and degree, which, by their nature, were unlimited with respect to either."

Under each of these heads the author proceeds to offer such instances as best admit of a popular explication. In this part of his work he acknowledges the assistance of the Rev. J. Brinkley, of the University of Dublin.

The four succeeding chapters contain many very striking and judicious remarks upon the attributes of that supreme intelligence whose existence has been so clearly demonstrated, from which, if our limits would allow, we could select many excellent passages; but we trust, there is not one of our readers who has not already determined to seek for them in the work itself.

The twenty-sixth chapter, which treats of the goodness of the Deity, is most valuable and satisfactory.

The concluding chapter shews the importance of the preceding inquiry, and its close relation to the great doctrine of revealed religion, *the future life of men.*

After the ample analysis which we have now given of this truly admirable work, we need add nothing, in order to recommend it to general attention. It will be evident, that although we have other works of a similar nature and tendency, yet that this is by no means superfluous. Whatever Dr. Paley takes in hand, he makes interesting and useful. He renders plain truths still plainer: he resolves with ease what have been considered as difficulties; and by the perspicuity of his style, the clearness of his arrangement, and the simplicity and the beauty of his illustrations, he captivates the most inattentive, and delights the most improved mind.



ART. XV. *Conversations on the Divine Government, showing that every Thing is from God, and for Good to all.* By THEOPHILUS LINDSEY, M. A. 8vo. pp. 294.

BY all who are acquainted with the character of the excellent and venerable author, this work will be highly and justly valued. By those who know him not it must be esteemed as an able and interesting defence of the divine benevolence. Though it aspires not to the character of an elaborate philosophical treatise, it contains much accurate and forcible reasoning, and possesses more vigour both of thought and of language than could have been expected from the pen of *fourscore*. As the production of such an advanced period of life it excites an interest which few philosophical pieces can raise. Here we have the unbiassed judgment of one who after a chequered life is standing upon the verge of the grave—and of the world through which he has passed, as well as of that upon which he is entering, he cheerfully pronounces that they are good. Much has he experienced of the discipline of the present scene—and yet he extols it as benevolent. Of the trials of life he has had his full share, and now when they are drawing rapidly to a close he thankfully owns that they are indications of infinite wisdom. No more beautiful picture of a good mind was ever exhibited; and none, we are persuaded, who love themselves or others, will fail to use their utmost endeavours to make the resemblance their own.

We shall endeavour to convey to our readers as accurate an idea as we can of this pleasing and valuable legacy of a most worthy and excellent man. It consists of six conversations between several learned friends upon the interesting and important subject of the divine government,—the result of which was an unanimous resolution, that *there is nothing really and ultimately ill in the state of man, but every thing ordered for the best for all.* p. 4.

The first and a great part of the second conversations, are introductory to this inquiry, lamenting the diffusion of infidelity, and assigning its causes, among which, and of the most fatal tendency, one of the company considers the erroneous views which are held concerning the government of God.

“It is not however, entirely, men’s doubts concerning the possibility or reality of miracles, or concerning the truth of the sa-

cred history connected with them; nor any presumed discoveries of the hidden powers and energies of nature, that have put them on rejecting divine revelation, and led not a few of them to deny the being of a God, and take refuge in the gloomy idea of a fatherless world. It is a difficulty of a more serious kind, from which it sometimes originates; the perplexity that worthy thinking persons are often thrown into, how to reconcile appearances in the world of nature, and the imperfect and forlorn state of mankind with the supposition of a perfectly wise and good moral administration. ‘If there be a being perfectly wise and good at the head of the universe, why such a miserable world, so much natural evil, pain and suffering, and so much vice and wretchedness? Why are not all men virtuous and happy? And, why so little apparent amendment for the better among christians, and so great a majority of them doomed to endless suffering hereafter, or to an annihilation, with so great an expense of miracles and of a divine extraordinary power made to so little purpose?’

“Could we find a clue to lead us safe out of this labyrinth, and to teach us how to justify the dealings of God with mankind, consistently with that perfect goodness, which we must ever ascribe to him, if we believe him to be at all; we shall provide the best remedy against, and, in time, put an end to, the prevailing scepticism.”

To find this clue is therefore the object of the present work, and the object will be readily acknowledged to have been gained, not indeed by a train of close and metaphysical reasoning, but by a pleasing and satisfactory arrangement of observations which have occurred to other liberal and inquiring minds, and which are well adapted to carry conviction to the heart of every sincere friend of truth.

The goodness of God is deduced from the various circumstances which distinguish the animal creation, and all the provisions which are made for their subsistence and their enjoyment. From the same manifest attention of the Creator to the happiness of mankind in their animal capacities, and above all, from the gift of the usual faculties, and the capacity which men enjoy, “of rising to some faint, though infinitely distant resemblance of the all good and all perfect Being.” p. 60. But as it is necessary to the argument to shew not only that men have such a capacity for obtaining that happiness, which “arises from the know-

ledge and worship of God, and from a resemblance to him in goodness," but also that the arrangements of divine Providence threw no insurmountable obstacle in the way, a short but comprehensive view is taken of the history of man from the earliest period, so far as it is connected with his moral and religious character, "and from this glance of man and of his moral state and condition from the beginning, a very correct idea may be formed of the progress and moral attainments, for which he was principally made.

And though the little effect of genuine virtuous principle, and the defective knowledge of God, have shewn themselves, and still too much appear, in the wars almost continually waging between nation and nation; and in the hatred and animosities on account of difference of religious sentiments; yet it would be unfair and unjust, in the most sceptical, not to admit that knowledge and virtue have been upon the whole progressive, and that very many eminent examples of both have been formed, and are forming, in every age and country."

We are next presented with what we presume is the only satisfactory solution of the difficulty arising from the existence of natural and moral evil; their manifest tendency to produce "those dispositions and affections which are the highest perfection of men, and the source of their purest happiness." It is not possible that the Deity should have chosen evil for its own sake; and when we consider attentively the state of man, and appeal to fact and experience, we shall see that every evil of every kind is made an instrument of greater good, and higher felicity than would otherwise have been enjoyed. An inevitable consequence resulting from this theory, is the corrective nature of future punishment; and from the observations which occur

in this part of the work, the inference may be clearly made, "that none of the human race, however multiplied and aggravated their crimes may have been, will be consigned to fruitless unavailing suffering and misery for ever, but in the long course of ages, and by the discipline to which they will be doomed, all will be brought to repentance and be saved." p. 182.

As being necessary to the complete vindication of the divine goodness, the work concludes with an attempt to shew that the scriptures do not teach the existence of a wicked spirt who exerts his baneful influence and interference in the affairs of men. The notion of such a being having, according to our author, been acquired by the Jews from the Chaldeans, and all the passages in the books of the Old and New Testament, which seem to countenance the notion, being capable of a more rational and just interpretation. Such passages are here examined, and the scriptures are ably vindicated from the imputation of teaching the existence of a wicked spirit.

Agreeably to the peculiar manner of the venerable author, advantage is taken of the form of conversation in which the work is written, to introduce several digressions from the main subject of discourse. Of these the most interesting is that which relates to the earl of Shaftesbury, the noble author of the *Characteristics*. It is highly favourable to the memory of this eminent person, and exhibits many strong proofs that he was a friend to the christian revelation, and desirous of passing for such, though his judgment in some cases was strongly and unfortunately warped.

Such is the general outline of this work, which few will read without pleasure and improvement.

**ART. XVI.** *Illustrations of the Truth of the Christian Religion.* By EDW. MALTEY, B.D. Domestic Chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Lincoln. 8vo. pp. 448.

THE fate of Christianity affords a striking illustration of the conduct of divine Providence, which from seeming evil is continually educing good. The great founder of the gospel dispensation had scarcely been removed from a scene of trial to a state of exaltation, when the Jewish rulers began to persecute his followers, and to employ every means in their power to arrest the progress of his

religion. The violent measures which they adopted were the immediate cause of the dispersion of the disciples throughout Samaria, and the wide diffusion of those principles which the enemies of truth were endeavouring to destroy. When the gospel had advanced beyond the reach of its first opposers, the Romans became its inveterate foe; and the general persecutions seemed only to ex-

cite more eager attention to the arguments and facts upon which it was established, to invigorate the zeal of its friends, and to enlarge the number of believers. When the very power by which it had been so long harassed, was compelled to take it under its protection; it then had to contend with the sophistry, and the wit, and the misrepresentation of the infidel. This contest has continued to the present day, and in our own times has been urged with unexampled rigour. And what have been the consequences? Has christianity been vanquished? Have her enemies triumphed? No. Her divine origin has been more clearly proved; the confidence of her friends has been increased; and a mass of evidence has been formed in her favour which no future attempts can destroy or invalidate.

We have been led into these reflections by the work before us, which we do not hesitate to pronounce one of the most masterly productions which the infidelity of the present age has called forth. The author thus modestly speaks of its origin:

"During a very attentive perusal of the books of the New Testament, I was occasionally struck with internal marks of truth; some of which, so far as my recollection went, had not been observed at all, and others did not appear to have been noticed, according to their real importance, by any writers who had fallen in my way. My conviction was gradually strengthened, in proportion as the instances which occurred to me became more numerous, and my reflection upon them more direct and intense. From time to time I committed my observations to paper, without any other view, at first, than that of preserving them for my own use. Some of them, however, furnished materials for sermons; and as the collection insensibly increased, I began at length to consider them as not wholly unworthy of public attention."

The whole is arranged in eight chapters. The first of which treats upon "*the internal evidence of genuineness and authenticity in the books of the New Testament.*" This evidence is derived from the style and language of these books; from the remarkable minuteness and precision with which the incidents and conversations are recorded in them; from their not being infected with the slightest tincture of party spirit; from the candour and honesty with which the writers record their own errors and failings, from the consistency of the gospel history, in

all its parts, from the exact preservation of character, and from the comparison of these writings, with those spurious compositions, which were justly placed in the lowest class by the earliest Christians.

Of the nature of this evidence, and of the able manner in which it is detailed, our readers will be enabled to judge from the following specimens.

"In the historical books, as well as in the epistles, but particularly in the former, traces are to be discerned in every page (I might almost say in every sentence) of a manner of thinking and of expression, very consonant with the opinions and the practices of the inhabitants of Judea. The vernacular language of the Jews, at the period to which these writings are usually referred, has been termed by Jerome, and with some propriety, Syro-Chaldaic. It is not indeed entirely Chaldee, the language to which the Israelites were accustomed in their captivity; nor is it pure Syriac, the language of the inhabitants of the neighbouring country; but it is a mixture of both, with a strong tincture of the old Hebrew idiom. There are, moreover, evident marks in these volumes of the change, which the Macedonian conquests introduced into the language of the conquered countries; and there is a variety not only of Latin phrases, but of Latin words incorporated, and as it were domiciliated, into the vernacular tongue. In this last particular, the style of the New Testament is found to differ from that of the Septuagint version, which is much more free, if not entirely so, from any mixture of Latin phraseology or idiom. So that, although these different collections of writings are composed in the same kind of Greek, which has been termed the Hellenistic dialect, but is indeed more properly the Greek of the synagogue, still there is this marked distinction between them; which shews that the one must have been written, after the Macedonians had obtained a considerable influence over the affairs of Judea, while the other bears evident tokens of the prevalence of the Roman arms. The historical facts, mentioned and alluded to in various parts of the New Testament, will not admit any reasonable doubt, but that the books must have been written after the accession of Tiberius to the empire; but even if this were the case, these internal marks would shew, that the Romans had established themselves in that part of the world, sufficiently to have effected a considerable change in the language of the inhabitants. On the other hand, as Michaelis observes, "*The Hebraisms and Syriasms, with which these writings abound, shew them to have been written by men of Hebrew origin.*" He justly concludes from this fact, that they were productions of the first century; since after the decease of the Jewish converts to

Christianity, we find hardly any instance of Jews who turned preachers of the gospel; and the Christian fathers were for the most part totally ignorant of Hebrew."

Concerning the exact preservation of character in the writings of the sacred historians, Mr. M. has the following excellent remarks.

"It has ever been considered as a requisite, in fictitious compositions, that the characters should not only have the distinguishing marks of the peculiar situation, and circumstances, in which they are supposed to be placed, but that a consistency should be strictly observed throughout the same character; and if the person thus represented, be brought from real life, it is invariably required, that he should bear some visible marks of those qualities, which history or fame has already assigned him. This is absolutely necessary in order to render fiction probable. And the nearer the approach is made to these previous requisites, the more is the merit of the writer enhanced, and the interest of the composition heightened. Now certainly, the qualities that are necessary to render a professed fiction probable, are indispensably required to make that, which professes to record real transactions authentic. And as a deficiency in those qualifications would detract from the credibility of any narrative, so the exact adherence to them, under circumstances, where it is highly improbable, that the art or invention of the writer could have supplied these marks of truth, must in a great degree, if not decisively, confirm its claim to the title of true history. It is scarcely possible to conceive a wider compass of subject, and consequently one more unfavourable to the genius of fiction, than what is comprehended in the historical writings of the New Testament. Not only are Jews introduced of various ranks and ages, from the chiefs of the Sanhedrim, the expounders of the law, and the leaders of the sects, to the humble fishermen, the companions of Jesus, and even to characters still lower, those whom the contagion of disease, or the scandal of their vices had driven from the comforts of social life; but we also hear the discourses, and observe the actions, of heathens, widely differing from each other in the qualities of their hearts, in the endowments of the mind, in condition and in occupation. Nor is the scene confined to a single nation or country, but we are transported from Jerusalem to Athens, from the residence of these, who cultivated no other knowledge than that of their own law and traditions, to the centre of heathen learning and taste, and of heathen superstition too and idolatry. From Athens, and from Corinth, and from Ephesus, the seats of every improvement in the arts of civilized life, we are conveyed to the rude and uncivilized

barbarians on the shores of Melita: By sea and by land we accompany the adventurous voyagers, amidst scenes, in which they appear to the astonished spectators, as gods descended from heaven—or when they seem to the deluded multitude, as the fanatic enemies of religion—still, in the characters of the chief actors, we observe a consistency and identity, which attests the reality of the representation; while those, with whom they converse, and who are introduced but incidentally, bear the traces of that national and individual resemblance, which the records of history have invariably assigned them."

The Codex Pseudepigraphus of Fabricius furnishes our author with much strange and curious matter from the apocryphal writings, and it requires but little taste to feel the great superiority of what are accounted canonical books, and, we conceive, but little candour and ingenuousness of mind to acknowledge that the contrast furnishes a very striking proof of their authenticity.

The subject of the second chapter is "*the proof arising from the nature and strength of the prejudices of the Jews.*" In exhibiting this proof, the peculiar opinions and the nature of the expectations which the Jews had formed respecting the Messiah are detailed, and the leading features of the conduct pursued by Jesus, and the distinguishing marks of the religion he published, are next brought in contrast. We cannot give a better view of the whole than in Mr. M.'s own words.

"The Jews," he observes, "were distinguished by a rigid, inflexible attachment to the Mosaic law, the obligation of which they conceived to be perpetual; an inordinate conceit of their own superior merit, in the sight of God, and in a proportionate contempt for all other nations. They were in almost daily expectation of a chosen prophet from heaven, who should be armed with power to deliver them from their enemies, assert the superiority as well as permanence of the Mosaic institutions, and extend, over all the world, the empire of the sons of Abraham. These opinions and expectations, it must be remembered, were riveted with the greater force, and indulged with the less scruple, as they conceived them to be founded upon the will of the Almighty; and consequently that their opinions could not be wrong, nor their expectations frustrated. Nor were these the casual sentiments of the vulgar and unthinking, or the laboured interpretations of the studious only; but they were the collective and unanimous sentiments of the whole body of the people; inasmuch that there probably were but few, sufficiently enlightened, and

sufficiently unprejudiced, not to participate in them.

"It may now be useful to recapitulate those particulars in which Jesus deceived the expectations, and frustrated the views, of his own countrymen; and which rendered it so highly improbable, that the gospel should have originated in man's invention. Various prophecies had foretold that an extraordinary character would arise, for the benefit of the Jewish nation in particular, and the world in general. The epithets of a prince and a saviour, which were applied to the future Messiah, were interpreted by the Jews in a worldly sense; as they were at all times a gross and carnal people, and fancied themselves exactly in the circumstances which called for the intervention of a deliverer, in their sense of the word. They were in bondage to an enemy whom they hated, and against whom the least encouragement readily disposed them to rebel. They expected that the Messiah would deliver them from this bondage; restore their religion, with all its ceremonies, to more than its ancient splendour; add a new lustre to their favourite temple, and convert the nations of the world to the Jewish religion, or subject them to the Jewish yoke. As this great personage was, in their opinion, to unite the character of a conqueror with that of a prophet, they expected him to exhibit the dignity of the one, as well as to practise the austerity of the other. Purity of manners, spirituality of worship, and unbounded liberality of doctrine, were the last qualities which these unbending votaries of the law of Moses seemed to look for or value. Jesus Christ at length appeared to assume the title, and execute the office, of the long expected Messiah. He was born in a part of the country the most dishonoured and despised; his reputed parents were mean and obscure in their circumstances, though really of royal extraction. He set at nought that rigid adherence to the ceremonial law, in which, indeed, the religion of the Jews at that time almost entirely consisted, and from which alone they assumed to themselves so much merit. He associated with publicans and sinners; and chose for the confidential ministers of his high office, the most obscure and illiterate of his countrymen. He inculcated submission to the Romans; he expressly asserted the rejection of the obstinate Jews, and the admission of the believing Gentiles to the privileges of his kingdom; he led the life of a poor destitute, not having where to lay his head; he expressed the most honest indignation against the rich and the powerful; the interpreters of the law, and the leaders of the sects. He repeatedly incurred the charge of violating the sabbath, and of profaning the dignity of that proud object of their implicit reverence, the temple at Jerusalem. And finally, what is still more extraordinary, as he

excited the displeasure of the Jews, by appearing in a manner inferior to what they imagined beforehand, so he roused their indignation, by assuming pretensions superior to what they expected. They expected the Messiah to be a prophet, indeed, but not "the holy one of God," and therefore, when they heard the extent of his claims, they cried out—"By our law he ought to die, because he made himself the son of God." So that in the eyes of this blind people, he seemed to add the outrage of insult to the bitterness of disappointment: though he seemed not to equal in dignity the meanest of the prophets, he asserted his superiority over Abraham; and though he failed to realize their gross conceptions of the character of Christ, he assumed the still more extraordinary and more dignified title of the Son of God. If any one, after viewing the deep root which national pride and prejudice had taken in the minds of the Jews, after examining the nature of the expectations they had formed, and the manner in which they were disappointed, can still consider the rejection of Jesus, by the Jews, as a matter incredible or unaccountable, he must have accustomed himself to view the relation of cause and effect with no very accurate eye. Certainly it was impossible for him to appear in a way more contradictory to their expectation, and to propagate doctrines more distasteful to their wishes. An enthusiast could not conceive such a scheme; an impostor could not adopt it; consequently the gospel, if preached by a Jew among the Jews, could not originate in human artifice or error, but must have had its source in the unsearchable wisdom, and comprehensive benevolence, of the Almighty Governor of the universe."

The third chapter treats *on the conduct of the apostles*. "These persons," says Mr. Maltby, "form a singular exception to the generality of their countrymen, by not only readily admitting the testimony of Jesus, but by persevering, in spite of every discouragement, and every danger, to preach to the world at large the doctrines which Jesus had taught. The motives which shall appear upon strict inquiry to have directed their conduct, must assist us in determining how far the gospel is true; and if their actions shall be conformable to what might be expected from men in their peculiar circumstances; and if they shall themselves be found capable of forming a right judgment of the facts to which they bore witness, and actuated by no wrong bias whatever, we cannot refuse their evidence as credible and competent witnesses." P. 118.



Mr. Maltby then proceeds to trace the leading features of the character of the disciples, as they are delineated in the gospel narrative. He selects the most striking instances of their incredulity, their ignorance, and their ambition; he shews the strength of their prejudices, the frequency of their disappointment, owing to the wrong conceptions they had formed of their master's kingdom, the gradual removal of their deeply-rooted prepossessions, and their final more enlarged views and disinterested zeal. He demonstrates that their conduct is in every respect such as might be naturally expected from a previous knowledge of their peculiar circumstances, but considered in its whole progress incapable of solution, but upon the supposition of the truth of the facts recorded in the gospel history.

The whole of this very satisfactory argument is summed up in the following forcible words:

"Such is related to have been the conduct of the persons who joined themselves to Jesus during his life, and after his death sealed their testimony in his favour, by the sacrifice of every worldly good—connections, interest, reputation, health, and even life itself. And I think it may be said, that the narrative contains an accurate and striking representation of men, tainted with the strongest possible prepossessions, and acting not only for a considerable time, but amidst most peculiar circumstances, under a mistake, in consequence of those prepossessions. Their conduct at any instance of disappointment, the manner in which they acted when they discovered, by infallible proof, the foundation of their mistaken opinions, and the slow degrees by which they gave way to complete conviction, display the natural progress of minds yielding reluctantly to irresistible evidence; while the perils which awaited them, when they thus yielded, prove that nothing but the force of truth could extort from them a testimony which they could not utter but at the hazard of incurring every worldly inconvenience. If we admit this history of their conduct to be faithfully recorded, are we not constrained to admit the truth of the gospel, since such conduct cannot be fully accounted for, without the supposition that their Master taught, acted, and suffered, precisely as he is described to teach, act, and suffer. Is it then to be supposed, that the account thus given was invented? It would surely exceed the usual limits of human ingenuity, to assign a reason why it should be invented; and it appears beyond the reach of human art to fabricate such an account, so minutely circumstantial,

extending through such a period of years; and including such a variety of characters; at once so completely consistent, yet wearing the appearance of inconsistency; presenting, in short, a maze of human actions, readily unravelled with the proper clue, destitute of which the mind must wander in endless and inextricable difficulty."

*The miracles wrought by the disciples, during the life of our Lord*, form the next subject of investigation, chap. iv. In examining their conduct, it was necessary to produce some instances of their giving way to doubt, respecting the character and pretensions of Jesus; these, at first sight, seem hardly reconcilable with the power which they themselves had received, of working miracles. Mr. Maltby, however, undertakes to prove "that the fact is to be accounted for upon the same principles by which the rest of their conduct appears to have been guided, and instead of affording any just pretence for incredulity, will corroborate the arguments already advanced in behalf of the Christian religion," p. 164. That the power of working miracles was actually imparted and exercised, is demonstrable from scripture. The purpose for which it was bestowed, was the establishing of their claims to the attention of their countrymen, and the effect it produced upon themselves, was to secure their attachment to a cause in which they could not then be fully instructed. The bestowment of this power is shown to have been a wise and important measure; and the subsequent doubts of the apostles, and even their desertion of their Master in the hour of danger, are properly attributed to the almost incontrollable influence of deeply-rooted national prejudices.

The fifth chapter is on the *scheme of the Gospel*. It has been urged by unbelievers, as an objection to the truth of the gospel, that the disciples, after the death of their Master, adopted a system in their preaching totally different from that which he had pursued and authorized. Jesus, they assert, confined the blessings of his kingdom to his countrymen; he never went beyond the limits of Judea, nor gave any commission to his apostles to teach and baptize such as were not Jews. Very soon, however, after his departure from them, in direct opposition to the directions and the practice of Jesus, they make converts from

the Gentiles, and proclaim the abolition of the Mosaic law. "These writers," Mr. M. observes, p. 208, "plainly found their argument upon the information they have derived from the books of the New Testament, alleging, in proof of them, the supposed silence of Jesus Christ as to those material parts of the Christian scheme, upon which it is allowed that the disciples acted. It will, however, be discovered, upon an attentive examination of the sacred volumes, that they must have been perused cursorily, and superficially, by these objectors, since it appears that those parts evidently did belong to the dispensation of which Jesus was the author. The plan of that dispensation was managed in such a manner, that the first knowledge of it, and the first offer of the blessings attending it, should be communicated to the Jews. Upon their rejecting the Gospel, which was foreseen and provided for by the Father of the Universe, it was to be announced to all other nations; and from that period (the necessity for the peculiar institutions of Moses being done away) the principles of a religion fitted for the acceptance of the whole human race were to succeed. Consistently with this design, the labours of our blessed Saviour were, during the short time of his ministry, confined to Judea; nevertheless he revealed more fully the will of the Deity, and signified the greater extent of his plan upon various occasions, and in a very direct manner; insomuch, that any subsequent notification of this intention to his disciples, would have been unnecessary, if their understandings had not been so darkened by worldly views, and obstinate prejudices, that they were scarcely capable of comprehending the plainest declarations." All this is shown in a very clear and satisfactory manner; and we conceive that to every impartial inquirer it must appear, "that instead of any contradiction, the most complete harmony prevails, in reality, throughout the system, as taught by Jesus, and acted upon by his disciples; nor is there any other difference than what may be supposed very naturally to exist between the various parts of a comprehensive scheme, which is gradually matured to perfection." P. 222.

Having thus vindicated the scheme of the gospel, the author very ably proves that the conduct of the apostles in this instance furnishes a striking evidence of

the truth of the Christian scriptures.

The next chapter, *on the character of Jesus*, we recommend to the serious perusal of every adversary to Christianity; especially of those who acknowledge the excellence of Christ's moral character; with which it is here clearly demonstrated, that "all the hypotheses that have been framed to account for the origin of the Christian religion, independently of its truth, are utterly irreconcilable."

The whole chapter is deserving of the most attentive consideration; and we will not weaken the force of the argument by endeavouring to reduce it to a smaller compass.

It is certainly remarkable that the most determined enemies of revelation have in general professed to admire the character of Jesus. Vanini, Bolingbroke, Rousseau, Voltaire, and Gibbon, strenuous as they were in opposing his doctrine, have contended that he was "a good man," though they professed to believe that "he had deceived the people." "Amongst the few," observes Mr. M. "whose moral feelings have been so little in unison with those of the rest of mankind, as to lead them to impeach the character of our blessed Saviour, is Mr. W. Godwin," page 285. He accuses him of introducing intolerance and bigotry into the world; of laying an improper stress upon faith, and of betraying a morose and vindictive temper. It is the object of the *seventh chapter* of the work now before us, to examine and confute these misrepresentations. And this important object we deem to be completely attained.

The *argumentum ad hominem* was never applied with more propriety or force than in the following passage:

"But on what account, may we ask, are these sarcastic invectives directed by Mr. Godwin against the conduct of Jesus Christ? and whom is he endeavouring to shield from the fury of a malevolent assailant? No doubt he is espousing the cause of some enlightened philosophers, whose generous attempts to enlarge the understanding, and increase the happiness, of their countrymen, were opposed by the power of a tyrant, and defeated by the intolerance of a bigot! No doubt he is protecting, from the attack of ignorance and error, some whose doctrines breathed the purest benevolence, and who were indefatigable in their disinterested researches after truth! He is defending a virtuous few from the me-

naces and insults of one who substituted authority for evidence, and counteracted the efforts they made for the melioration or perfectibility of their species! The very reverse of all this. Mr. Godwin heroically steps forth in defence of fanatical and cruel priests, of crafty and interested politicians, to protect them from the reproaches of a person who inculcated the purest lessons of morality, and practised the most exalted benevolence. He is vindicating prejudice, selfishness, and bigotry, against him who was devoted to the generous purpose of delivering the human race from these and all other moral evils. He is defending "hypocrites, who devoured widows' houses, and for a pretence made long prayers;" who "paid tithe of mint, and anise, and cummin, but omitted the weightier matters of the law, judgment, mercy, and truth;" men who perverted divine and human laws to the purposes of their own selfish and cruel policy. These enemies to reform, these oppressors of truth, these persecutors of virtue, has a modern philosopher valiantly, but inconsistently, undertaken to defend against the honest indignation of him "who went about doing good;" "who did no sin; neither was guile found in his mouth;" who, even "when he was reviled, reviled not again, but committed himself to him that judgeth righteously." Surely when we reflect upon the spirit and the tendency of Mr. Godwin's accusations against Jesus, as containing, indirectly but substantially, a plea for scribes and pharisees, we may retort upon the adversaries of Christianity the charge which they have again and again levelled against Christians. In the opinions of philosophers, it should seem, as well as priests, the end justifies the means: the convert to deism is not more anxious to set bounds to his zeal, than the convert to Christianity; and by that zeal infidelity, as infidels themselves have sometimes said of orthodoxy, is supposed by its votaries to atone for the want of precision, impartiality, and candour."

The concluding chapter is thus introduced: "Among other objects proposed by this work, I have endeavoured, wherever it has been practicable, to bring the substantial support of facts to the aid of arguments. In the execution of my design, I have been occasionally led to consider in what way persons *actually* influenced by the motives which have been imputed to Jesus and his apostles, by the adversaries of Christianity, have invariably conducted themselves, and to shew in what particulars of times, and of circumstances, these persons, whether

fanatics or impostors, essentially differ from those with whom they are too often confounded. By an honest and undissembling appeal to history, I would oppose to the enemies of revealed truth, their favourite test of experience. In this design it would doubtless appear a considerable omission, if I neglected an inquiry into the causes which produced the success of the Arabian impostor, since that success has sometimes been confounded by the designing or the unthinking, with the success which attended the propagation of the gospel." P. 326.

The defects of the evidence in the favour of the Mahometan religion, are therefore pointed out. He adverts, as briefly as possible, to some of the most discriminating circumstances, under which the prophet of Arabia was enabled to execute his portentous designs, and these he collects chiefly from Sale and Gibbon, sources to which the most obstinate unbelievers can offer no objection. Our limits will not permit us to follow Mr. Maltby through this chapter; we must content ourselves with observing that he has made a judicious selection of facts, which, illustrated by his remarks, most clearly prove that the success of Mahomet affords no argument whatever to affect in the slightest degree the evidence of the Christian religion.

The volume concludes with a thesis on the insufficiency of human reason, fully to discover the proper worship of God, the extent of human duty, and the future life of man; and with a *concio ad clerum* upon the much disputed subject of Jephtha's vow. In this Mr. M. defends with considerable skill the hypothesis which removes from this Jewish warrior the charge of having taken away the life of his daughter, and refers that misfortune to the being devoted to a state of perpetual virginity. The argument in both these tracts is ably sustained, and the latinity correct and classical. In these Mr. Maltby discovers himself a good critic, and an elegant scholar, as in the former part of the volume he has earned the more distinguished praise of an enlightened and a zealous Christian.

**ART. XVII.** *LESLIE'S Short and Easy Method with the Deists; wherein the Certainty of the Christian Religion is established by some infallible Marks, (in a Letter to a Friend). To which are subjoined four additional Marks from the same Author's subsequent Tracts, entitled "The Truth of Christianity demonstrated." Compressed by FRANCIS WRANGHAM, M. A. pp. 37.*

THE tracts which are here presented to the public, in an abridged form, have been so long known, and their character so justly appreciated, that we consider it needless to enter upon an analysis of their contents. Mr. Wrangham is entitled to the thanks of every friend of revelation, for having compressed these

valuable works into so small a compass; and furnished those who have not either leisure or inclination to study larger treatises, with arguments in defence of the Christian faith "so short and clear, that the meanest capacity may understand them, and so forcible that no man has yet been found able to resist them."

**ART. XVIII.** *A Plea for Religion, and the Sacred Writings; addressed to the Disciples of Thomas Paine, and wavering Christians of every Persuasion; with an Appendix, containing the Author's Determination to have relinquished his Charge in the Established Church, and the Reasons on which that Determination was founded. By the Reverend DAVID SIMPSON, M.A. 8vo. pp. 351.*

THIS appears, from the advertisement prefixed to it, to be an enlarged edition of a work of so miscellaneous a nature, as to be scarcely capable of being reduced to an orderly arrangement. It is the production of a singular, but evidently honest mind; a book of religious anecdote, discovering some reading, but more observation and knowledge of the world. We shall endeavour to give our readers, in a few words, some idea of its contents. The first object which the author seems to have had in view, is to shew the different effects of infidelity, and faith in the gospel, upon the last moments of life. For this purpose twelve examples are given of *dying unbelievers*; the same number of *persons recovered from their infidelity*; several instances of *dying Christians who had lived in the spirit of the world*; and several of *persons living and dying either with confidence, or the full assurance of faith*. The author next inquires into the causes which induce men to reject the gospel; he allows the existence of many deplorable corruptions in the Christian church, but properly shews that they furnish no argument against Christianity itself. He then enters upon a defence of the sacred writings, and of revealed religion, but with little attention to arrangement and method. He makes great use of the prophecies; from which he concludes that every thing antichristian will be shortly overwhelmed in destruction; he therefore urges the necessity of a speedy and complete reformation of the abuses which exist in our established church, and holds up

the horrors of the French revolution as an incitement to avoid delay. In order that our readers may have some idea of the manner in which this well meaning work is conducted, we shall select the following as a proper specimen, and as containing some serious truths, which all who are interested in the welfare of religion ought seriously to consider,

"I have spoken above of the patronage of church livings. Some of my readers may be in a great degree strangers to the state of it. I have taken some pains to inform myself upon the subject, and I find that it stands nearly in the following proportions, I speak generally, but yet accurately enough for the purposes of common information. It is well known then, that the church livings of England and Wales make together, speaking in round numbers, about 16,000. Of these near 1000 are in the gift of the king. It is customary, however, for the lord chancellor to present to all the livings under the value of twenty pounds, in the king's book, and for the ministers of state to present to all the rest. Those under twenty pounds are about 780, and those above near 180. Upwards of 1600 pieces of church preferment, of different sizes and descriptions, are in the gift of the 26 bishops: more than 600 in the presentation of the two universities: about 1000 in the gift of the several cathedrals, and other clerical institutions: about 5700 livings are in the nomination of the nobility and gentry of the land, men, women, and children: and 50 or 60 there may be of a description different from any of the above, and nearer to the propriety of things. These are all so many heads of the church, in a very strong sense of the words, the king or queen of the country being a kind of arch-head.

"As we have been speaking on the subject of the *patronage of livings*, it may be worth while still further to observe, that the bishop of — enjoys very considerable privileges of this nature, which have, on a late occasion, been shamefully abused. Not less than 130 presentations belong to him! A certain *episcopal* gentleman of that diocese, knowing the extensive emoluments he was likely to be possessed of in this way, brought his son up to the church; and, when he came of proper age, bestowed first one living upon him, and then another, as they became vacant, to a very considerable amount, which this son enjoys at this day. He is now one of our *dignified clergymen*, and in possession of a very unreasonable number of valuable preferments, to most of which he pays extremely little personal attention. He takes care, however, to secure the fleece, the devil may take the flock." John x. 1—18.

"Another son of AARON, in a neighbouring district which might be named, possesses preferments in the church, by the procurement of his *episcopal* father, to the amount of 2000 pounds a year. He has for a long season been extremely attentive to his tithes; but hardly ever man paid less attention to the salvation of the souls of his people, and the sacred duties of his office. Seldom, indeed, does he appear among the former, less frequently still does he attend the proper duties of the latter. Fifty or sixty pounds a year he reluctantly pays to a journeyman *parson* to supply his own lack of service; but like master like man, they are a miserable couple together; the one is penurious, the other dissolute. What must the condition of the flock be, under the care of two such wretched shepherds?

"I will mention a third curious instance of clerical sagacity. A certain *rectory*, not fifty miles from this place, is said to be of the value of near 2000 pounds a year. A kind young lady, whose friends have sufficient interest with the patron, falls in love with a wicked, swearing, dashing officer in the army, and marries him. That a comfortable maintenance may be secured for the happy pair, it is agreed, that the gentleman shall change the colour of his clothes, apply himself to the attainment of a smattering of Latin and Greek, and admit himself a member of one of our famous universities. There he actually now is, qualifying himself to take possession of the *bouncing benefice*. The incumbent being dead, a pliable *parson* is put in for a time as a *locum tenens*. And when the *quondam* officer has attained his proper credentials, this worthy *Levite* must resign all his *fat pigs* in favour of this son of *Mars*. The white-washed officer will then come forward, and declare in the face of God and man, with a lie in his mouth, that 'he trusts he is moved by the HOLY GHOST to preach the gospel.'

"If these were solitary instances of improper proceedings in church matters, it would not be worth while to notice them in this manner, but, alas! they are only specimens of what is by no means uncommon, where valuable livings are concerned. Oh! were the business of private patronage and presentation thoroughly investigated, and laid before the public, the picture would be highly disgusting to every serious mind, and call for reformation with a tone not easy to be resisted."

In the second appendix the author assigns the reasons which have induced him to form a determination to relinquish his situation in the church.

"After what has been said in the foregoing papers, I do not see how I can, either in honour or conscience, continue to officiate any longer as a minister of the gospel in the establishment of my native country. It appears to me, in my coolest and most considerate moments, to be, with all its excellencies, a main branch of the *anti-christian* system. It is a strange mixture, as has been already observed, of what is secular and what is spiritual: and I strongly suspect the day is at no very great distance when the whole fabric shall tumble into ruins, and the pure and immortal religion of the SON of GOD rise more bright, lovely, and glorious from its subversion. The several warnings of the sacred oracles seem to be of vast importance, and necessary to be observed. "Flee out of the midst of Babylon, and deliver every man his soul; be not cut off in her iniquity, for this is the day of the Lord's vengeance; he will render unto her a recompence," Jer. li. 6. "We would have healed Babylon, but she is not healed; forsake her, and let us go every one unto his own country." Ibid. li. 9. "When ye shall see the abomination of desolation, spoken of by Daniel, the prophet, stand in the holy place, then let them which be in Judea flee to the mountains." Matt. xxiv. 15, 16. These are only remotely applicable to the business in hand. The following is more directly so: "I heard a voice from heaven, saying, Come out of her, my people, that ye be not partakers of her sins, and that ye receive not of her plagues." Rev. xviii. 4.

"In obedience to these injunctions, and under a strong disapprobation of the several anti-christian circumstances of our own established church, THE GENERAL DOCTRINES OF WHICH I VERY MUCH APPROVE AND ADMIRE, I now, therefore, withdraw, and renounce a situation which, in some respects, has been extremely eligible. I cast myself again upon the bosom of a gracious Providence, which has provided for me all my life long. Hitherto, I must say, the Lord hath helped me. I have never wanted any manner of thing that



has been necessary to my comfort, and though I neither know what to do, nor whither to go, yet

"The world is all before me, where to choose

"My place of rest, and Providence my guide."

"This extraordinary step the sacred dictates of conscience compel me to take. I am truly sorry for it. To me few trials were ever equal. I have loved the people among whom I have so long lived and laboured; and I have every reason to be satisfied with their conduct towards me. Neither hath the Great Head of the church left us without seals to our ministry. The appearance of fruit, at times, has been large; and there are some, no doubt, among the people of our charge, who will be our joy and crown in the great day of our Redeemer's coming. My friends must consider me as called away by an imperious providence; and, I trust, they will be provided with a successor more than equal, in every respect, to their late affectionate pastor. I think it necessary to say, in this place, that the doctrines I have preached unto them for six and twenty years, I still consider as the truths of God. I have lived in them myself, and found comfort from them. I have faithfully made them known to others, as thousands can bear me witness; we have seen them effectual to the pulling down the strong holds of sin and Satan, in a variety of cases: and I hope to

die in the same faith, and to find them the power of God unto the salvation of my own soul in eternal glory by Christ Jesus. I mean to preach the same doctrines, the Lord being my helper, during the whole remainder of my life, wheresoever my lot may be cast. I am not weary of the work of the sacred ministry. I have, indeed, often been weary in it, but never of it. I pray God my spiritual vigour, life and power, and love, and usefulness, may abound more and more to the end of my christian warfare.

"Awake, my dormant zeal! for ever flame,

"With gen'rous ardours for immortal souls;

"And may my head, and tongue, and heart, and all,

"Spend and be spent in service so divine."

Concerning the validity of these reasons, it is not our province to judge; to different minds they will inevitably carry different degrees of conviction. That man, however, must ever be the object of our applause, who, in the important concerns of religion, has the courage to follow the dictates of his own conscience; and who suffers no considerations of worldly interest, of personal ease or fame, to induce him to resist the call of duty, and openly to profess what his heart condemns,

## DOGMATICAL AND CONTROVERSIAL THEOLOGY.

ART. XIX. *Eight Discourses on the Connection between the Old and New Testament, considered as two Parts of the same divine Revelation; and demonstrative of the great Doctrine of Atonement, accompanied with a preliminary Discourse, respectfully addressed to the younger Clergy: containing some Remarks on the late Professor CAMPBELL's Ecclesiastical History. By the Rev. CHARLES DAUBENY, LL. B. Fellow of Winchester College, Minister of Christ's Church, Bath, and Author of "A Guide to the Church."* 8vo. pp. 481.

THE preliminary discourse occupies nearly a third part of the whole volume, and may be considered as embracing two objects; the one, a refutation of those who maintain the existence of *natural religion*, and of those who deny that the revelation of a future life made any part of the dispensation by Moses; the other, a defence of the episcopal form of church government, against the attacks which are made upon it in the lectures of the late Professor Campbell.

"By attending to the writings and discourses of many, otherwise well-informed, divines, we shall find two points, generally speaking, taken for granted; and argued

upon accordingly. The first is, that natural religion constitutes the basis of revelation; the second, that the Jewish dispensation had relation only to *temporal* objects. It is more to be wondered at that positions, demonstrably false in themselves, should originally receive the sanction of the first literary abilities; than that, on the ground of such sanction, they should continue to pass current in the world. But a very moderate exercise of the intellectual powers will be sufficient to convince us, that no authority, however respectable, can establish positions which have neither reason nor revelation to support them.

"In fact, from the commencement of revelation in Paradise, one revelation has succeeded to another, and one degree of spi-

ritual information has been, as it were, built on that which preceded it, as the circumstances of mankind from time to time required, and the accomplishment of the gracious object the Deity had in view in communicating divine knowledge to the world, rendered necessary."

Concerning the notion which divines have generally adopted of the ignorance of the Jews respecting a future life, Mr. D. observes,

"The second position, which frequently presents itself to notice in modern sermons, and which proves that the Old Testament is less understood than it formerly was, respects the spiritual blindness and ignorance of the Jewish nation. When the subject of the Jewish dispensation is introduced into sermons, the hearers are generally given to understand, that the Jews lived under a *temporal* covenant; that consequently they looked not beyond an earthly possession in the land of Canaan; and that the doctrine of a future state, if revealed at all, was so faintly revealed under the law, as to make little or no impression on the public mind. This notion has frequently led to a false comparison between the Jewish and Christian dispensations; calculated to prevent a proper judgment being formed of either."

This notion, therefore, he attempts to refute; but his arguments, chiefly borrowed from what he supposes the typical nature of the Jewish religion, will be found, we apprehend, insufficient to overthrow the elaborate reasoning of sound divines who have appeared on the other side of this much-agitated question.

Mr. Daubeny next advances to the attack of the Presbyterian Professor; in which we think he discovers more of boldness than of skill. Through the whole of this necessarily irregular defence of episcopacy we cannot pretend to accompany him; especially as we have not the Professor's work at hand. We shall, however, select one passage, which will shew the author's opinion of the lecturer; and at the same time convey some literary information that may not be generally known.

"The turbulent Cartwright, in Queen Elizabeth's days, was the first who wrote a book to prove the very position that has occupied so many pages of Dr. Campbell's history, namely, that primitive churches, with their bishops, were *parishes only*; and that each city contained but one parochial congregation. A full and learned answer to this book, which soon followed its publication, laid this controversy to rest for about a cen-

tury. It was then revived, and considered as a new discovery by one Clarkson, under the bold title of "No Scripture Evidence for Diocesan Bishops;" which speedily drew after it a complete answer from Dr. Maurice, in his admirable defence of Diocesan Episcopacy, which again laid the subject to rest for some time. This same subject, thus (if we may so say) repeatedly nonsuited, was again brought to trial about the beginning of the last century, under the title of "An Enquiry into the Constitution, Discipline, Unity, and Worship, of the Primitive Church, within the first Three Hundred Years after Christ." Having attended to the progress of this controversy, and particularly marked the ground on which from time to time it has been placed, I have no difficulty in tracing the road in which the Professor has travelled; and there is little doubt on my mind, that the publication last-mentioned was the one which the Professor had before him, when he put together that part of his lectures which is now more immediately under consideration: because the same arrangement of argument and proof; the same mutilation of extract; the same want of appeal to that evidence which the Scriptures are competent to furnish, together with the same turn of expression, are to be met with in the publications of both writers; a circumstance not to be accounted for but on the supposition of one having copied from the other. Indeed the chief marks by which the publication of the Professor appears to be distinguished from that of most other advocates in the same cause, are that unqualified boldness of assertion, and peremptoriness of decision, which certainly prove, not so much the truth of a cause, as the confidence of its supporter.

"Now, if Dr. Campbell did not know that the publication above mentioned, entitled "An Enquiry into the Constitution of the Primitive Church," &c. from which it is here presumed, that he closely copied; had been so completely answered by the author of "An original Draught of the Primitive Church;" as to bring over the inquirer to that author's opinion; he was certainly not fully qualified to read lectures on ecclesiastical history; because, having taken but a partial view of the point on which the government of the Christian church is supposed to turn, his history of church matters must be considered rather as the history of his own prejudices, than a detail of authenticated facts. On the other hand, if the Doctor had made himself acquainted with the answers which have been repeatedly given to the positions which he has so confidently produced; which, in such case he must have known, completely overturned the foundation on which he builds on this occasion; by withholding information so necessary to qualify his pupils to form an impartial judgment on the subject before

them, he was acting that disingenuous part which is not to be reconciled with the character of an honest man. Indeed it should seem (and we are very sorry that such an imputation should even seem to appear to lie against Dr. Campbell) that the Professor, having long since made up his own mind to the presbyterian standard, determined either not to meet this subject fairly; or having privately met it, thought it most advisable in his public lectures to pass over such a circumstance unnoticed. According to which plan of proceeding, controversy must be endless: we have but to adopt the motto of pride and self-sufficiency, "*Non persuadebis, etiamsi persuaseris*;" and we may dispute the ground without an inch being gained on either side from generation to generation."

This passage contains a very heavy charge, which Dr. Campbell's friends, if they have it in their power, will deem themselves bound to repel.

We now proceed to the eight discourses which form the main object of this work. The three first are from the same words, Heb. xiii. 8. "Jesus Christ, the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever." In these it is Mr. Daubeny's design to prove, that the subject of revelation has been uniformly the same; that salvation by Christ was pointed out by the mystic representation in Paradise; was the doctrine inculcated upon the antediluvian world, and a leading feature in the Jewish dispensation.

"To this end the types exhibited under the patriarchal and Jewish dispensation were designed to minister. They were pictures drawn by the hand of a master, delineative of some future original: patterns or shadows, sketched with a greater or less degree of precision, of some future reality; calculated to prepare and predispose the parties, for whose use they were appointed, for the acknowledgment of the object to which they referred. And as their principal reference was to the character and office of that Divine Person who was to be the true propitiatory sacrifice for sin, that "Lamb of God without spot of blemish," who was to be manifested in the last days; a proper acquaintance with them will be found to furnish an evidence, in support of the uniform doctrine of Christianity, as strong as prophecy, which relates chiefly to the fortunes of Christ's church in the world, can furnish, in support of its divine establishment. For type and prophecy, however the nature of their evidence may differ, are in this respect agreed; that "the testimony of Jesus is the spirit of both."

"The law of Moses then had its appropriate signification: and it ought to have

been understood; because it was written in that language to which the world had been long accustomed; which was, in fact, as old as Adam; that language of signs, shadows, and figures, of visible things, of which God had been pleased to make use, in the communication of the divine scheme of redemption to man. For sacrifice, as the type of the Lamb of God slain from the foundation of the world, had been in use from the beginning: and there was scarce a ceremony in the Mosaic ritual, which is not to be traced to an higher origin: and although, as it was to be expected, when we consider the length of time from Adam to Moses, corruption and abuse might have rendered some additions necessary to be made to the original established ritual of religion: still the object of every appointed ritual, whether in a more simple or complicated state, being to preserve a representative memorial of that covenanted redemption, to which fallen man was to look for salvation; it follows, that the service of the church was for sum and substance the same from Adam to Christ: and if that service of the church from Adam to Christ was the same, the doctrine of it cannot be different; for the service comprehended the doctrine, and was designed to preserve it. Hence it is, that with reference to his religion it may be said, "Jesus Christ is the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever."

In conformity with these notions, the tree of life in the garden of Eden was the emblem and pledge of eternal happiness; and Adam was driven out from the earthly Paradise, because that free communication with the tree of life, which as an innocent creature he enjoyed, had been forfeited by transgression, and the only remaining access to what that tree represented was through the office of a promised redeemer; p. 294, 296. The *cherubim* set up at the east of the garden of Eden, Gen. iii. 24; and afterwards made to be placed in the Holy of Holies, were designed as an emblematic representation of the covenant of grace entered into by the three great ones in the godhead; p. 300. The bondage of God's chosen people in Egypt was an emblem of the state of fallen man; and their delivery from the destroying angel through the sprinkling of the blood of the paschal lamb, was a type of the deliverance of the redeemed from the bondage of sin and Satan by Jesus Christ; of which great event the ritual service of the law was designed to furnish a more circumstantial representation, p. 349, 350. The tabernacle, and afterwards the temple, were types of Christ, p. 474. The year of jubilee

had a reference to the spiritual redemption which was, in the fulness of time, to be effected by our great Redeemer; p. 350: and the law is the gospel typified and foretold, p. 200.

If there be any to whom this mode of interpretation does not appear satisfactory; let them await with patience the irresistible evidence which is soon to be afforded: for Mr. D. assures us that,

"The time is coming, when a review of all those parts of revelation which relate to the office of the promised Messiah in the Old Testament, compared with the acts of Jesus recorded in the New, will prove, to the confusion of every species of infidelity, that in Christ they have all been punctually fulfilled: when, in consequence of the veil of type and prophecy, which for wise reasons has been thrown over the scriptures, being removed, it will be clearly seen, that ever since the church had a being in the world, Christ was the teacher of it, and the object of faith to its members; and that on this account he is called "the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever." That, in fact, he is the sum and substance of both Testaments; which do not differ from each other with regard to him, considered as the principal subject of both, but with regard to the manner of his being exhibited under each. Under the Old Testament, by sacraments and visible signs which pointed to him as yet to come; under the New Testament, by such as commemorate and declare him already come."

The *fourth*, *fifth*, and *sixth* discourses relate more immediately to the character and office of Christ. The text which Mr. Daubeny has selected for illustration in these is 1 Cor. i. 30, "Who of God is made unto us wisdom and righteousness, and sanctification and redemption."

It is not in our power to follow our author through the whole of his explanation; but we can afford the reader a specimen of his judgment and talents as a theologian, which cannot fail to excite the highest admiration. Having explained how Christ was made *wisdom*, Mr. D. proceeds;

"But Jesus Christ is not only made unto us *wisdom*, that is, he is not only the author of all true wisdom; but he is also made unto us *righteousness*, in the proper sense of that expression; to the end, that every one disposed to glory, "might glory in the Lord." With reference to this part of our Saviour's office, one of the names, by which he was distinguished in the Old Testament, was that of **THE JUST ONE**. The idea is taken from the equality of scales and weights.

Hence it is, that justice is emblematically represented with a pair of equal scales in her hand, to signify that the essence of justice consists in an equal distribution.

"The object of the covenant entered into by the Divine Persons in the Godhead was, to restore to its proper standard, the scale by which the rewards of a just God were to be measured out to his reasonable creatures. The fall had rendered man's payment so short of the divine demand, and thereby inclined the scale so much against him, that it required an extraordinary weight to be thrown in, to bring it back to its *just equilibrium*.

"That Divine Person who undertook to do this for man, was, therefore, distinguished by the title of the "Lord our Justifier:" "THE JUST ONE," or "the Giver of Justice."

We have often been surprised at the accurate acquaintance which some divines seem to possess of the very thoughts and purposes of the arch-deceiver. Mr. Daubeny appears peculiarly knowing in this subject; and from the following curious passage, might be thought to have assisted at the councils in Pandæmonium.

"Such is the account of man's original condition, prior to, and immediately subsequent to the Fall; as it is to be collected from the pages of divine revelation. The devil, in consequence of rebellion, had lost his first estate; and was left without any hope of its recovery. His sin, in consideration of his exalted nature, it is presumed, was of that aggravated kind as to preclude all idea of pardon. The devil, therefore, found no redeemer. Thus circumstanced, his malice and envy were exerted against God's newly-favoured creature, with the view of frustrating the design of his creation. Having therefore succeeded against Adam in drawing away his allegiance from his Maker, he triumphed in the thought, that he had rendered his condition equally desperate with his own. To the justice of God, under which he was suffering, he found himself unable to make any satisfaction; he flattered himself therefore that his rival creature man, whom he considered less able to do it, was rendered at least as miserable as himself.

"But the event of the devil's malice having been foreseen, a remedy had, in the wisdom of the divine councils, been prepared against the effects of it. According to an eternal purpose, the great mystery of godliness, settled before the foundation of the world, had for its object, to counteract the evil the devil should work; by providing for the recovery of God's fallen creature. It had been graciously determined, that man should be delivered from his bondage under Sin and Satan; and restored on certain conditions to his forfeited inheritance.

"For the accomplishment of this gracious purpose, one of the three persons in the Godhead took on himself the office of *Redeemer*; that in that character he might pay down the ransom necessary on the occasion. "We were *redeemed* (says the apostle) with the precious blood of Christ, as of a lamb without blemish and without spot; who verily was fore-ordained before the foundation of the world (1 Pet. i. 18;) according to the divine purpose and grace which was given us in Christ Jesus, before the world began," 2 Tim. ii. 9.

"The devil thinking, it is presumed, that as justice must be unchangeable, and cannot acquit without adequate satisfaction being made to it; and that satisfaction must be proportionate to the condition of the party against whom the sin has been committed; knowing at the same time that God was an *infinite* being, and that Adam was far from being *such*; consequently that no satisfaction in this case could be made; his conclusion, it is probable, might be, that the situation of fallen man was without a remedy; and that therefore he had prevailed against God, in becoming instrumental to the ruin of his new creation. But the devil was permitted thus far to triumph, in order that the inexhaustible riches of divine grace, wisdom, and power, might be more fully manifested, in the perfect recovery of fallen man; and the final overthrow of that spiritual enemy who had prevailed against him. The ever adorable mystery of God manifest in the flesh, removed all those insuperable difficulties which the sanguine thoughts of the devil had thrown in the way of man's recovery to his lost estate. For, according to this mystery of godliness, satisfaction was made by the same nature that had transgressed; and that satisfaction was full and adequate to the purpose, because the person who made it, was God as well as man: and though the Godhead cannot die, yet that person, in whom we are told "the fulness of the Godhead dwelt bodily," actually did die; and by that death, in the character of the *second Adam*, recovered what had been lost by the *first*."

All this may appear very well as part of the machinery of an epic poem; but is entirely out of its proper place in a work from which imagination ought to be carefully excluded.

The seventh discourse is from these words, "The wages of sin is death; but the gift of God is eternal life through Jesus Christ our Lord," Rom. vi. 23. The principal subject of this discourse is the *vicarious atonement for sin*. A note is subjoined for the purpose of shewing, that the notion of such an atonement prevailed among the heathens. After a

few quotations in proof of this, Mr. D. passes on to the vindication of those public schools in which this important fact is so successfully taught.

The *eighth* discourse, from Heb. xii. 1, consists chiefly of a recapitulation of the preceding seven.

It was not to be expected that in such a work as this, unitarians would escape the animadversion of the reverend author. They have accordingly their due share of abuse. Dr. Priestley is "a modern infidel of an eccentric kind;" and all whose creed bears any resemblance to his, are "proud, deluded, ignorant believers in a lie," &c. &c. We had hoped that Mr. Daubeny would have paid some attention to their arguments, which we know do produce some effect upon unguarded minds; a task for which Mr. Daubeny seems admirably qualified, by his prodigious knowledge of types and figures, his vast acquaintance with the counsels both of heaven and of hell, and his critical skill in the Hebrew language, which has enabled him to inform his readers that *בריות* signifies *soap*. But though he has disdained to employ argument, he has not refrained from invective and misrepresentation.

"The unitarian of the present day (as he is commonly, though *improperly*, distinguished), is, in a great measure, what the blind unconverted Jew was in St. Paul's day. He believes in one God. So likewise did the Jew. He has a zeal for God, but not according to knowledge. Similar to this was the record which St. Paul bore to the religious character of his countrymen; Rom. x. 2. The unitarian, upon the ground of a supposed moral perfection, goes about to establish his own righteousness; and cannot submit himself to the righteousness of God. Such was precisely the case with the unbelieving Jew."

In this very accurate comparison, Mr. Daubeny has neglected to remind his readers of one very trifling difference between the two characters: the one, professing to receive Jesus as the promised Messiah, and reverently acknowledging his authority to reveal the will of God; the other, considering him as an impostor, coming in his own name, and deceiving the people! The scriptures seem to lay some stress upon the virtues of honesty and charity; and afford us some good ground to believe, that the want of these cannot be com-



pensated even by that faith which could remove mountains; nor that knowledge which would enable us to understand all mysteries.

**ART. XX.** *Remarks on the Doctrines of Justification by Faith, in a Letter to the Rev. JOHN OVERTON, A. B. Author of a Work entitled, "The true Churchman ascertained."* By EDWARD PEARSON, B. D. Rector of Rempstone, Nottinghamshire. 8vo. pp. 38.

**ART. XXI.** *Remarks on the Controversy subsisting, or supposed to subsist, between the Arminian and Calvinistic Ministers of the Church of England; in a Second Letter to the Rev. JOHN OVERTON, &c.* By E. PEARSON, &c. 8vo. pp. 102.

THE work which is the subject of the remarks contained in these two letters, has been some time before the public; and, as might have been foreseen, has occasioned much inquiry and debate: one party, which is daily receiving reinforcements not only from the laity, but also from the younger clergy, considering it as an unanswerable defence of the calvinistic interpretation of the articles of the church; the other, feeling no small degree of well-founded apprehension, lest the interests of the church should suffer by the consequences which the prevalence of Calvinism amongst her ministers does inevitably produce. This controversy appears to us to render all the external danger, which our religious establishment has been accustomed to fear, comparatively insignificant, and to make 'those her enemies who are of her own household.' When men can once desert their parish church for the purpose of following a calvinistic or evangelical preacher, another step will lead them to the conventicle; for the discipline of the church they have no longer any reverence or regard, and upon the death or removal of a favourite minister, they are ready to join a society of dissenters already formed, or to create one themselves. They who are usually styled evangelical ministers may not be aware of this, but such indisputably is the tendency of their doctrine. One instance of this nature has already occurred. But to proceed to the works now before us.

Mr. Overton has laboured to prove, that according to the doctrine of the church, faith only, or faith without works, is the conditional or instrumental cause of justification; also that "good works are neither meritorious, nor the appointed condition of justification." If these positions be admitted, the doctrines of the church are so far calvinistic. But, says Mr. Pearson, the church in her homily on repentance; in her

catechism; in her forms of prayer to be used at sea; and in the office of the visitation of the sick, beginning with these words, "Our Lord Jesus Christ, who hath left power to his church to absolve all sinners who truly repent and believe in him," &c.; expressly declares, that *repentance and faith*, not faith only, are the conditions of forgiveness, and of being placed in a state of favour with God. Surely then, he observes, it is not correct to say, that the church considers *faith alone* as the condition, and consequently not correct to assert that she is calvinistic.

As it is not our intention to enter into the merits of this controversy, which, as Mr. Pearson justly says, "is not a new one," though it appears to us now to wear a more formidable aspect; we must refer our readers to the tracts themselves; observing only, that they evince much accuracy of discrimination, and a spirit highly becoming the author's profession.

Both Mr. Pearson and Mr. Overton are zealous churchmen, and consider even the least deviation from what the church prescribes, either in doctrine or discipline, as encouraging, if not actually constituting, the "heinous sin of schism." Yet how is this sin to be avoided? "We," says Mr. Overton, "are the true churchmen, and Mr. Daubeney and his associates are dissenters from the church of England;" i. e. schismatics; lett. 2d. p. 32. But what says Mr. Pearson? "All the schisms which have happened among us, may justly be referred to the operation of calvinistic principles;" p. 86. Hence Mr. Overton and his associates, if not already schismatics, hold principles which will lead them thither. Now, which of these guides must a plain man follow? One of them certainly is wrong; yet each asserts, that he has the church, her articles, and her homilies on his side. Must he follow his own judg-

ment? No; that is worse still: for, says Mr. P. lett. 2d. p. 78, "if individuals are to determine what doctrines are to be taught, and who is to teach them, what places and times are to be appropriated to public worship, and what rites and ceremonies are to be observed in it, what will soon become of Christianity among us?" By which he certainly means to insinuate, that Christianity would soon be lost. What! does Christianity depend for its existence upon observances which Mr. P. allows were not prescribed by Christ himself? p. 78. Does it rest no longer upon the sure word of prophecy, and the testimony of miracles? The author does not affirm this, for he then proceeds,

p. 78, "In the minds and hearts of true believers, indeed, it must ever reign as the guide of their lives, and the ground of their dearest hopes; but, considered as a church, as a body of men united in the same faith and worship, we shall probably look for it in vain." The term Christianity then, as explained by Mr. Pearson, means the church of England; and his inquiry amounts to nothing more than this: "If the operations of private judgment were once allowed, what would become of the church?" All her faithful sons will not thank him for this excess of fear; and many will lament that he has thus extenuated, if not removed, the "heinous sin of schism."

ART. XXII. *The Articles of the Church of England proved not to be Calvinistic: by*  
THOMAS KIPLING, D. D. Dean of Peterborough, and late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 91.

THE temper in which this pamphlet is written, is very different from that which is displayed by the preceding author; but the writer's object is more clearly obtained. Dr. Kipling so far forgets the character which he ought to sustain as a gentleman and a Christian, as to impute to his adversaries falsehood and evil intentions; but his arguments are demonstrative and incontrovertible. His work is divided into three chapters.

The first chapter is employed in stating the question at issue, and the method to be pursued in resolving it.

"Our calvinistic adversaries have attempted to demonstrate, that all the doctrines in Calvin's theory are in perfect correspondence with the Liturgy of our church. Their mode of reasoning is this: First, they have endeavoured to convince their readers by quotations, partly from Archbishop Usher, Bishop Jewell, Dean Nowell, Professor Whitaker, and Martin Luther, partly from the New Annual Register and the Critical Review, but mostly from the historians Strype, Fuller, Heylin, Burnet, Mosheim, Hurd, Hume, Robertson, and Smollet; that the compilers of our thirty-nine articles were Calvinists in sentiment: in the next place presuming, that no one will hereafter controvert this point, they have inferred from it, that those ARTICLES are calvinistic: and lastly, have concluded, that, because the Liturgy of our church must correspond with its articles, therefore this LITURGY is also calvinistic.

"This external evidence, it must be confessed, is not without force. It is not, however, of all the evidence, which may be had,

for determining, whether the Liturgy of our church is in unison with Calvinism, the very best and most forcible. If the text of a work is unadulterated, and understood in the same sense throughout by every reader, the most certain method of discovering, whether the sentiments contained in it are calvinistic or not, is to compare its different parts with the publications of CALVIN. By this method we produce, as it were, that very work, the sentiments of which we are investigating, to speak for itself; and render all external testimony useless and nugatory.

"Seeing then that the learned have a correct edition of all Calvin's writings, that the text of our Liturgy is in every one's hands, and still genuine, and that there is no dispute among us about the meaning of any passage in it, I shall not, in this present inquiry, resort, as our adversaries have done, to other authorities; but for the purpose of resolving this question, Whether is there an exact agreement between Calvin's doctrine of predestination, and our book of common prayer? shall closely adhere to the following simple plan: First, I shall shew, by extracts taken from Calvin's writings, what this author's doctrine of predestination is; and secondly, shall compare, not the whole of our Liturgy (for this would be an endless task), but so many and such parts of it, with this calvinistic doctrine, as will fully enable every person of candour and judgment to decide, whether this liturgy and this doctrine are in perfect harmony with each other."

Confining himself to this single doctrine of predestination, because "he believes that there is not one of Calvin's peculiarities which may not be comprised under this single doctrine," Dr. Kip-

ling, in the second chapter, shews, by a considerable number of extracts from the reformer's publications, "what that doctrine is."

In the third chapter he "compares so many and such parts of our Liturgy with this calvinistic doctrine, as will enable every candid and competent judge to determine, whether our Liturgy

and this doctrine are, as it is asserted, in perfect correspondence and harmony with each other." Every candid and competent judge, after an attentive perusal of these two chapters, must, we conceive, declare, that they are not. We do not desire more satisfactory evidence.

**ART. XXIII.** *An Original Letter from a Gentleman to his Friend, giving a short Account of a Work, entitled PIA ET CATHOLICA INSTITUTIO, or "the necessary Erudition of a Christian Man," set forth in the Reign of King Henry the Eighth; chiefly intended as a Vindication of Archbishop CRANMER from the Charges of Inconsistency and of Arminianism, with particular Reference to the Bishop of Lincoln's Assertions in his Elements of Christian Theology.* 8vo. pp. 23.

THIS letter, written by a partisan of those who affix a calvinistic interpretation to the articles of our established church, was not, we learn, originally intended to be made public. It is a pity that any circumstances should have occurred to alter the author's former intention. The subject upon which he has undertaken to offer his opinion is curious and interesting, and deserving of more accurate attention than this writer seems either willing or able to bestow upon it. We suspected from the first sight of this pamphlet that even the title page contained an error; and, after much inquiry, our suspicion still remains. The *Catholica Institutio* was not the same book, we apprehend, as the *Necessary Erudition*: the former was printed in 1537; the latter in 1543. This is the account which is given by most of our historians. Collier tells us that they were two different works: and Strype himself does not positively assert the contrary.

But we object to more than the title page of this pamphlet. "If we prove," says the author, "that Cranmer was a

bigotted papist when he took part in drawing up the erudition, and a sound protestant when he compiled the articles; that in the former work he was assisted by those sanguinary monsters against the reformed, Bonner and Gardiner; and that in the thirty-nine articles, the homilies, and Liturgy, he had the aid of that great luminary of the reformation, Mr. John Calvin, &c.: surely I say, when these things are taken into consideration, we may easily account for the striking discord between the Erudition and the Articles." To prove these things however, not one argument, not one fact is adduced.

"Quid dignum tanto feret hic promissori  
hiatu?  
"Parturiunt montes, nascetur ridiculus  
mus."

Our author, no doubt, found assertion easier than proof; and less difficulty in making than in fulfilling promises. We should be glad to see the subject of this letter undertaken by one qualified for the task.

**ART. XXIV.** *Remarks on the Design and Formation of the Articles of the Church of England, intended to illustrate their true Meaning: a Sermon preached before the University of Oxford, at St. Mary's, on Sunday, February 14, 1802. By WILLIAM Lord Bishop of Bangor.* 8vo. pp. 34.

THIS is the second part of a discourse preached before the university of Oxford in November 1800. In the former part, the right reverend preacher offered some remarks upon the origin and utility of creeds; in that now before us, he confines his attention to those large summaries of faith and religion called confessions, especially that of our

own church exhibited in the thirty-nine articles. He endeavours to shew that their meaning must be that, and that only, which was intended by the original imposers; that the best means to establish the exact and true sense of them, are to consider the causes which gave rise to them, as well as the various circumstances under which they were

composed; and above all, to compare them with other confessions made by contemporary churches: that the means of comprehension intended were not any general ambiguity or equivocation of terms, but a prudent forbearance in all parties not to insist on the full extent of their opinions in matters not essential or fundamental; and in all cases to wave as much as possible tenets which might divide, where they wished to

unite; and that one main clue to the just interpretation of these articles, is a cautious regard not to ascribe to them any tenet which is not fully expressed; especially when the language therein used, compared with other contemporary confessions, is more restricted, and the doctrine less explicit. Upon these principles some of the articles are examined and illustrated.

**ART. XXV.** *The Athanasian Creed vindicated and explained, in three Charges; by the late W. DODWELL, D.D. Archdeacon of Berks, and Rector of Shottesbrooke, in that County.* 12mo. pp. 115.

HAD this posthumous publication, instead of being consigned to the printer, been buried in the grave of its author; we apprehend that the Christian world would have sustained no loss, nor the writer's name been less entitled to honourable remembrance. If the church, notwithstanding the counsels of some who have been her brightest ornaments, will keep this creed amidst her formularies, it were better that the minds of orthodox believers be not disturbed by any attempts to explain it. Let it be kept as a proof and an evidence of the great power of faith; but never let the

understanding be taught to regard it as an object upon which it may exercise its faculties. Unexplained and inexplicable let it remain among those mysteries "at which reason stands aghast, and faith herself is half-confounded;" and, like the sacred adamant sphere of the Druids,

"Which mov'd obsequious to the gentlest touch

"Of him, whose breast was pure;"

let it be reserved to try the spirits, and to keep without the holy pale every evil heart of unbelief.

**ART. XXVI.** *The Christian Guide, or an Attempt to explain, in a Series of connected Discourses, the leading Articles of Christianity: designed principally for the Use of Families and young Persons.* By CHARLES PLUMPTRE, M.A. Rector of Long Newton, in the County of Durham. 8vo. pp. 349.

THESE discourses are thirteen in number, and their nature and design may be known from the author's own words:

"I have studied as great plainness of language as the different subjects treated of would allow. It may be, that some of you may be startled at the novelty of the plan; but I will beg the delay of opinion till I shall have made some progress in it; by which time, I trust, I shall so far have opened the understanding as to convince all, that our religion is more than a set of disunited precepts, and ineffectual points of faith. In order that you may be apprised of what I intend to prosecute in my design, I must forewarn you that I shall begin with considering the sad effects of man's disobedience in the garden of Eden, which brought death into the world, and rendered human nature unfit for heavenly happiness: whence I shall shew you the nature of that covenant by which we were again made capable of salvation, so that "as in Adam we all die, even so in Christ we shall all be made alive." The

next thing which I shall lay before you, will be the nature of the kingdom of Jesus Christ, which was given him because of his infinite love in condescending to become man, and making in his human nature reconciliation for mankind. This will lead me to consider the form and constitution of that society upon earth, which Christ called his church, in which I shall say a few words respecting the appointment and office of the ministers which belong to it. I shall shew that, for the purpose of assisting us in the performance of our duties, we have not only a Saviour interceding for us at the right hand of God, but a divine helper, ever ready to answer our petitions, and co-operate with our endeavours. My next subject will be two particulars, essential to our Christian calling, without both which we can never belong to Christ's kingdom, nor receive the benefits of it, which are therefore frequently and absolutely required of us: namely, faith and repentance. The nature of the two sacraments, as they are called, will come next under examination; which will be followed by shewing the inward principle of mind

with which all our moral actions and religious duties must be performed; after this I shall insert a discourse on Christian prayer. The whole I shall conclude with considering the nature of that great change which we must all undergo, I mean death, as preparatory to the awful decision of our eternal condition, which will be made for us by the same person who first undertook to deliver us from the wrath of God, became our Re-

deemer, and will then act as our impartial Judge."

The style is simple and unadorned; the whole work forms a candid statement of Christianity as taught by our established church; and is well adapted to serve the purposes which Mr. Plumptre had in view.

**ART. XXVII.** *The Calvinistic and Socinian Systems examined and compared, as to their moral Tendency; in a Series of Letters, addressed to the Friends of vital and practical Religion. A new and correct Edition. To which is added, a Postscript, establishing the Principle of the Work against the Exceptions of Dr. TOULMIN, Mr. BELSHAM, &c. By ANDREW FULLER.* 8vo. pp. 388.

THOUGH our only business with this work is to announce it as a new edition, we cannot refrain from entering our protest, notwithstanding all that the author has urged in his defence, against the principle upon which it is written. In all matters of religious controversy, the appeal should be made not from one system of doctrine to another, but from the disputed principles fairly stated, to the words of scripture. By this means alone can their truth or their falsehood be justly discovered. Besides the principle of the work, we must likewise object to the manner in which it is conducted. The author is deficient in candour and honesty; qualities of some importance in a controversialist. Instead of quoting the words of those against whom he writes, Mr. Fuller frequently professes to bring the sense of

several pages within a few lines: in doing which he perverts his author's meaning, and neglects to notice passages which afford a direct contradiction to the opinions which he assures his readers those pages contain. If the truth of this assertion be doubted, we refer to p. 16 and 17, compared with the *whole* of the tenth section of Dr. Priestley's treatise on necessity.

Of the present edition Mr. F. thus speaks:

"Since the first edition, the author has attempted in some places to strengthen his argument, and to remove such objections as have hitherto occurred. The principal additions will be found in letters iv. and xv." These additions contain a vindication of himself against the objections of Dr. Priestley, Mr. Belsham, and the Monthly Review.

**ART. XXVIII.** *A Reply to Mr. FULLER's Appendix to his Book on "The Gospel worthy of all Acceptation: particularly to his Doctrine of Antecedent Holiness, and the Nature and Object of justifying Faith." By ARCHIBALD M'LEAN.* 12mo. pp. 154.

THIS controversy is upon the nature of faith, the previous disposition of mind which is necessary to believing, and the consequences which attend it. "As the clear and decisive reasoning of the apostle Paul," Mr. M'Lean observes, "has not put an end to this controversy, which has been agitated ever since, I am of opinion that it is of such a nature,

that it can only be *satisfyingly* decided in the conscience and experience of such individuals as are taught of God; and that it is part of that knowledge which no man can effectually teach his neighbour;" p. 154. It would therefore be useless to trouble our readers with a detail of the arguments which are here produced.

**ART. XXIX.** *A Letter to an Antipædobaptist. By JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, LL.D.* F. R. S. &c. 8vo. pp. 48.

THE object of this tract is to vindicate the practice of infant baptism; and this object the venerable author has completely obtained. After stating some very strong presumptive evidence

in favour of the antiquity of infant baptism, Dr. P. produces arguments of a more direct nature. These arguments are drawn from the writings of the early Christians; upon whose evidence with





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respect to practices that were established in the primitive church the Doctor offers the following just remarks.

"Nothing is so likely to pass without particular notice by writers as things that are universally known and practised by the persons for whose use their books were written. For this reason it is that we have a fuller account of Roman customs in the Greek than in the Roman authors, who wrote for the use of Romans, to whom their customs were as well known as to themselves. This accounts for nothing being said, except in a slight and indirect manner, by early Christian writers of assembling for public worship on the Lord's day, or of the particular manner of administering Christian ordinances; these things being well known to those for whose use they wrote. We cannot, therefore, expect any express mention of infant baptism if it was the universal practice, and the propriety of it not disputed by any sect of Christians. Expressions, however, occur from which it may be clearly inferred; and this circumstance furnishes the most satisfactory evidence of the universality of any custom."

Such expressions relating to infant baptism are to be found in Justin Mar-

tyr, Irenæus, Origen, Tertullian, Cyprian, and others. Objections are next fairly considered, and successfully repelled. The author then proceeds to inquire into the origin of antipædo-baptism; and he asserts, that it cannot be traced higher than to the Petrobrussians, in the twelfth century. The tract concludes with some observations on dipping or sprinkling, and on the obligation of the rite of baptism itself. With respect to the latter, which the author piously believes to be still in force, he yet makes the following candid remarks.

"At the same time candour requires us to observe, that since the great object of Christianity is purity of heart and life; if this end be really attained by those who, for insufficient reasons, omit what we take to be even an useful means, and much more what is merely an emblem, of it, we should not condemn either the Quakers, who reject both baptism and the Lord's supper, or those Christians who, judging baptism to be now unnecessary, do not choose to have their children baptised. *Let every man be fully persuaded in his own mind.*"

**ART. XXX.** *Methodism unmasked, or the Progress of Puritanism, from the Sixteenth to the Nineteenth Century: intended as an explanatory Supplement to "Hints to Heads of Families."* By the Rev. T. E. OWEN, A.B. Rector of Llandyfrydog, Anglesea, and late Student of Christ Church, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 123.

"IN submitting the following pages to the public eye," observes the candid, mild, and consistent compiler, in his preface, "it is by no means my design to excite the general indignation against all sectarists; much less is it my wish to rouse government to any acts of cruelty or oppression towards them. My intention is far otherwise. It is to prove, by the following extracts, what I have before asserted, that sectarists, of all kinds, are (and ever have been, since the reformation) either blind instruments, or wilful tools, in the hands of anarchists and atheists; that their aim is not a reform in religion, but a total overthrow of our religious and political constitutions, and a revolution in these dominions, similar to that which has deluged France with blood, and brought upon many millions irreparable ruin." "I know," says he, in the conclusion, p. 117, "there are some sectarists who are, as yet, of avowed and unquestionable loyalty." Again, p. 120, "I will hope that among those sectaries who may honour this little work with a perusal,

there will be many whose political principles are as untainted, as their religious zeal is pure." To what attention can any writer be entitled, who is guilty of such palpable contradiction!

This work is a compilation of the most virulent and abusive nature; evidently designed, notwithstanding the compiler's protestations, to excite general indignation upon all who venture, in obedience to the dictates of conscience, to withdraw from the communion of the established church; but we trust that the good sense of our countrymen will render this iniquitous design abortive.

Men who can sit down to recommend persecution, are men "born out of due time." The Jewish Sanhedrim that sat in judgment upon the early Christians; the court of the inquisition, that punished with imprisonment and with death the bold assertor of the liberty of conscience, would have found them useful instruments: by the Bonners of former times they would have been highly esteemed; and by the Marys, they

would have been caressed and honoured; but in this age of civil and religious freedom, they will be condemned to the neglect and insignificance which they so justly merit.

**ART. XXXI.** *Christ the Sinner's Surety, or the Insolvent Debtor's Discharge.* 12mo. pp. 32.

IF this little tract should secure the author's wishes, we are told, "it will then appear that God is pleased, sometimes, to adopt the weakest instruments to accomplish the most important purposes." Of the purposes we will not pretend to judge; but of the weakness of the instrument we are fully convinced.

**ART. XXXII.** *A further Consideration of the Arguments of the Sabbatarians, and the Account balanced, in Seven Letters; being a Reply to the "Remarks" of Mrs. ANN ALSOP, and those of her two Friends. By T. EDMONDS, Minister of the Gospel, Upton-upon-Severn.* 12mo. pp. 52.

A WELL meant attempt to reclaim some weak people from an opinion that they ought to keep the seventh day holy, rather than the first.

**ART. XXXIII.** *Lectures on the Gospel of St. Matthew; delivered in the Parish Church of St. James, Westminster, in the Years 1798, 1799, 1800, and 1801. By the Right Rev. BEILBY PORTEUS, D.D. Bishop of London.* 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 364 and 363.

IT is much to the honour of this celebrated prelate, that he should thus have stepped aside from the common routine of official employment for the purpose of engaging in a laborious undertaking, the success of which, previous to its commencement, must have appeared to him extremely problematical; and the execution of which, at his advanced period of life, must have required much painful exertion, and been attended with considerable fatigue. The worthy Bishop must, however, have received great satisfaction from the avidity with which these lectures were attended, and especially by those classes of society among whom it is, perhaps, most difficult for a preacher of the gospel to procure an audience. So despotic is the empire of fashionable folly, and so overwhelming the giddy vortex of never-ending dissipation.

In the first lecture we have an interesting compendium of the several books which compose the Old and New Testament, together with their leading objects and design. In the conclusion, the Bishop strongly insists upon the utility, and the absolute necessity, of reading the scriptures; and then states the nature of the subsequent lectures. In these he designs, first, to explain and illustrate obscure passages; secondly, to

point out leading and fundamental doctrines; thirdly, to confirm and strengthen faith in Christianity; and fourthly, to enforce the great moral precepts in the gospel. The venerable prelate closes this introductory lecture in the following admirable manner:

"An exposition of scripture, then, must at all times be highly useful and interesting to every sincere disciple of Christ; but must be peculiarly so at the present moment, when so much pains have been taken to ridicule and revile the sacred writings, to subvert the very foundations of our faith, and to poison the minds of all ranks of people, but especially the middling and the lower classes, by the most impious and blasphemous publications that ever disgraced any Christian country.\* To resist these wicked attempts is the duty of every minister of the gospel; and as I have strongly exhorted all those who are under my superintendence, to exert themselves with zeal and with vigour in defence of their insulted religion, I think it incumbent on me to take my share in this important contest, and to shew that I wish not to throw burthens on others of which I am not willing to bear any full proportion. As long therefore as my health, and the various duties of an extensive and populous diocese, will permit, and the exigencies of the times require such exertions, I propose to continue annually these lectures. And I shall think it no unbecoming conclusion of my life, if these labours of my declining years should tend in

\* About this time, and for some years before, *The Age of Reason*, and other pestilent writings of the same nature, were disseminated through almost every district of this country with incredible industry.

any degree to render the holy scriptures more clear and intelligible, more useful and delightful; if they shall confirm the faith, reform the manners, console and revive the hearts of those who hear me; and vindicate the honour of our divine Master from those gross indignities and insults, which have of late been so indecently and impiously thrown on him and his religion."

The *second lecture* commences with some excellent observations on the authenticity of the gospel history in general, as delivered by the *four evangelists*. His Lordship then opens his remarks upon the gospel of Matthew; and having endeavoured to account for some of the difficulties which occur in the genealogy of Christ, he proceeds to illustrate the extraordinary circumstances which are recorded in the two first chapters.

The *third lecture* relates principally to the mission of the Baptist; and comprises "a short history of the doctrines, the life, and the death of that extraordinary man." The remarks which follow by way of inference, in proof of the divine mission of Christ, as derived from the testimony and acknowledged character of his renowned precursor, must, we think, appear convincing to every candid and unprejudiced reader. From these we shall select the following:

"Besides bearing this honest and disinterested testimony to Christ, the Baptist hazarded a measure which no impostor or enthusiast ever ventured upon, without being immediately detected and exposed. He ventured to deliver *two prophecies* concerning Christ; prophecies too which were to be completed, not at some distant period, when both he and his hearers might be in their graves, and the prophecy itself forgot, but within a very short space of time, when every one who heard the prediction might be a witness to its accomplishment or its failure. He foretold, that *Jesus should baptize with the Holy Ghost and with fire*, and that *he should be offered up as a sacrifice for the sins of mankind*. These were very singular things for a man to foretell at hazard and from conjecture, because nothing could be more remote from the ideas of a Jew, or more unlikely to happen in the common course of things. They were moreover of that peculiar nature, that it was utterly impossible for John and Jesus to concert the matter between themselves; for the completion of the prophecies did not depend solely on them, but required the concurrence of other agents, of the Holy Ghost in the first instance, and of the Jews and the Roman governor in the other; and unless these had entered into a confederacy with the Baptist and with Christ,

to fulfil what John foretold, it was not in the power of either to secure the completion of it. Yet both these prophecies were, we know, actually accomplished within a very few years after they were delivered; for our Lord suffered death upon the cross for the redemption of the world; and the Holy Ghost descended visibly upon the apostles in the semblance of fire on the day of Pentecost."

The subject of the *fourth lecture* is the temptation of Christ. In this the Bishop adopts the literal hypothesis, rejecting the opinion of those commentators who have recourse to a visionary representation, though he acknowledges, "that their opinion is supported by many specious arguments, and seems to remove some considerable difficulties." We will not presume to contradict the venerable preacher; but would, however, advise our readers not to give to our divine poet, from whom all this *Christian mythology* is borrowed, the authority of inspiration; but to weigh well in their minds an hypothesis respecting this extraordinary transaction in the early part of the ministry of Jesus, which we noticed in a preceding article.

The *fifth lecture* is so excellent, that we cannot too earnestly recommend a careful perusal of the whole. It begins with the opening of the ministry of Jesus, as related in the latter part of the fourth chapter of Matthew; and pointing out the objects it embraced; the conditions it required; and the noble idea which is thus presented of the Christian religion. His lordship then considers the choice which Jesus made of companions and assistants; and briefly examines the conduct of Mahomet on a similar occasion. He then proceeds to the great subject of the lecture, *the miracles of Christ*; upon which his remarks are numerous, just, and in the highest degree satisfactory. We select with pleasure the following passage:

"These miracles being wrought not in the midst of friends, who were disposed to favour them, but of most bitter and determined enemies, whose passions and whose prejudices were all up in arms, all vigorous and active against them and their author, we may rest assured that no false pretence to a supernatural power, no frauds, no collusions, no impositions, would be suffered to pass undetected and unexposed; that every single miracle would be most critically and most rigorously sifted and inquired into, and no art left unemployed to destroy their credit and counteract their effect. And this in fact we find to be



the case. Look into the ninth chapter of St. John, and you will see with what extreme care and diligence, with what anxiety and solicitude the pharisees examined and re-examined the blind man that was restored to sight by our Saviour, and what pains they took to persuade him, and to make him say, that he was not restored to sight by Jesus.

"They brought," says St. John to the pharisees, "him that aforetime was blind; and the pharisees asked him how he had received his sight. And he said unto them, Jesus put clay upon mine eyes, and I washed, and did see." A plain, and simple, and honest, relation of the fact. "But the Jews, not content with this, called for his parents, and asked them saying, Is this your son who ye say was born blind? How then doth he now see? His parents, afraid of bringing themselves into danger, very discreetly answered, We know that this is our son, and that he was born blind; but by what means he now seeth we know not; or who hath opened his eyes we know not; he is of age, ask him, he shall speak for himself. They then called the man again, and said to him, give God the praise, we know that this man (meaning Jesus) is a sinner. The man's answer is admirable: Whether he be a sinner or no, I know not; but this I know, that whereas I was blind, now I see. Since the world began, was it not known that any man opened the eyes of one that was born blind. If this man were not of God, he could do nothing. And they answered him and said, Thou wast altogether born in sin, and dost thou teach us? And they cast him out." A very effectual way it must be confessed of confuting a miracle.

"The whole of this narrative (from which I have only selected a few of the most striking passages) is highly curious and instructive, and would furnish ample matter for a variety of very important remarks. But the only use I mean to make of it at present is to observe, that it proves, in the clearest manner, how very much awake and alive the Jews were to every part of our Saviour's conduct. It shews that his miracles were presented not to persons prepossessed and prejudiced in his favour, not to inattentive, or negligent, or credulous spectators, but to acute, and inquisitive and hostile observers, to men disposed and able to detect imposture wherever it could be found. And it is utterly impossible that the miracles of Christ could have passed the fiery ordeal of so much shrewdness and sagacity, and authority and malignity united, if they had not been carried through it by the irresistible force of truth, and of that divine power which nothing could resist."

The sixth and seventh lectures are a commentary upon some of the most important passages in what is usually called, *The Sermon on the Mount*. They contain many excellent remarks, but of too

miscellaneous a nature to allow of any analysis. The conclusion of the seventh lecture is very admirable.

"The morality he taught was the purest, the soundest, the sublimest, the most perfect, that had ever before entered into the imagination, or proceeded from the lips of man. And this he delivered in a manner the most striking and impressive; in short, sententious, solemn, important, ponderous rules and maxims, or in familiar, natural, affecting similitudes and parables. He shewed also a most consummate knowledge of the human heart, and dragged to light all its artifices, subtleties, and evasions. He discovered every thought as it arose in the mind; he detected every irregular desire before it ripened into action. He manifested, at the same time, the most perfect impartiality. He had no respect of persons. He reproved vice in every station, wherever he found it, with the same freedom and boldness; and he added to the whole the weight, the irresistible weight, of his own example. He, and he only, of all the sons of men, acted up in every the minutest instance to what he taught; and his life exhibited a perfect portrait of his religion. But what completed the whole was, that he taught, as the evangelist expresses it, *with authority*, with the authority of a divine teacher. The ancient philosophers could do nothing more than give good advice to their followers; they had no means of enforcing that advice; but our great lawgiver's precepts are all *DIVINE COMMANDS*. He spoke in the name of God: he called himself the son of God. He spoke in a tone of superiority and authority, which no one before had the courage or the right to assume: and finally, he enforced every thing he taught by the most solemn and awful sanctions, by a promise of eternal felicity to those who obeyed him, and a denunciation of the most tremendous punishment to those who rejected him.

"These were the circumstances which gave our blessed Lord the authority with which he spake. No wonder then, that the people "were astonished at his doctrines; and that they all declared he spake as never man spake."

The principal subject of the eighth lecture, is the cure of the centurion's servant. The excellent character of the centurion is beautifully delineated; and his example particularly proposed to persons in the higher walks of life, and to such as are engaged in its busier scenes. In the conclusion, his lordship labours much to prove, that "the military life is not inconsistent with a firm belief in the doctrines, and a conscientious obedience to the precepts of religion." We are by no means disposed





to deny this position; yet we are not prepared to proceed so far as the right reverend preacher. We fully believe, that "whenever men abandon themselves to impiety, infidelity, and profligacy, the fault is not in the situation, but the heart:" but we cannot bring ourselves to maintain, that "there is no mode of life, no employment or profession which may not, if we please, be made consistent with a sincere belief in the gospel." P. 216. Still less are we disposed to acknowledge, that because the sacred writers have incidentally mentioned with praise some centurions, "the profession of arms seems to be studiously placed by them in a favourable and an honourable light." P. 218. Defensive war, in the present state of human affairs, is, doubtless, necessary; and yet this, even when holily undertaken and generously carried on, is an evil of no trifling magnitude. In the common contests of vulgar ambition, the object on one side, at least, is unjust, and the means employed to secure that object, are uniformly hostile to the mild and pacific spirit of the gospel. The dispositions that war tends to generate, are so directly adverse to the disposition enforced by the religion of Christ, that he must possess a very uncommon share of virtue and resolution, who can devote himself to the profession of arms, and yet preserve his Christian purity untainted.

The ninth lecture forms a commentary upon some of the principal admonitions which our Lord gave to the twelve, when he sent them forth to preach the gospel. In this lecture his lordship very ably comments on that celebrated and much misunderstood prophecy, to the fulfilment of which the records of ecclesiastical history bear but too fatal a testimony; "*I come not to send peace on earth, but a sword.*" Some of his lordship's remarks on this head will correct the courtly inconsistencies in the conclusion of the preceding lecture.

In the tenth lecture, the bishop discourses upon those incidents in the history of Christ, respecting the observance of the sabbath, which gave occasion to his enemies to conspire against his life. The following observations are deserving of serious regard.

"There is no danger that we should carry the observance of our sabbath too far, or that we should be too scrupulously nice in avoiding every the minutest infringement

of the rest and sanctity of that holy day. The bent and tendency of the present times is too evidently to a contrary extreme, to an excessive relaxation instead of an excessive strictness in the regard shewn to the Lord's day. I am not now speaking of the religious duties appropriated to the Lord's day, for these are not now before us, but solely of the rest, the repose which it requires. This rest is plainly infringed, whenever the lower classes of people continue their ordinary occupations on the sabbath, and whenever the higher employ their servants and their cattle on this day in needless labour. This, however, we see too frequently done, more particularly by selecting Sunday as a day for travelling, for taking long journeys, which might as well be performed at any other time. This is a direct violation of the fourth commandment, which expressly gives the sabbath as a day of rest to our servants and to our cattle.

"This temporary suspension of labour, this refreshment and relief from incessant toil, is most graciously allowed even to the brute creation, by the great Governor of the universe, whose mercy extends over all his works. It is the boon of heaven itself. It is a small drop of comfort thrown into their cup of misery; and to wrest them from this only privilege, this sweetest consolation of their wretched existence, is a degree of inhumanity for which there wants a name; and of which few people, I am persuaded, if they could be brought to reflect seriously upon it, would ever be guilty."

The case of the demoniacs comes under the Bishop's consideration in this lecture. His lordship adopts the scheme of *real possessions*; he attempts to defend it with arguments which appear to us greatly deficient in force, but which it is not within our province to refute.

The three succeeding lectures are upon the parables contained in the thirteenth chapter of Matthew. The first of these, which forms the *eleventh lecture*, consists of very just and striking remarks upon the nature of parables in general, and upon the beauty and force of those of our Lord in particular, especially if compared with compositions of this class by learned heathens. Among other judicious observations, we meet with the following:

• "The Greek and Roman fables are most of them founded on improbable or impossible circumstances, and are supposed conversations between animate or inanimate beings, not endowed with the power of speech; between birds, beasts, reptiles, and trees; a circumstance which shocks the imagination, and, of course, weakens the force of the instruction.

"Our Saviour's parables, on the contrary, are all of them images and allusions taken from nature, and from occurrences which are most familiar to our observation and experience in common life; and the events related are not only such as might very probably happen, but several of them are supposed to be such as actually did; and this would have the effect of a true historical narrative, which we all know to carry much greater weight and authority with it, than the most ingenious fiction. Of the former sort are the rich man and Lazarus, of the good Samaritan, and of the prodigal son. There are others in which our Saviour seems to allude to some historical facts which happened in those times; as that wherein it is said, that a king went into a far country, there to receive a kingdom.

"This probably refers to the history of Archelaus, who, after the death of his father, Herod the Great, went to Rome to receive from Augustus the confirmation of his father's will, by which he had the kingdom of Judæa left to him.

"These circumstances give a decided superiority to our Lord's parables over the fables of the ancients; and if we compare them with those of the Koran, the difference is still greater. The parables of Mahomet are trifling, uninteresting, tedious, and dull. Among other things which he has borrowed from scripture, one is the parable of Nathan, in which he has most ingeniously contrived to destroy all its spirit, force, and beauty; and has so completely distorted and deformed its whole texture and composition, that if the commentator had not informed you, in very gentle terms, that it is the parable of Nathan *a little disguised*, you would scarce have known it to be the same. Such is the difference between a prophet who is really inspired, and an impostor who pretends to be so."

The *twelfth lecture* is occupied in important reflections suggested to the fight reverend preacher's mind, by the parable of the sower. We select with pleasure the following impressive passage:

"There is a third portion of the seed that falls among thorns. This wants neither root nor depth of earth. It grows up, but the misfortune is, that the thorns grow up with it. The fault of the soil is not of bearing nothing, but of bearing too much; of bearing what it ought not, of exhausting its strength and nutrition on vile and worthless productions, which choke the good seed, and prevent it from coming to perfection. "These are they," says our Saviour in the parallel place of St. Luke, "which, when they have heard, go forth, and are choked with cares, and riches, and pleasures of this life, and bring no fruit to perfection." In

their youth, perhaps, they receive religious instruction, they imbibe right principles, and listen to good advice: but no sooner do they *go forth*, no sooner do they leave those persons and those places from whom they received them, than they take the road either of business or of pleasure, pursue their interests, their amusements, or their guilty indulgencies, with unbounded eagerness, and have neither time nor inclination to cultivate the seeds of religion that have been sown in their hearts, and to eradicate the weeds that have been mingled with them. The consequence is, that the weeds prevail, and the seeds are choked and lost.

"Can there possibly be a more faithful picture of a large proportion of the Christian world? Let us look around us, and observe how the greater part of those we meet with are employed. In what is it that their thoughts are busied, their views, their hopes, and their fears centered, their attention occupied, their hearts, and souls, and affections, engaged? Is it in searching the scriptures, in meditating on its doctrines, its precepts, its exhortations, its promises, and its threats? Is it in communing with their own hearts, in probing them to the very bottom, in looking carefully whether there be any way of wickedness in them, in plucking out every noxious weed, and leaving room for the good seed to grow, and swell, and expand itself, and bring forth fruit to perfection? Is it in cultivating purity of manners, a spirit of charity towards the whole human race, and the most exalted sentiments of piety, gratitude, and love, towards their Maker and Redeemer? These, I fear, are far from being the general and principal occupations of mankind. Too many of them are, God knows, very differently employed. They are overwhelmed with business, they are devoted to amusement, they are immersed in sensuality, they are mad with ambition, they are idolaters of wealth, of power, of glory, of fame. On these things all their affections are fixed. These are the great objects of their pursuit; and if any accidental thought of religion happen to cross their way, they instantly dismiss the unbidden, unwelcome guest, with the answer of Felix to Paul, "Go thy way for this time; when we have a convenient season we will send for thee."

"But how then, it is said, are we to conduct ourselves? If Providence has blessed us with riches, with honour, with power, with reputation, are we to reject these gifts of our heavenly Father; or ought we not rather to accept them with thankfulness, and enjoy with gratitude, the advantages and the comforts which his bounty has bestowed upon us? Most assuredly we ought. But then they are to be enjoyed also with innocence, with temperance, and with moderation. They must not be allowed to usurp the first place in our hearts. They







must not be permitted to supplant God in our affection, or to dispute that pre-eminence and priority which he claims over every propensity of our nature. This and this only can prevent the good seed from being choked with the cares, the riches, and the pleasures of the present life."

This lecture being the last that was delivered in the year 1799, is closed by an earnest recommendation of a strict observance of the ensuing week, commonly called passion week. "In that week," observes his lordship, "all public diversions are, as you well know, wisely prohibited by public authority; and in conformity to the spirit of such prohibition, we should, even in our own families and in our own private amusements, be temperate, modest, decorous, and discreet." P. 323. There are, however, those, among whom, notwithstanding this loose, inaccurate language, is the bishop of London himself, who are of opinion, that not in passion week alone, but at all times, and in all seasons, Christians ought to be temperate, modest, decorous, and discreet. Had his lordship then no apprehension, that by enforcing with so much solemnity the observance of a particular season, it might be inferred by some, that at other times so much caution and watchfulness would not be necessary? Are there none who would cheerfully comply with such a requisition, as a kind of commutation for their general irregularities? Is there not considerable danger, that those who are thus exhorted to make a pause in the fashionable career of dissipation and folly, when the season allotted to that purpose is over, will plunge with renewed alacrity into the vortex, under the persuasion, that having by this penance made their peace with heaven, they are left at full liberty to indulge themselves to the utmost, till the season of penitence and retirement comes round again?

The *thirteenth lecture* relates principally to the parable of the tares.

"This parable well deserves our most serious consideration, as it gives an answer to two questions of great curiosity and great importance, which have exercised the ingenuity, and agitated the minds of thinking men, from the earliest times to the present, and, perhaps, were never, at any period of the world, more interesting than at this very hour.

"The first of these questions is, how came moral evil into the world?

"The next is, why is it suffered to remain a single moment; and why is not every wicked man immediately punished as he deserves?"

With respect to the first of these questions, his lordship considers it as a most unaccountable error of judgment, and a strange misapplication of talents, and waste of labour and time (p. 331), for any one who believes in revelation, to employ himself in making any inquiry; since "we are told in the very beginning of the Bible, that he who first brought sin or moral evil into the world, was that great adversary of the human race, the devil, who first tempted the woman and the man to act in direct contradiction to the commands of their Maker:" and thus were introduced into their whole moral frame, all those corrupt propensities and disordered passions, which they bequeathed as a fatal legacy to their descendants. "This," says the right reverend divine, "is the true origin of all moral evil." Having thus cut the gordian knot, he proceeds to the second question, which, as he has no hypothesis to support, he discusses in an able and satisfactory manner.

The second volume opens with the *fourteenth lecture*, which is a most interesting and useful history of Herod and Herodias, and of the death of John the Baptist. His lordship's observations on the character of the abandoned Herodias, and her unfortunate daughter Salome, are admirable; and though we earnestly recommend the perusal of the whole lecture, we cannot withhold the following specimen:

"We here see a fatal proof of the extreme barbarities to which that most diabolical sentiment of revenge will drive the natural tenderness even of a female mind; what a close connection there is between crimes of apparently a very different complexion, and how frequently the uncontrolled indulgence of what are called the softer affections, lead ultimately to the most violent excesses of the malignant passions. The voluptuary generally piques himself on his benevolence, his humanity, and gentleness of disposition. His claim, even to these virtues, is, at the best, very problematical; because, in his pursuit of pleasure, he makes no scruple of sacrificing the peace, the comfort, the happiness, of those for whom he pretends the tenderest affection, to the gratification of his own selfish desires. But however he may preserve his good humour, when he meets with no resistance, the moment he is thwarted and opposed in his flagitious purpose, he

has no hesitation in going any lengths to gain his point, and will fight his way to the object he has in view, through the heart of the very best friend he has in the world. The same thing we see in a still more striking point of view, in the conduct of Herodias. She was at first only a bold unprincipled libertine, and might perhaps be admired and celebrated, as many others of that description have been, for her good temper, her sensibility, her generosity to the poor; and with this character she might have gone out of the world, had no such person as John arisen, to reprove her and her husband for their profligacy, and to endanger the continuance of her guilty commerce. But no sooner does he rebuke them as they deserved, than Herodias shewed that she had other passions to indulge besides those which had hitherto disgraced her character; and that when she found it necessary to her pleasures, she could be as cruel as she had been licentious; could contrive and accomplish the destruction of a great and good man, could feast her eyes with the sight of his mangled head in a charger, could even make her own poor child the instrument of her vengeance, and, as I am inclined to think, a *reluctant* accomplice in a most atrocious murder."

The subject of the *fifteenth lecture* is *the transfiguration*; an occurrence upon which the learned bishop published his opinion several years ago, without his name. The same hypothesis is adopted in the present work.

The *sixteenth lecture* is employed chiefly upon the denunciation in the eighteenth chapter of Matthew, against those who shall cause their brother to offend, i. e. to apostatize from the fruits of the gospel. This subject the bishop considers much at large, and states the guilt of drawing others to infidelity, whether by means of persecution by open and systematic attacks, by bold and impious libels, by ridicule, by the wicked lives of nominal Christians, or by licentious publications. The lecture concludes with the beautiful parable of the relentless servant; from which the preacher recommends to his hearers the indispensable duty of the forgiveness of injuries.

In the *seventeenth lecture*, his lordship details at length the incident of the young ruler, and the conversation which passed between our Lord and his followers, in consequence of it.

The principal topics in the *eighteenth lecture*, are the parable of the marriage feast, recorded in the twenty-second chapter of Matthew; the insidious question of the pharisee, respecting the pay-

ment of tribute money, and the inquiry of the lawyer concerning the great commandment of the law. This being the last lecture delivered in the year 1800, the bishop concludes with some very serious admonitions to his audience, recommending self-denial, and the duty of considering the wants and distresses of the poor. These admonitions were delivered in "a season of great scarcity and extreme dearth of all the necessaries of life;" but the following important reflection will be deserving of attention at all times, even in the midst of abundance.

"When we consider that the expence of a single evening's amusement, or a single convivial meeting, would give support and comfort perhaps to twenty wretched families, pining in hunger, in sickness, and in sorrow, can we so far divest ourselves of all the tender feelings of our nature (not to mention any higher principle), can we be so intolerably selfish, so wedded to pleasure, so devoted to our own gratification, as to let the lowest of our brethren perish, while we are solacing ourselves with every earthly delight? No one that gives himself leave to reflect for a moment, can think this to be right, can maintain it to be consistent with his duty either to God or man. And, even in respect to the very object we so eagerly pursue, and are so anxious to obtain, in point even of pleasure, I mean, and self gratification, I doubt much whether the giddiest votary of amusement can receive half the real satisfaction from the gayest scenes of dissipation he is immersed in, that he would experience (if he would but try) from rescuing a fellow creature from destruction, and lighting up an afflicted and fallen countenance with joy.

"Let us then abridge ourselves of a few indulgences, and give the price of what they would cost us to those who have none. By this laudable species of œconomy, we shall at once improve ourselves in a habit of self-denial and self-government; we shall demonstrate the sincerity of our love to our fellow creatures, by giving up *something* that is dear to us for their sake, by sacrificing our pleasures to their necessities; and above all, we shall approve ourselves as faithful servants in the sight of our Almighty Sovereign; we shall give some proof of our gratitude to our heavenly Benefactor and Friend, who has given us richly all things to enjoy; and who, in return for that bounty, expects and commands us to be rich in good works, to feed the hungry, to clothe the naked, to comfort the sick, to visit the fatherless and widow in their affliction, and to keep ourselves unspotted from the world, unpolluted by its vices, and unsubdued by its predominant vanities and follies."

The *nineteenth* and *twentieth* lectures cannot be read by the Christian without contributing to his improvement; they will also be found well worth the attention of the unbeliever. They are employed in the illustration of the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth chapters of Matthew. These lectures are replete with important information, and contain many striking remarks tending to demonstrate the divine authority of Jesus. We wish that his lordship had confined himself to what he calls the *primary*, and what we think the *only* sense of these remarkable prophecies.

In the *twenty-first* lecture we enter upon "the last sad scene of our Saviour's life, which continues in a progressive accumulation of one misery upon another, to the end of St. Matthew's gospel." P. 231. This, therefore, and the *three* remaining lectures, are occupied in considering the events by which that scene was distinguished.

Speaking of Pilate, his lordship observes:

"We see a Roman governor sent to dispense justice in a Roman province, and invested with full power to save or to destroy; we see him with a prisoner before him, in whom he repeatedly declared he could find no fault: and yet, after a few ineffectual struggles with his own conscience, he delivers up that prisoner, not merely to death, but to the most horrible and excruciating torments that human malignity could devise. The fact is, he was afraid of the people, he was afraid of Cæsar; and when the clamorous multitude cried out to him, "if thou let this man go, thou art not Cæsar's friend," all his firmness, all his resolution, at once forsook him. He shrunk from the dangers that threatened him, and sacrificed his conscience and his duty to the menaces of a mob, and the dread of sovereign power.

"Could any thing like this have happened in this country? We all know that it is impossible. We all know that no dangers, no threats, no fears, either of Cæsar or the people, could ever induce a British judge to condemn to death a man, whom he in his conscience believed to be innocent. And what is it that produces this difference between a Roman and a British judge? It is this: that the former had no other principle to govern his conduct, but natural reason, or what would now be called philosophy; which, though it would sometimes point out to him the path of duty, yet could never inspire him with fortitude enough to persevere in it, in critical and dangerous circumstances, in opposition to the frowns of a tyrant, or the clamours of a multitude. Whereas the

British judge, in addition to his natural sentiments of right and wrong, and the dictates of the moral sense, has the principle of *religion* also to influence his heart: he has the unerring and inflexible rules of evangelical rectitude to guide him; he has that which will vanquish every other fear, the *fear of God* before his eyes. He knows that he himself must one day stand before the judge of all; and that consideration keeps him firm to his duty, be the dangers that surround him ever so formidable and tremendous."

We are very willing to allow, that were every British judge necessarily a sincere Christian, because he lives in a country in which Christianity is professed, it would follow, of course, that the strictest integrity, and the most scrupulous regard to conscience, would invariably mark his conduct; but as there have been persons filling some of the highest offices of the state, whose claims to the character of true Christians have been doubted, we esteem it no small happiness, that our excellent constitution looks further than his lordship of London, and puts a check upon the peccability of the judge, by entrusting the decision of every accused person's fate to those who in all cases are less liable to be influenced by the smiles or the frowns of power.

Having, in the *twenty-third* lecture, adduced much incontrovertible evidence of the resurrection of Jesus, his lordship adds:

"But besides the positive proofs of this fact, which have been here stated, there is a presumptive one of the most forcible nature, to which I have never yet seen any answer, and am of opinion, that none can be given. The proof I allude to, is that which is drawn from the sudden and astonishing change which took place in the language and the conduct of the apostles, immediately after the period when they affirmed, that Jesus had risen from the dead. From being, as we have seen, timorous and dejected, and discouraged at the death of their master, they suddenly became courageous, undaunted, and intrepid: and they boldly preached that very Jesus whom before they had deserted in his greatest distress. This observation will apply, in some degree, to all the apostles; but with regard to St. Peter, more particularly, it holds with peculiar force."

His lordship then proceeds to recite some parts of the conduct of Peter after the ascension of our Lord: after which he very forcibly asks,

"In what manner shall we account for this sudden and astonishing alteration in the



language of St. Peter? There is, I will venture to assert, no other possible way of accounting for it, but from that very circumstance which St. Peter himself mentions in his speech to the high priest, namely, "that he whom they had crucified, was, by the almighty power of God, raised from the dead.\*" It was this change in the condition of his divine Master, which produced a correspondent change in the character and conduct of St. Peter. It was this miracle of our Lord's resurrection, which could alone have produced the almost equally astonishing miracle of St. Peter's complete transformation. Had Jesus never risen from the dead, as he had repeatedly promised to do, he would have been a deceiver and impostor; and that St. Peter knowing this, should openly and boldly profess himself his disciple when *dead*, after having most peremptorily denied him, and disclaimed all knowledge of him when *living*, and should expose himself to the most dreadful dangers in asserting a fact which he knew to be false, and for the sake of a man who had most cruelly deceived and disappointed him, is a supposition utterly repugnant to every principle of human nature, and every dictate of common sense, and an absurdity too gross for the most determined infidel to maintain."

The following passage occurs in the conclusion of the *twenty-fourth* lecture, in which the worthy prelate takes a final leave of his audience.

"In the history of our Lord, as given by St. Matthew, of which I have detailed the most essential parts, such a scene has been presented to your observation, as cannot but have excited sensations of a very serious and awful nature, in your minds. You cannot but have seen, that the divine Author of our religion is, beyond comparison, the most extraordinary and most important personage that ever appeared on this habitable globe. His birth, his life, his doctrines, his precepts, his miracles, his sufferings, his death, his resurrection, his ascension, are all without a parallel in the history of mankind. He called himself the Son of God, the Messiah predicted in the prophets, the great Redeemer and deliverer of mankind, promised in the sacred writings, through successive ages,

almost from the foundation of the world. He supported these great characters with uniformity, with consistence, and with dignity, throughout the whole course of his ministry. The work he undertook was the greatest and most astonishing that can be conceived, and such as before never entered into the imagination of man. It was nothing less than the conversion of a whole world from the grossest ignorance, the most abandoned wickedness, and the most sottish idolatry, to the knowledge of the true God, to a pure and holy religion, and to faith in him, who was THE WAY, THE TRUTH, AND THE LIFE. He proved himself to have a commission from heaven, for those great purposes, by such demonstrations of divine wisdom, power, and goodness, as it is impossible for any fair, and ingenuous, and unprejudiced mind, to resist. Of all this you have seen abundant instances in the course of these lectures: and when all these circumstances are collected into one point of view, they present such a body of evidence, as must overpower, by its weight, all the trivial difficulties and objections that the wit of man can raise against the divine authority of the gospel."

We have entered into this minute detail of the lectures which compose these volumes, on account of the celebrity they have obtained, and the exalted station of the much respected author. Their intrinsic excellence is not, we confess, altogether what we had expected. The reasoning is often inconclusive; and many difficulties in the narrative of the evangelist, are either passed by without explanation, or noticed in a very unsatisfactory manner. The defence of Christianity is, on every proper occasion, admirably supported; and the practical reflections are throughout most forcible and impressive. To reclaim the infidel, to confirm the doubtful, to convert the sinner from the error of his ways, and to encourage the real Christian in his arduous race, these lectures are well adapted. May their success be commensurate with their extensive circulation.

ART. XXXIV. *Sermons on the Dignity of Man, and the Value of the Objects principally relating to Human Happiness. From the German of the late Reverend GEORGE JOACHIM ZOLLIKOFFER, Minister of the Reformed Church at Leipsick. By the Reverend W. TOOKE, F. R. S.* 2 vols, 8vo. pp. 531 and 576.

THE author of these sermons, as we learn from a short memoir prefixed to them by the translator, was born August 5, 1730, at St. Gall, in Switzerland,

where his father, a pious and an upright man, was settled as a practitioner in the law. Young Zollikoffer, when arrived at the proper age, was put to the gymna-

\* Acts iv. 10.

sium of his native town, whence, being intended for the church, he was sent to prosecute his studies first at Bremen, and afterwards at the university of Utrecht. Shortly after he had completed his academical course, he obtained an establishment as preacher in his own country, at Murten, in the Pays de Vaud. But here he remained only a short time, being called to a more considerable place at Monstein, in the Grisons. Thence he shortly removed to Isenburgh; and the reputation of his talents as a preacher being now widely diffused, he was appointed, at the early age of eight and twenty, to the office of one of the German preachers at the reformed church at Leipsick. In this distinguished situation he passed the rest of his life, revered by an enlightened congregation, favoured with the friendship of the most eminent professors of the university, zealously discharging the duties of his important station, and "in all things shewing himself a pattern of good works." After suffering a painful illness with the patience of a wise man, and the resignation of a Christian, he died on the 22d of January 1788, aged 58 years.

The subjects of the sermons which compose these volumes, are the following.—1. Wherein the dignity of man consists. 2. What is in opposition to the dignity of man. 3. How and by what means Christianity restores the dignity of man. 4. The value of human life. 5. The value of health. 6. The value of riches. 7. The value of honour. 8. The value of sensual pleasure. 9. The value of intellectual pleasures. 10. The value of devotion. 11. The value of sensibility. 12. The value of virtue. 13. The superior value of Christian virtue. 14. The pleasures of virtue. 15. Why many virtuous persons enjoy not more pleasure. 16. The value of religion in general. 17. The value of the Christian religion in particular. 18. The value of Christianity in regard of the general advantage it has procured to mankind, and still procures. 19. The high value and excellence of the human soul. 20. The value of man's lifetime upon earth. 21. The value or the importance of one year. 22. Of the detriment and danger of too frequent dissipation and diversions. 23. The value or the importance of the doctrine of our immortality.

24. The value or the importance of the hope of a blessed immortality, considered as the principal source of our satisfaction and serenity of mind. 25. Of spiritual experiences. 26. The value of social and public worship. 27. The value of solitude. 28. The value of social life. 29. The same continued. 30. The value of a busy life. 31. The value of commerce. 32. The value of a country life, or the edifying sojourn in the country. 33. The value of domestic happiness. 34. The value of friendship. 35. The value of civil and religious liberty. 36. The value of learning. 37. The value of more enlightened times. 38. The value of afflictions and tribulations. 39. The value of a good reputation. 40. Of conversion from a bad course of life. 41. The blessedness of beneficence. 42. The value of human happiness itself. 43. Settlement of our notions concerning human happiness. 44. The difference between prosperity and happiness. 45. View of the sources of human happiness. 46. The Christian doctrine concerning happiness. 47. Arguments against vanity. 48. Rules for rightly appreciating the value of things. 49. The vanity of all earthly things. 50. Of the particular character of Jesus Christ. 51. Of the imitation of the example of Jesus. 52. Of the pastoral office.

These subjects, it must be acknowledged, are of considerable importance; and they are handled in such a manner as to supply the attentive reader with much valuable information, and many useful directions in the conduct of life.

He who shall open these volumes for the purpose of acquiring enlightened views of human life, an enlarged knowledge of his duty, and powerful motives to the practice of it, will find his labour pleasant, and his reward great. Great justness of thought, and very comprehensive principles of human duty, expressed always in a neat, and frequently in a very animated manner, so equally characterise the various topics which fall under the preacher's notice, that we cannot readily say upon what part of these volumes our attention has been most fixed. Some of the subjects the author was aware might "appear to others not clerical, or not theological and biblical enough;" for this the peculiar character of his audience might be thought to offer a sufficient justification; "many of them," as

he observes in his sermon upon the value of learning, "being learned themselves, or making literature their principal employment, and most of the rest having much connexion and intercourse with that description of men;" but the most satisfactory apology, if we may venture to use that term, is found in those just and rational views which he had embraced of the nature of the pastoral office. From his excellent discourse on that subject, we make the following extract, which at the same time contains important truths, and affords a fair specimen of the whole work.

"As often as I preach such truths as tend to promote human perfection and happiness; the truths that have a practical influence on the moral behaviour, and on the repose and satisfaction of mankind, so often do I preach Christ, and him crucified; so often do I contribute to carry on his work on earth; so often do I proportionately supply his place among my brethren. For he came, he lived, he taught, he suffered and died, he arose again from the dead, and is now the head and the lord of his church, for disseminating truth and virtue, and happiness, among the human race; and whatever advances them is his work, is consistent with his aims, enlarges and confirms his kingdom; even though it be not immediately connected with his history, nor expressly contained in such of his discourses as are come down to us. Though truth is unchangeable in itself, yet its extent, and the manner of its delivery, admits not of being fixed and established for all times, and for all mankind. Each age, each society of men, has its own horizon, its own circuit of comprehension, its peculiar exigencies, its peculiar obstacles, and means of assistance; and the teacher of religion should conduct himself accordingly, if he be resolutely bent on doing his duty, so far as his frailty allows him, and determined to perform what Jesus or his apostles would have done, had they been placed in his situation.

"The teacher of religion should, therefore, also be a teacher of wisdom in a more general sense. He should deliver to his hearers, and particularly to the youth he instructs, not only the peculiar doctrines of religion, but should likewise subjoin such other useful knowledge as either is previously requisite to the knowledge of religion, may lie as a foundation to it, promote and settle it, or may otherwise contribute to the repose and improvement of mankind. And here but too often do persons form wrong conceptions of the office and appointment of the christian teacher. They take it amiss, they even impute it to him as a sin, if he do not frequently, if he do not constantly

discourse on the mysteries, as they are called, of Christianity; that is, of things which we either do not understand at all, or but in an extremely imperfect manner. It is taken amiss, if he do not continually enforce the peculiar articles of faith, as they are termed, if he annex to them a variety of ideas as unavoidable as harmless, and does not account every error to be as dangerous and fatal as vice. It is scornfully called philosophical and moral preaching, when we discourse of the nature and destination of man, of the true value of the possessions, and satisfactions, and occupations of this life, if we speak of particular duties and virtues, of their influence on our present happiness, of the arguments which even sound reason affords for the fulfilling of these duties, and the practice of these virtues, and of the method in which we ought to fulfil and practise them in every occurrence. But how unjust are not these reproaches! Is not reason then a gift and a revelation of God? Is not all truth in perfect harmony with itself? What value then can a blind, implicit faith possess? Of what consequence is a faith without works? A religion without morality? Is not this the ultimate end of that? Is it not the aim of all religion to make us wiser and better? And is any thing to be rejected that promotes this end? Can the foundation of our virtue and our hopes be too deeply laid, or too firmly settled?

"No, the preacher, according to the present state of things, is the only public teacher of generally useful wisdom to the generality of mankind; and to maintain this character should be at once both his endeavour and his glory. By his means such persons as have no other opportunities of instruction, should be brought to rational reflection, to the better use of their mental faculties, to greater attention to moral, invisible, and distant objects; by his interposition should all prevailing prejudices and errors, which have a noxious influence on the conduct and serenity of mankind, be refuted: the most generally useful philosophical knowledge be further spread, and by little and little, the sum of truths which every one knows and adopts, be incorporated into the common stock. He should, however, strive to deliver what he has to say in a manner adapted to the comprehension of the unlettered mind, and to this end not employ the language of the dogmatists, or of the schools, but the language of common life, in use among people of gentility and good breeding. If he do this; if he be thus at once a teacher of religion and of wisdom, he will certainly so much the more contribute to the improvement and happiness of mankind. To promote and to further this, is the whole of his duty; and whatever has a tendency to that is consistent with his office and calling."

We cannot dismiss this article, which,

would our limits allow us, we could with pleasure extend, without remarking that the merits of the original work are in

some degree obscured by faults in the translation.

ART. XXXV. *Sacred Biography: or the History of Jesus Christ; being a Course of Lectures delivered at the Scots Church, London Wall.* By HENRY HUNTER, D. D. vol. vii. 8vo.

FEW are strangers to the character of the late Dr. Hunter, as a popular preacher, or to the preceding volumes of his *Sacred Biography*, which for many years past have been in the hands of the public. The reputation which he acquired from them will not be injured or diminished, by the volume which "surviving him, he bequeaths as a small token of affection and gratitude to the people of his immediate charge." The same religious system which before furnished topics for the exercise of his eloquence, here supplies subjects more eminently adapted to the display of pulpit oratory, and to the flow of a warm imagination. Of these the preacher avails himself. Solidity of reasoning, rational criticism, or liberal interpretation of scripture are no more the characteristics of the present than of the former volumes. Many pleasing and many important truths are however enforced in a strain that must have captivated the minds of the hearers, and will richly gratify every reader of taste and feeling.

The volume consists of twenty-three lectures, not exhibiting together a connected view of our Lord's life, but each confined to some particular and striking incident. The entire volume therefore, as the author acknowledges (preface, p. vii.) is "but a fragment, each particular discourse aims at presenting one distinct and individual object gradually melting away into another, and it may of course be read either separately, or as a link in a chain."

The two first lectures are upon the divine nature of Jesus Christ, which Dr. H. regards "as the first leading object of all revelation." A passage in the second lecture is well worth transcribing:

"Again, this subject seems much calculated to correct the prejudices which prevail among men in the matter of pedigree. There is in reality no such thing as mean and high birth: or if there be a distinction, to be born perfect in every limb and feature, with a sound and vigorous constitution, with a mind complete in all its faculties, this

is to be nobly born; as, on the contrary, to come into the world diseased and debilitated, with a constitution undermined and destroyed by the vice of parents, is to have the disadvantage of being meanly born; a distinction which, if founded in reason, truth and justice, leaves the great, in general, little to glory in, and the poor little at which to repine. Have we not all one father? What genealogy is pure from every stain of infirmity, folly or vice? Is it any diminution of the Saviour's dignity, any impeachment of his perfect purity, or any imputation on his great public character, that in the roll of his ancestry after the flesh, we find the name of Rahab the harlot, and of her who had been the wife of Uriah, and that he was brought up under the roof, perhaps to the occupation of an obscure craftsman? Virtue and vice are personal not hereditary, and nothing but vice is a just ground of shame. Shall I call myself a disciple of Jesus then, and think it a reproach to be called a carpenter's son, despised because I am a Galilean, lightly esteemed because my parents were poor and ignoble, because a paltry monosyllable introduces not my name? Real worth ennobles itself independent of the breath of kings, it draws obscure progenitors into light, and leaves a fair and honourable inheritance to posterity—in a bright example, and a respectable name."

The three succeeding lectures detail in a striking and animated manner, the preparations for the Messiah's appearance, both in the heathen and the Jewish world.

Lecture vi. contains the history of the nativity, Lect. vii. is upon the infancy of Jesus. In the midst of many beauties, the following bears a distinguished place:

"To mark the progress of a human being is an interesting and delightful employment—to observe how the limbs acquire firmness and strength, how the mental powers unfold themselves, and all the passions of the man, in succession, stand confessed. See the fond mother bending with delight over her infant, at first a little pliant lump of animated clay, every power lying dormant, save one, that of drawing its nourishment from her breast. By and by the eye begins to feel and follow the light, the slender neck strengthens and sustains the reclining head;

the babe smiles, and the parent's heart is overwhelmed with joy. Now he can distinguish the face of her that suckles him from that of a stranger, at least she flatters herself he can, while the soft murmur of infantine satisfaction expresses his gratitude. The figure by degrees becomes erect, every limb is in motion, the uncertain tongue attempts to imitate the sounds which strike the opening ear, and the feet press downward to the supporting earth; tremblingly he totters into walking, and stammers into speech. The powers of recollection and comparing appear, the symptoms of passion become visible, love and aversion, desire and gratitude. The moral sense at length begins to dawn, and the man in miniature finds himself a limited, dependent, subject, accountable being; hence hope and fear, self-complacency and remorse.

Lect. viii. relates to the period in the life of Christ, between his infancy and public appearance. In Lect. ix. we have the history of his baptism. Lect. x. is a literal interpretation of the scene of the temptation. The three next lectures dwell upon the return of Jesus to Nazareth, and his service in a syna-

gogue of that place, in each of which we meet with very striking and animated passages. In lect. xiv. we have the relation of the progress of Jesus from Galilee, and the calling of his four first disciples. Contrary to reason and philosophy, and even of historical evidence, in this lecture, Dr. H. vindicates the notion of diabolical possession. The fifteenth lecture upon the return of the seventy, was preached before the administration of the Lord's supper. It is followed by a prayer in consecrating the elements; and an address to communicants at the sacramental table. Lect. xvi. is an interesting account of the miracle at Cana. Lect. xvii. is upon the history of the cure of Peter's wife's mother. Lect. xviii. the purifying of the temple. Lect. xix. the figurative prediction of his future resurrection. Lect. xx. upon the doctrine of resurrection. Lect. xxi. the healing of the nobleman's son. Lect. xxii. the cure of the centurion's servant; and Lect. xxiii. the miracle of the feeding of the five thousand.

**ART. XXXVI.** *Sermons, chiefly designed for young Persons.* By DANIEL SANDFORD, A. M. Chaplain to the Right Hon. Lady Abercromby; Minister of Charlotte Chapel; and formerly Student of Christ Church, Oxford. 12mo.

THIS volume contains thirteen sermons, upon the following subjects: Scripture the guide of youth. On the evidences of the Christian scriptures. On the fear of God. Duty to parents. On confessing Christ. On the parable of the sower. The wisdom which is from above. On the dispositions for receiving the gospel. The same subject continued. On consolations of religion. On conscience. On sixth psalm. The precept of perfection, a divine command.

These sermons are written in a plain unornamented style; they seldom display any vigour either of thought or of expression, and afford little room either for censure or for praise. Many other topics might have been more judiciously chosen for the instruction of young persons, and some which the preacher has selected, are deserving of more attention than he has bestowed upon them. The best sermon in the volume is that on conscience; from which we, with pleasure, make the following extract:

"But again, it must not be forgotten, that the fashions and practices of the world are but too ready to lend their assistance to the triumphs of passion. It were to be

wished, indeed, that, in that society which the young especially, are so desirous to partake, its full weight was always allowed to the cause of virtue and decorum. In the higher ranks, as in every other department of life, there are, we trust, many who are "burning and shining lights," zealous in the service of God, and active and exemplary in the duties of their station. But it must not be called an uncharitable censure of present manners, if, from this place, I pronounce a caution to the young against the influence of too many sentiments which they may hear, and too many examples which they may behold. It is the truth, lamentable as it is, and it must therefore be told, that among those who are "the makers of manners," it is not uncommon to hear religion, at least carelessly treated, if not derided and reproached; to hear great crimes, which "batter at the peace" of society, spoken of with an affected liberality, a smoothness of appellation, which betrays the utmost insensibility to their real heinousness; to find men break down, in obedience to what they call honour, and in the pursuit of what they choose to denominate pleasure, all the fences which the ordinances of civil society, nay the authority of God himself, have set up to secure the performance of our moral and social obligations. In the circles to which a man is received, if he be but fashionable,



and have the art of pleasing, and have no compunction at "following a multitude to do evil," rather than be reproached for singularity; in the circles where birth or wealth are rather the titles to admission, than integrity, virtue, and good sense; we can scarcely expect to find any rigid attention to the distinctions between good and evil, or rather we must look to see these distinctions reversed. And if it require great caution in those advanced some way in life; to mix in such society without contamination; it will surely call for more than ordinary prudence, and reserve, and resolution, in a young person to escape uninjured. Is it reasonable to expect that he will preserve his esteem for virtue, and resist with fortitude, the allurements which beset him, when he sees, that modesty, temperance and discretion, may be violated with impunity, and that he may be vicious without being disgraced? Will he be encouraged to retain and practise the good lessons of humility, benevolence and forgiveness, which were once impressed upon him, when he becomes acquainted with the code of fashion; and is taught to consider high-mindedness and resentment, as the disposition he must cultivate, if he would be esteemed; and to despise the meek and patient virtues of the gospel? Will he learn honesty and fair dealing, from the amusements, if amusements they can be called, of fraud and avarice, where every man seeketh to "go beyond his brother?" Will the luxurious teach him self-denial, and the extravagant, prudence? Will they who be-

stow all their thoughts and anxiety upon their own enjoyments, set him the example of that charity which "seeketh not her own," but to relieve the wants of others? Will the greedy followers of interest or ambition, who barter their peace for the wealth and distinctions of this world, teach him to consider, as the highest felicity which he can obtain on earth, the tranquillity of contentment and innocence, and the blessed hope of a reward in heaven? Alas! no. He will learn from such instructors none of those things which really "belong to his peace;" he will be seduced by them to seek for happiness where God has not placed it; he "will weary himself in the way of wickedness and destruction; yea, he will go through deserts where there lieth no way, but as for the way of the Lord, he will not find it" by such guidance. When he sees those in the stations to which he himself eagerly aspires, engaging, without scruple and without measure, in the very pursuits to which his passions would impel him, he is much more likely to listen to the voice which bids him cast away the apprehensions which he has, as yet, felt of the consequences of carelessness and dissipation, and to plunge at once into the torrent that will overwhelm him. He will learn then to "put darkness for light, and light for darkness; to call bitter, sweet, and sweet, bitter;" and to think them so, till misery, or sickness, or death, awaken him to know and to lament his folly."

ART. XXXVII. *Sermons on various Subjects. By the Rev. T. BASELEY, A. M. Chaplain to the Rt. Rev. the Lord Bishop of Lincoln; and Proprietor of Grosvenor Chapel, Grosvenor Square. 8vo. pp. 270.*

THIS volume, dedicated to the Bishop of Lincoln, contains twelve sermons, which, though they may not rank with the highest, are yet much above the lowest class of compositions of this nature. The two first discourses are on the belief in God, and the works that should follow it. The third treats on the law to which our first parents were subject in paradise; and is designed to vindicate what is usually imagined to have been a test of their obedience, and for the violation of which they were driven from the garden of Eden. This suggests the subject of the fourth and fifth discourses, which the author has entitled, On liberty and necessity; but which are nothing more than superficial essays on the Calvinistic doctrine of predestination. The following passage, selected from many of the same kind,

prove that the author has but a very imperfect knowledge of the principle of philosophical necessity:

"Farther, that we have reason and conscience, every one will allow. But to what end were these distinguishing faculties bestowed upon us, if we have no power to follow their dictates, and if they cannot influence our conduct? Was the eye of intellectual excellence given us to discern the beauty of virtue and the deformity of vice; and have we no power to discern the one and flee from the other? Was the sense of moral rectitude given only to torment us; to make us feel the force of every social virtue; and yet must our minds be always impressed with the painful and gloomy reflection, that we are unable to practise it? Have we power within ourselves, that teaches us the duty we owe our neighbour and our God; no power to exercise it; and yet must we be punished for our neglect? We may as well wreak our vengeance upon the ma-

chine that moves only from the power which we ourselves have communicated to it; or punish the poor wretch for trembling, who is agitated with a palsy."

The sixth sermon, from the interpolated verse of John's first epistle, ch. v. 7. is an *argumentum ad ignorantiam* upon the doctrine of the Trinity.

"The chief intention of what has been said," the preacher observes, p. 132, "on a subject calculated to expose the weakness of the human understanding, rather than to display its powers, is to shew, by reasoning from analogy, that though the sublime mysteries of the Holy Trinity, and other doctrines, may not be within our comprehension, yet this is no argument for our not believing them if they are clearly and expressly revealed."

The revelation of these mysteries is the very point in debate; and so far as we are acquainted with the principles of Unitarians, we have reason to believe they would not desert the standard of orthodoxy—if Mr. B. or any other theologian could convince them that these holy doctrines are contained in scripture. They have repeatedly asserted, and we have no right to question their sincerity, that their rejection of these mysteries arises not from their being incomprehensible by the powers of the human mind, but from their being contrary, as they conceive, to the plain dictates of the word of God. Their opponents, therefore, instead of continuing to assign motives of their conduct which they solemnly disavow, should study chiefly to obviate the difficulties which prevent their confessing the common creed, and prove that the language of scripture is not at variance with the mysterious doctrines which are maintained by the great body of Christians.

The seventh sermon is on the Jews' reproach of our Saviour and on John the Baptist: Luke vii. 33, 34. From this sermon we select a passage which serves as a specimen of the rest:

"The government of the tongue, and, what is more essential, the government of the heart (which should precede it), will always be one of the first duties of every human being. Truth, indeed, must flow from an exalted sense of justice, and candour must be the offspring of true charity; otherwise they can make no approach to the perfection of Christian morality; and therefore cannot be acceptable in the sight of God. There are many that would shrink from the more open and notorious vices of

the tongue (such as swearing, blasphemy, and direct lying), who will, notwithstanding, so torture truth, that it shall resemble falsehood; and so disfigure virtue, that it shall assume the garb of vice, or folly. But "woe unto them (says the holy prophet) that call evil good, and good evil; that put darkness for light, and light for darkness."

"Let me appeal to your experience and knowledge of the world. Have you not sometimes known the duty of abstinence, and the needful exercises of self-denial, scandalized by men who were not Pharisees, under the contemptuous appellation of folly, or superstition? And, on the contrary, have you not sometimes observed the conduct of those who cheerfully enjoy the blessings of Providence, without being guilty of excess, censured by the morose, as intemperate, or luxurious? If the sanctity of John the Baptist, and the heavenly example which our blessed Lord's life afforded, could not escape the perversion of sin, and the malice of detraction, what might not inferior beings expect from the perverseness of sin, and the ill-will of their fellow creatures?"

There is not a virtue, there is not an attainment, however excellent and meritorious, that may not be thus vilified and disparaged. Observe how the serious piety of one man is deemed bigotry by another! See how generosity is made to wear the form of extravagance and folly; how charity is associated with weakness, or ostentation; frugality with meanness; learning with pedantry and pride; and even the scruples of conscience with prejudice or pusillanimity!"

The eighth sermon treats of "Pilate's question, What is truth?" and was intended by the preacher to guard his hearers against scepticism. We have always been accustomed to regard the character of Pilate in a very different light from that in which it is represented by Mr. Baseley.

"The character of Pontius Pilate was marked with that weakness and imbecility which results from a wavering and irresolute mind, rather than stained by any wilful errors, or atrocious crimes. Whenever he acted wrong, it appears to have been against his inclination, and in opposition to his conscience: he yielded, when he should have been firm: he temporized, when he should have taken a decided part."

From Philo, quoted by Dr. Lardner, we learn that Pilate, on the contrary, was guilty of the most atrocious crimes. He took bribes, he practised extortion, murdered innocent and uncondemned persons, and committed many other acts of cruelty and oppression. And at last being displaced from his govern-

ment, he chose to die by his own hands, rather than endure the disgrace which his abuse of power had occasioned.

The remaining discourses are: On

fearing the reproach of men; on the duty of mercifulness; on the judgment to come; and on peace with God.

ART. XXXVIII. *Four Sermons on, i. Repentance unto Life. ii. The Evil of Sin, as committed against God. iii. Christ's Love to Penitent Sinners. iv. The Promise of the Holy Spirit. Lately preached at the Lock Chapel, and published by particular Request.* By THOMAS SCOTT, A. M. Chaplain to the Lock Hospital. 8vo. pp. 110.

THESE sermons appear to have been delivered "in consequence of a letter which the preacher received from an unknown correspondent, and desiring a public answer to several interesting questions on the subject of repentance." With what view these questions were

proposed, and what effect this public answer produced, we are not informed. These sermons are written with great plainness; and will prove acceptable to those who have embraced the same views of religion with this well-known author.

ART. XXXIX. *Helps to Composition; or, Five Hundred Skeletons of Sermons, severally being the Substance of Sermons preached before the University.* By the Rev. CHARLES SIMEON, M. A. Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Vol. II. Parts I. and II. pp. 780.

MORE than three hundred of these skeletons have been sent into the world already, and to the great annoyance of the nervous and the timid have, we fear, been obtruded into our pulpits. Skeletons are to most persons frightful and disgusting objects; and however artfully they may be adorned, present a loathsome appearance. No art or device of man can ever effectually conceal them. Who will not be able to detect the artificial eye, or the false and painted cheek? Who will fail to discover the borrowed muscular appearance of the limb, or the wiry joint? Can any thing less than a miracle cause dry bones to live? But to be serious. We cannot express too strongly our disapprobation of the skeleton helps to composition, which Mr. Simeon has prepared for our younger divines. The eloquence of the English pulpit has long been defective; and if the publication now before us should come into general use, it will be utterly destroyed. Our sermons will lose every portion even of the excellence they now possess; they will be destitute of vigour of thought, as well as elegance of language; and a cold, dry, uninteresting style will usurp the place even of that little energy by which the majority of

our pulpit-compositions is now distinguished. We will venture to recommend to our young preachers a practice very different from that which Mr. Simeon would have them follow. Let them occasionally select a sermon from one of our most approved and eloquent writers; and when, by a very careful perusal of it, they shall have entered fully into its spirit, and brought their minds into a state similar to that in which the author composed his discourses (which may in general be easily effected), let them undertake the same subject. They will thus be preserved from the difficulty, and we may add the danger, of too early and too frequent composition. Their discourses will not be barren of sentiment, or rendered displeasing by crude and juvenile thoughts. They will have more leisure to study accuracy and elegance of style; and they will be continually increasing their fund of religious and moral sentiments. This practice has been adopted by some of our best writers, and is sanctioned by their success. The careful reading of the best French preachers will also conduce to form an eloquent and impressive style.

ART. XL. *Four Sermons preached in London at the Eighth General Meeting of the Missionary Society, May 12, 13, 14, 1802.* By the Rev. S. LOWELL, Bristol; Rev. G. TOWNSEND, Ramsgate; Rev. J. M. MASON, A. M. New York; Rev. R. HAWKER, D. D. Plymouth. Also the Report of the Directors, and a List of Subscribers. Published for the Benefit of the Society. 8vo. pp. 148.

WE have seldom been more highly gratified than by the perusal of the first ANN. REV. VOL. I.

of these discourses, entitled, "The Triumphs of the Messiah;" which is at once

pious, eloquent, and rational. Our readers will not be displeased at the following specimen. Speaking of the objections that may be raised against the further prosecution of the Missionary plan, the author observes:

"But it will perhaps be asked, 'Whether, in an undertaking like ours, successive discouragements be not infallible intimations that the design is not to be accomplished; and whether perseverance be not presumption, when exercised in the face of so much hazard to the persons employed, and so much uncertainty as to the end proposed?' Inquiries of this kind are doubtless entitled to every respectful attention; we, nevertheless, presume, that we may safely answer them in the negative. No disaster has befallen the Missionary Society beyond the ordinary course of events; and in such a world of sin and folly, who ever proposed plans of benevolence, however wise and salutary, without encountering impediments to which all human affairs are exposed? Ask the Howards, the De l'Epées, and all the amiable train of philanthropists, and they will tell you that their various plans in behalf of the sons and daughters of woe were all discouraged, traduced, and opposed. Britain justly boasts of an illustrious friend of the sable inhabitants of Africa, who some years ago applied his benevolent mind to the abolition of that infernal traffic, the SLAVE TRADE—a traffic at which reason startles, at which humanity shudders, and over which religion has vented ten thousand sorrows. The man whose soul thus mourned the wrongs of Africa, was recognised by the sympathetic feelings of a compassionate nation, and his pious design was as nobly aided by the overpowering eloquence of the sons of Cicero and Demos-

thenes. Every power of the human soul, avarice excepted, yielded to the just demand;—but avarice, accursed avarice, opposed, and to this hour successfully resists, all the dictates of reason, all the claims of justice, and all the precepts of religion. This opposition is not, however, regarded as affording any argument against the wisdom, the equity, or benevolence of such efforts; but is considered as so much additional evidence of that deep depravity of heart, by which the human race is ensnared, degraded, and lost."

The two succeeding discourses are below mediocrity: and if, in point of composition, the fourth, entitled, "The Work of the Holy Ghost," may have some claim to praise; the mode of interpreting scripture which the preacher has adopted, and the positions which he has endeavoured to establish, are but ill adapted to obtain belief, or ensure respect.

We rejoice that the directors are not discouraged in the prosecution of their plan of benevolence, by the obstacles they have met with in its progress; being fully persuaded that wherever the divine spirit of piety to God, and good will towards men, which appears in the character of Christ, together with the history of his miracles, death, and resurrection, as recorded in the New Testament, are clearly made known, the happiest effects will eventually follow, however for a time these simple truths may be corrupted by error, or perverted by the bigotry or the enthusiasm of some who undertake to preach them.

**ART XLII.** *A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of St. Andrew by the Wardrobe and St. Anne, Blackfriars, on Tuesday in Whitsun Week, June 8, 1802, before the Society for Missions to Africa and the East, instituted by Members of the Established Church, being their Second Anniversary. By the Rev. CHARLES SIMEON, M. A. Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Also the Report of the Committee to the Annual Meeting held on the same Day; and a List of Subscribers and Benefactors. Printed by Order of the General Meeting. 8vo.*

THIS, though a single sermon, we place in this part of our work, on account of the similarity of its object to that of the preceding discourses. From these two publications it appears, that while the Missionaries, supported chiefly by the Calvinistic Dissenters, are extending the knowledge of the gospel through the islands of the great Pacific Ocean, some zealous members of the Establishment are preparing to diffuse the same knowledge through Africa and the East. How far the discourse before

us, which is confined to considerations on the importance of faith in Christ, as suffering death to appease the wrath of God, may promote this benevolent plan, we will not venture to decide. It may be proper, however, to give our readers a specimen of the theology which the poor savages of Africa are to be taught.

"Consider then first, *what would have been the state of the whole world, if the same mind had been in Christ that is in us?* Had he been as indisposed to effect the salvation of mankind, as we are to promote that of the

heathen, would he have left his glory for them, would he have relinquished all the blessedness which he enjoyed in the bosom of his Father? Would he have debased himself to such a degree, as to take upon himself their fallen nature? Would he have substituted himself in their place, and borne all their iniquities in his own person, and have become a curse for them? For them who, he knew beforehand, would murder him as soon as they should have it in their power? *No*—Then where would Adam, and all the generations that have passed in succession to the present hour, have been at this moment? They would all, without one single exception, have been wailing and gnashing their teeth in hell: and all future generations, to the end of time, would have lived only to fill up the measure of their iniquities, and to receive at last their tremendous doom."

We find, from the report annexed to this discourse, that no Missionaries are yet engaged by the Society; but that the Committee have received information of an institution at Berlin, by means of which it is probable the wants of the Society may hereafter be more readily supplied, and that many useful works have been printed in the Susoo language, which extends over a very considerable part of Africa. In an appendix we are

told, "that the Mahommedan religion has tended very much to civilize the Africans wherever it has been introduced—that no people can be more temperate with regard to strong liquors, nor more grave and decorous in their deportment than the Foulatis and Mandingos;" and that "in many respects they are sagacious and discerning;" it is nevertheless lamented that the Susoos "shew a great dislike to true religion." If by *true religion* such doctrines as this sermon contains be meant, we are not surprised; and we beg leave to suggest the propriety of first attempting to inculcate something more simple. It cannot be expected that their untutored minds should be able to receive at once all those sacred mysteries, at which more cultivated understandings have sometimes revolted. And as there appears to be some danger that if these be made a necessary part of their creed they will reject Christianity altogether, let the experiment be first tried with such truths as are level to every comprehension, and which the earliest preachers of the gospel were content to require their converts to believe. See the Acts of the Apostles, *passim*; and Rom. x. 9.

**ART. XLII.** *Two Sermons preached at Dominica, on the 11th and 13th of April 1800, and officially noticed by his Majesty's Privy Council in that Island. To which is added an Appendix, containing Minutes of the Three Trials which occurred at Roseau in the Spring of the preceding Year; together with Remarks and Strictures on the Issue of these Trials, as well as on the Slave Trade, and the Condition of Slaves in general in our West Indian Colonies. By the Rev. C. PETERS, A. M. Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford, and late Rector of St. George's and Roseau, in the Island of Dominica.* 8vo. pp. 82.

FREQUENTLY have our feelings been outraged by accounts of the horrid barbarities inflicted upon the suffering African by the avaricious slave purchaser, the cruel overseer, and the brutal *negro-driver*, emphatically so called; but we do not remember that we ever felt more forcibly the dreadful effects of the system of slavery, than while perusing the interesting publication now before us.

The text chosen for the two discourses which form a part of this publication, is Coloss. iv. 1. "*Masters, give unto your servants that which is just and equal, knowing that ye also have also a master in heaven.*" The relation of master and servant, the preacher observes, has its foundation in the diversity of talents, degrees of industry, and varied circumstances of the members of civil society; and he pro-

ceeds to state some of the leading particulars which the admonition of the apostle includes in it, in a country where the labourer is not only the servant, but the property of his master. These he states to be, the providing of a comfortable subsistence, and the exaction only of such a portion of labour from his slave, as his natural powers are equal to perform. In this discourse he examines the comparative condition of our labouring poor, and of West-Indian slaves, and ably proves that the hardships frequently inflicted upon the latter, cannot be justified by any arguments drawn from the circumstances of the former. In the second discourse, the preacher calls the attention of his audience to the extraordinary mortality which prevails amongst those unfortunate slaves who are em-



ployed in draining and breaking up marshy ground, and states the several causes of this calamity, all of which he apprehends might be counteracted by judicious and humane regulations. If, however, it should from experience be found that no means whatever can be adopted adequate to this end, he scruples not to avow his honest opinion, that "no private gain or personal emolument that can possibly accrue to the proprietor, will in the least degree excuse, in the judgment of his divine Master, his shortening the temporal existence even of a single slave." After considering the instances of miners, of soldiers, and of sailors, whose lives must necessarily be shortened by their several occupations, and proving that their cases differ in every respect from that of the slave, he concludes by recommending tenderness to slaves, from the consideration of their forlorn and helpless state, and of their entire dependence upon the humanity of their masters.

These discourses it seems were intended to have been followed by some others, upon this important and interesting subject; but although there is not a word in them of the duty of affording to the wretched slave opportunities of moral and religious improvement, nothing but what relates to his mere animal existence, although they contain not the least hint of the sinfulness of the traffic itself, but on the contrary it seems to be taken for granted that in this there is nothing unlawful, yet the alarm-bell was sounded throughout the island, and the worthy preacher was denounced in the public prints as "enthusiastically devoted to the propagation of political dogmas, not only inconsistent with his spiritual functions, but most dangerous to public safety." He was even sum-

moned to appear before the privy council at Dominica, where, after presenting for examination the two discourses which had given such offence, he declared it to be his "deliberate and final determination to desist not only from preaching in that colony on the same or similar subjects, but from ever preaching in it more." He accordingly resigned his appointment, and returned to his native country. How dreadfully vitiated must be the state of the public mind, in a place where it can be considered as a crime for a preacher of the gospel to point out to his audience the duty of a master to provide his slave with necessary food and raiment; not to exact from him more labour than he is able to perform; nor to employ him solely for his own emolument, in works which will assuredly ruin his health, and bring him to an untimely grave.

In an appendix we have the minutes and the issue of the trials of *three* persons of colour at Roseau, for the murder of their slaves, and of a *fourth* for extreme barbarity; and we have also some authentic documents of cruelties inflicted by persons who do not come under that description, and who are generally esteemed respectable characters; from which the author, in a note, draws the following very obvious, yet striking conclusion: "If these things be done in a green tree, what shall be done in a dry? If persons *reputed good* do not refrain from acting with detestable barbarity, what bounds can we reasonably set to the cruelty of those who are *notoriously wicked?*" But we refer our readers to the pamphlet itself, the contents of which, and the inferences to be drawn from it, it behoves every friend to humanity, and to the real interests of his country, very seriously to consider.

ART. XLIII. *Christ's Warning to the Churches to beware of false Prophets, who come as Wolves in Sheep's Clothing: and the Marks by which they are known. Illustrated in Two Discourses.* By JOSEPH LATHROP, D. D. Pastor of a Church in West Springfield, North America. 12mo.

AN advertisement informs us that these discourses have been very popular in New England, having in a very short time after their publication gone through six editions. For their popularity they must have been indebted to some local circumstances with which we are unac-

quainted, rather than to any intrinsic merit in themselves. Their republication in Scotland, we suppose is occasioned by the increase of the seceders; and perhaps the diffusion of Methodism in North America was the cause of their original appearance.

## SINGLE SERMONS.

## ON THE LATE THANKSGIVING.

ART. XLIV. *Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802, being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a General Thanksgiving to Almighty God for putting an End to the late bloody, extended, and expensive War.* By HENRY WILLIAM, Lord Bishop of Chester. 4to. pp. 20.

IN this discourse the right reverend preacher endeavours to prove, "from a retrospect of some of the principal features in the history of this country in general, and a more particular attention to the circumstances in which we have been lately involved, and now stand, that there result abundant proofs of God's providential care and favour towards us:" from which he urges the duty of a grateful acknowledgment of the mercy of the Supreme Being, not only in words, but in a general reformation of manners. Neither the sentiments, nor the style of this discourse, entitle it to any degree of commendation; and nothing, we apprehend, but the circumstances of its having been delivered on such an occasion, before such an audience, and by a preacher of episcopal rank, would have prolonged its life beyond the first moments of its birth.

ART. XLV. *Preached at the Parish Church of St. George, Hanover Square, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802, being the Day appointed for a General Thanksgiving.* By HENRY REGINALD, Lord Bishop of Exeter, Rector of that Parish. 4to. pp. 12.

AFTER exhibiting a just and striking view of many of the calamities which distinguished the late war, the right reverend preacher urges upon his hearers the duty of offering thanksgiving to God, and of conducting themselves in a manner becoming good citizens and true patriots. It is a temperate well-written discourse, in every respect suitable to the occasion.

ART. XLVI. *Religious Principle the Source of National Prosperity: a Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Richmond, in Surrey, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802, &c. To which are subjoined,*

*(in the Form of Notes) Essays on various Subjects connected with the Occasion.* By the Rev. EDWARD PATTESON, M.A. formerly of Trinity College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 183.

OF this annotating age, Mr. Patteson will be deservedly esteemed a distinguished ornament. Of one hundred and eighty-three pages of which this pamphlet is composed, forty-six only are occupied by the discourse; the remaining one hundred and thirty-seven are filled with notes, or, as the author chooses to call them, *Essays*, printed in a small type. The character of this work is not less extraordinary than the form in which it appears. The reasoning upon many of the topics which it embraces is just and accurate, but there is an intermixture of such bold and unwarranted assertion, as is not easily reconcilable with the power of just discrimination, which the author on some points displays. Thus, for instance, he attributes the late revolution in France, together with all its consequent evils, not only to the influence of principles disseminated by the illuminati, but to "a deliberate experiment, intended to demonstrate by facts, and at whatever cost, that both religion and government might safely be dispensed with, and that the benefits of society were attainable without them," p. 40. In the heavy charge of conducting this experiment, Mr. Patteson indiscriminately implicates "Condorcet, Bailly, Roland, Brissot, and others, the immediate pupils of Rousseau, whom, with a few more of the same literary class, he tells us (p. 163) France has to thank for all her miseries."

But Mr. P. goes still higher, and informs us, that our own excellent and enlightened countryman, Mr. Locke, was, in reality, one prime mover of the French revolution: for "nothing," says our author, "appears to be more certain than, that this great writer and profound thinker, was as truly the political father of the Voltaires, Rousseaus, D'Alemberts, &c. as that they were the parents of the Mirabeaus, La Fayette, Baillys, Condorcets, and Seyeses." "It is true," he tells us in a preceding page, that "were Mr. Locke now living, it is not easy to conceive with what indignation

he would hear his own writings quoted in support of the tenets which these philosophers have maintained, and that it is certain that no such doctrines of atheism and anarchy as have lately infected all Europe are *directly* to be found in his writings, yet we are assured it is no less certain, that they contain principles from whence (without such cautions and limitations as Mr. Locke has *not* thought proper to annex) they are but too easily deduced."

The following representation of the state of France previous to the revolution, though not unexampled, is, we apprehend, unsupported by fact:

"Had such a train of events been preceded by a tyranny, odious in itself, supported by a corrupt and overbearing hierarchy, and rendered intolerable by personal brutality, we should look no further for an adequate cause than to a sudden burst of public indignation; nor should we discover any distinct indications of character, in proceedings natural, in such a case, to any people upon earth. But, on the contrary, the civil power, in that country, was confined by constitutional and customary restraints; the duties of the prince towards his people had been unequivocally acknowledged, by the late sovereign, on various occasions; and, however some ignorant or interested persons may have misrepresented it, the general system of public administration, during the whole of the late reign, had been tolerant and mild. Under good princes, worse constitutions had made nations happy; and, in the same country, as well as in many others, real and heavy abuses of power had been patiently endured. Perhaps, indeed, the ecclesiastical government of the country might be the less free from imputation of despotism, as having been vested in priests, accustomed to exercise, over the consciences of the people, such a degree of influence as, in protestant countries, is wholly unknown. Yet was this rather the influence of persuasion than of force; for the instruments of spiritual power, most liable to abuse, had long since been abolished: and, in a country almost entirely catholic, the disabilities laid upon protestants, however grievous, could never have become the object of general discontent. We are compelled, therefore, in order to deduce any certain inference from the facts before us, to search for some cause, strongly predisposing the minds of the people to an impatience of any religious or political restraint."

In justice to Mr. Patteson we must observe, that there are many subjects discussed by him with great judgment and ability, and many passages which discover a well informed mind, and a

correct taste. Thus, speaking of the blessings of peace, he observes:

"But not in these temporal blessings alone do we discover the benefits resulting from the discontinuance of war. Amidst the calm and tranquillity of peace, order and decency naturally flourish; the laws are more perfectly observed, the magistrate more cheerfully obeyed; and religion, the best friend, even in this life, of human happiness, resumes her mild and soothing sway. No longer occupied with fears for the safety of his country, with jealousy for its honour, with ambitious views for its wealth and aggrandizement, every member of the community finds his mind more open to the remembrance of his God, and to the only true and proper objects of solicitous concern in this mortal life. By narrowing the field of anxiety, and by promoting the composure of the passions, a state of peace is highly favourable, not only to the abstracted exercise of piety, but to that holiness of life, which is the end, the proof, and the perfection of piety: and, if that be not a just source of joy, which expedites the passage to future felicity, let all earthly events be held equally indifferent!"

The text which the preacher has chosen is Psalm cxlvii. 12, 13, 14. The leading subjects of the discourse are the evils of war, the advantages of peace, and the proceedings and character of the people with whom the usual freedom of communication is restored to us, by the termination of hostilities.

The notes or essays, upon miscellaneous subjects, suggested in the course of the sermon, are in number no fewer than *thirty-three*. Amongst them we have one *on the interference of the clergy in affairs of temporal policy*: another, *on the natural defence of Great Britain*: another, *on the reality of the scarcity*: another, *on the inquisition and the order of the jesuits*: and another, *on the danger of an ill directed study of the scriptures*. A little further application of the preacher's ingenuity would have produced an essay upon every single sentence in the sermon. Formerly notes were subservient to the text; but in this age of revolutions, the text is in great danger of becoming nothing more than a vehicle for notes.

ART. XLVII. *The Instability of worldly Power, and the Insufficiency of Human Means, or the Divine Providence our only Shield. A Sermon, preached at the Parish Church of the Holy Trinity, Menories, on Tuesday, June 1, &c. by THOMAS THIRLWALL, M.A., Curate of the Holy*

*Trinity in the Minorities, and Lecturer of St. Dunstan, Stepney.* 4to. pp. 23.

FROM Ezek. xxxvii. 3, Mr. T. takes occasion to shew the various dangers and calamities to which we were reduced during the late dreadful contest, both from external and domestic foes; to congratulate his countrymen upon their unexpected deliverance, and to enforce profound gratitude to God, a high regard for the civil and religious privileges we enjoy, and an earnest endeavour to avoid those sins which have exposed us to the righteous judgments of the supreme ruler of events. This discourse is not destitute of animation; but can scarcely be judged to possess those excellencies which are necessary to entitle it to public notice.

ART. XLVIII. *The Necessity of future Gratitude and Circumspection, to prove a due Sense of past Mercies. A Sermon, preached on Tuesday, June 1, &c. By the Rev. Sir ADAM GORDON, Bart. M. A. Rector of West Tilbury, Essex, and Prebendary of Bristol.* 8vo. pp. 41.

AN uninteresting, desultory discourse from Psalm cxviii. 24, published, as the Rev. Baronet informs us in a preface, to make those of his parishioners, who on this, as well as "on former occasions of a like public nature, have, from distance or disinclination," absented themselves from the service of the day, acquainted with the sentiments of their minister.

Several notes are added, in which forestallers, regraters, socinians, and schismatics, meet with *all due reproof and correction.*

ART. XLIX. *A Thanksgiving Sermon for the Peace. Preached June 1, 1802. By the Rev. J. H. WILLIAMS, LL. B. Vicar of Wellsbourn, Warwickshire.* 8vo. pp. 36.

VERY different from the preceding is the character of this discourse. It is a plain, sensible, and well meant endeavour to allay every remaining sentiment of animosity, and to promote the growth and influence of those dispositions which will ensure a continuance of the blessings of peace. The text is taken from Rom. xiv. 19; and the preacher manifests throughout a truly liberal and enlightened mind, and a spirit becoming his profession.

ART. L. *Reflections and Exhortations, adapted to the State of the Times. A Sermon, preached to the Unitarian Congregation at Hackney, June 1, 1802, &c. By THOMAS BELSHAM.* 8vo. pp. 23.

THE first part of this excellent discourse is occupied in proving, that we have just reason to be thankful for the returning blessings of peace, in opposition to those who have represented it as insecure, and depreciated the value of their services by whose conciliatory measures it was effected. The preacher then directs the attention of his hearers to some serious reflections which the interesting scenes through which we have lately passed naturally excite. He exhorts them to reflect with gratitude on the peculiar felicity of this country in having been preserved from those aggravated calamities which desolate the seat of war; and on the excellence and the stability of the British constitution, which has so happily weathered the late revolutionary storm. He points out to those who direct the councils of a nation the wisdom of temperate reform; and to those who compose the great body of the people, the danger of substituting refined speculations for practical wisdom, founded on experience.

These very judicious reflections are followed by a few hints concerning the duties which are incumbent upon us in present circumstances, both as members of civil society and individuals: and these are in general "to follow after the things which make for peace, and things whereby one may edify another."

The temper with which this discourse is composed, is worthy of a Christian minister, a good citizen, and a loyal subject; and it affords a complete refutation of those malevolent calumnies which are yet too industriously propagated by illiberal and bigoted persons against a numerous class of our countrymen, who, conscientiously dissenting from the established church, are "not insensible to the general excellence of the British constitution, nor to the great benefits which they, in common with their fellow subjects, enjoy under it."

ART. LI. *A Sermon, preached at Mill Hill Chapel, in Leeds, on the late Day of Thanksgiving, &c. By W. WOOD, F. L. S.* 8vo. pp. 20.

WE cannot exhibit the character of this very eloquent discourse better, than

by citing one or two passages from many of equal force and beauty. Describing the horrors of war, the preacher observes:

"In a single battle, thousands who, a few hours before, were strong in the pride of youth, and whose hearts beat high with fond ideas of glory, are stretched on the plain, weltering in their blood; some pale and lifeless, never again to behold the beauty of the setting, or the splendour of the rising sun; others writhing in agony, unable to rise from the ground, with nothing before them but the sad prospect of a sure and lingering death. What profits now the firm array in which they were lately marshalled, or the exact discipline in which they then trusted, or the past exploits of which they once boasted? They are laid in the dust: one grave is destined to receive them; the sod, still moistened with their bleeding wounds, will soon cover them; no solemn knell will accompany their burial: no sacred rites will consign them to their native earth; no pious kinsman, or regretting friend, will follow them to their long home, or raise a monumental stone to keep them in remembrance: they will be thrown together in promiscuous heaps, and, though concealed for a while from human view, their mouldering bones will in future times be cast up by the peaceful plough, and seen with a transient sigh, or thrown aside with unfeeling indifference by the labouring peasant."

The extent of the late contest is thus admirably described:

"Such are the miseries of actual war. Such they have been felt in their full extent through more than half the German empire, and in almost every part of the Dutch republic, over the fertile plains of the Belgic provinces, on all the frontiers and deep in the bosom of France, amidst the rugged rocks and charming vales of the Swiss cantons, in the northern districts of Spain, throughout the whole length of Italy, up nearly all the known course of the Nile, under the burning sun and amidst the pestilential vapours of a West Indian clime, to the verge of the Southern Cape, within the entowered walls of swarthy Seringapatam, and as far as the spicy isles of the distant Ind."

ART. LII. *Reflections on War. A Sermon, preached at the Baptist Meeting, Cambridge, on Tuesday June 1, &c. By ROBERT HALL, A.M.* 8vo. pp. 41.

FROM the same appropriate text which was chosen by the preceding preacher, Ps. xlvii, 8, 9. Mr. Hall takes occasion to describe with much eloquence the horrors of war, and the aggravated evils of the late bitter and protracted contest; and to point out the

urgent reasons for grateful joy which are suggested by the restoration of peace. This sermon having been preached for the benefit of a benevolent society instituted at Cambridge, some excellent observations on charity to the poor are introduced towards the close. We are happy to learn that "the good which has arisen from the exertions of that society, is more than equal to its most sanguine expectations:" and we most heartily concur with the author of this discourse, in ardent wishes for the establishment of similar institutions in other parts of this kingdom.

ART. LIII. *The Prospect of future universal Peace, considered in a Sermon preached in the Baptist Chapel in Taunton, June 1, 1802, &c. By JOSHUA TOULMIN, D.D.* 8vo. pp. 26.

THE object of this discourse, which is evidently the production of an enlightened mind and a benevolent heart, is to shew the reasonableness of the expectation of future universal uninterrupted peace. The preacher argues first, from the circumstances in the state of the world which seem to beget the hope of that time when men shall "learn war no more," such as the evils of war—the direction of the mind of youth to pacific pursuits, the diffusion of philanthropic sentiments, and the extension of commerce. Secondly, from the *more universal* progress (a strange but not uncommon solecism) and influence of Christian principles. And thirdly, from the predictions of holy scripture. The hope is pleasing, but we fear the day is yet far distant which shall see it realized.

ART. LIV. *An Estimate of the Peace; a Discourse delivered at Newbury, June 1, 1802, &c. By J. BICHENO, M.A.* 8vo. pp. 31.

THE text chosen by this preacher is Ps. ii. 11, "Rejoice with trembling." Though the return of peace is a proper subject of fervent joy, yet he perceives that there are circumstances in the present state of things, which should check or moderate our transports. He exhorts his hearers to rejoice because the restoration of peace is the work of God; because it puts an end to a war which some think originated in error, stops the progress of many crimes and miseries, and affords us an opportunity for repentance



and reformation. But the retrospect of the horrors which have been perpetrated, the miseries which have been suffered, the awful changes which have taken place, the reflection upon the present general moral character of Europe, and the prospect of calamities which he imagines are predicted to fall speedily upon the earth, the preacher urges as reasons for trembling while we rejoice. The prevailing sentiments in this discourse are just, and the style is clear and animated.

ART. LV. *I am for Peace! A Sermon preached at Worship-Street, &c.* By JOHN EVANS, A.M. 8vo. pp. 30.

AS a private individual, in his social, in his religious, and in his public capacity, Mr. Evans observes the good man may and ought to exclaim *I am for peace!* To this discourse is subjoined the congratulatory address of the Protestant Dissenters on the return of peace, presented to the King; together with his Majesty's answer.

ART. LVI. *A Sermon preached at the Close of a Series of Lectures on the Signs and Duties of the Times, continued for nearly three Years, in the Metropolis, by a Society of Clergymen.* Published at the unanimous Request of the Society. By THOMAS SCOTT, Chaplain to the Lock Hospital. 8vo. pp. 31.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. LVII. *A Sermon preached in the Chapel of the London Hospital, April 8, 1802.* By RICHARD WATSON, Lord Bishop of Landaff 4to. pp. 23.

THIS sermon was preached for the benefit of a public charity; and, as "institutions of this sort owe their establishment and flourishing condition to the belief of the gospel of Jesus Christ, and will owe their decay and ruin to the disbelief of it," the right reverend preacher has very justly considered it as most suitable to the occasion upon which this discourse was delivered, "to guard his hearers against that evil heart of unbelief," which has of late years been so unhappily prevalent. He produces "the testimony of all Christians to the resurrection of Jesus, as a reason why we should believe the Christian religion to be true; the testimony of all Jews to the veracity of Moses, as a reason why we should believe the Jewish dispensation to be from God; and the testimony of

THIS discourse possesses so much of the character of a thanksgiving sermon, that we have classed it, among those that were delivered upon that occasion. The immediate cause of its delivery we are informed was the dissolution of a society composed of a small number of clergymen in the metropolis, who, during the late war, entered into a resolution to assist each other in endeavouring to stir up their congregations, 1. To personal self-examination, repentance, and religious diligence. 2. To use their influence in checking the progress of infidelity, impiety and vice; and promoting scriptural Christianity in their families and among their connexions. 3. To pray constantly for the nation and for the church of God, that is among us: and also to strengthen, as far as their little influence would extend, the hands of our governors: and to exhort the people "to fear God, and honour the King, and not to meddle with those who are given to change." With the war the immediate object for which this society was formed ceased to exist, and the association was therefore dissolved.

This discourse is written in a plain but interesting manner, and contains many pertinent and useful observations. It is indeed tinged with enthusiasm, but the chief ingredients are good sense and piety.

all mankind, to the fact of the creation, as a reason why we should believe in the existence of a supreme being; thinking that this kind of reasoning is best suited to general apprehension." P. 15. The sources of the great infidelity of the present times are here stated to be the viciousness of men's lives, and their inattention to religious inquiries. The usual limits of a sermon will not allow of a complete and systematic defence of revealed religion, but we expected from the well-known pen of the Bishop of Landaff something less superficial than this discourse.

ART. LVIII. *A Sermon preached in Lambeth Chapel, on Sunday the 27th of June 1802, at the Consecration of the Right Rev. George Isaac Huntingford, D. D.*

*Lord Bishop of Gloucester. By the Rev. WILLIAM HOWLEY, M.A. Fellow of Winchester College. 4to. pp. 22.*

THE chief subject of this discourse is the divine origin of the system of prelacy. And what subject could the preacher have chosen more suitable to the occasion, or more gratifying to the audience, the chief person in which, after having had honour thrust upon him, so contrary to his desire (*nolo episcopari*), must need the consolation which the following words of the courtly divine are so well adapted to administer?

"The presumption in favour of the divine form of government, retained by our national church, grounded on its resemblance to the Jewish hierarchy; on the conduct of our blessed Lord in the distribution of spiritual powers to his apostles and disciples; on the charges of St. Paul to Timothy and Titus; and on various passages scattered through the apostolic scriptures; \* is confirmed by the incontrovertible testimony of tradition. The system of prelacy, it thence appears, was framed by the apostles acting under the influence of the Holy Spirit. From that period, till the æra of the reformation, it was received without essential alteration by the universal church; and documents are still extant, in which various lines of bishops are traced upwards in unbroken succession to the immediate followers of Christ. This uniformity in the practice of the church is not only of itself sufficient to demonstrate the expediency of episcopal government, but will justify us in considering its rejection, by later Christians, as an act of misguided zeal, if not of unwarrantable presumption."

From this short extract our readers may judge of the nature of this sermon. There is no want of assertion, but we apprehend that there are those who will expect a point of such difficulty and importance to be supported by clearer proof and more close and accurate reasoning.

**ART. LIX.** *Revelation indispensable to Morality. A Sermon preached in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, on Sunday, March 21, 1802. By the Hon. and Right Rev. WILLIAM KNOX, Lord Bishop of Killaloe. 8vo. pp. 34.*

IN this excellent discourse the preacher proposes, "to take such a view of the morality of the ancient world, as shall establish its uncertainty in regard to speculation, as well as its failure in

regard to practice; and from this view to deduce the same conclusion as that upon which the apostle has rested his text, which is chosen from 1st Ep. to the Cor. ch. i. v. 20, "Where is the wise, where is the scribe, where is the disputer of the world? Hath not God made foolish the wisdom of the world?" The governing principle of morality distinct from revelation he considers to have been *convenience*, a *convenience* which accommodated itself to the state of society, whether fluctuating or progressive. Having shewn the inefficacy of this principle, he proceeds to examine the attempts which were made by the great men of antiquity, to remove the difficulty which this defect in the foundation of morality placed in its way. "Zeno," he observes, "was the most celebrated dogmatist of antiquity. The philosophers of his school, confounding logic, metaphysics, and morality, seem to have imagined that the whole definition of man was comprehended in his characteristic attribute, and that as a rational soul, distinguished him from other animals, a rational soul was all that he possessed."

"It will be useful, however," the right reverend preacher remarks, "to trace this absurdity to its source. In doing so we shall find, that it was from the illustrious Socrates that this extraordinary system took its rise. Let us not, however, confound the character of this wise and virtuous man with that of his successors. On him, peculiarly favoured as he seemed of heaven, the light of divine truth bursts with a bright, but transitory gleam. He discovered, it must be acknowledged, the true foundation of morality, since his first principle was, that virtue was obligatory because it was the will of God. Beyond that principle, however, the darkness of the times would not suffer him to proceed. When he was asked by what means that will of which he spoke was to be discovered, and the reason on which his own opinion was founded, a difficulty presented itself, which nothing (and he seems to have been conscious of it), but revelation could completely surmount. The answer which he then gave, after having been carried to its gross and glaring extreme by Plato, and evaded, or rather given up, by Aristotle, ended in the splendid and unnatural philosophy of the stoic. To prove that the practice of virtue was the command of God, and at the same time to give a due sanction to that authority, Socrates appeals to the certainty and celerity with which punishment followed its viola-

\* Acts. i. 20. xx. 28. 1 Peter v. 2, 3, &c. Rev. ii. iii.

tion; whilst, in answer to the former part of the question, he asserts that reason was given to man, as the interpreter of the divine law. Thus we see, that this great genius and truly excellent man appears to have been inspired with the knowledge of the true conclusion; but that, as it had not yet pleased the Author of all wisdom to impart to the Gentiles the knowledge of the only sure foundation of human action, though the conclusion of the sage was undeniable, his premises were evidently and necessarily false. In his answer, therefore, we see this truly practical philosopher compelled to contradict the daily experience of mankind."

The systems of Plato, Aristotle, Zeno, and Epicurus, are then briefly noticed; and the speculative difficulties and consequences, which belong to morality, unsupported by revelation, being thus shown, the remainder of the discourse is confined to the consideration of the practical difficulties and consequences of that system.

From many excellent observations with which the discourse is thus concluded, we cannot refrain from selecting the following:

"And what was the state of the ancient world when the Author of our salvation appeared, and the experiment of morality had arrived at its full consummation?

"As it advanced in cultivation we observe a proportional retrogression in virtue. And when at length it had reached the highest pitch of improvement, and learning and the arts were at their summit; when nature had poured out her richest intellectual gifts upon mankind, until she seemed fatigued and exhausted with her efforts; what was the scandalous scene which the world exhibited? In public, civil war raged with relentless fury, proscriptions, massacres, treachery the most foul, and usurpation the most flagrant. And what was the picture of private life? Every abomination, not practised merely, but extolled and consecrated (to immortal infamy let us hope) by the genius of the poet. Nay, so palled and fastidious was become the vicious appetite of the people, that they could only be roused from their horrid trance by the exhibition of deliberate murder, the inhuman spectacle of innocent and mangled victims expiring upon the public stage. But what am I describing? Is it truly the spectacle, which mankind exhibits when their proneness to corruption is unchecked by religion; or may it be regarded as characteristic only of the manners of ancient times, and abhorrent from the superior refinement of the present period? Have we had no recent example for our contemplation? Alas! the colours in which history has transmitted to us the depravity of the ancient world, gross

and glaring as they seem, fade and disappear before the bold relief and high-wrought horrors which start from the bloody canvas of our own times.

"We collect therefore from the history of many ages this important truth, that there is but one foundation for virtue, one secure and steadfast morality. We learn that neither private virtue, nor national liberty, can subsist where the corruption consequent upon civilization is not arrested in its progress by religion; and that without her, in spite of all declamation to the contrary, vice and profligacy must ever be the crime and the disease, and a despot the scourge and the cure."

ART. LX. *An Apology for the Diversity of Religious Sentiments, and for Theological Inquiries.* By JOHN CORRIE. 8vo. pp. 22.

THIS appears in the form of a sermon, but where or upon what occasion it was preached, or whether it was ever preached at all, the author has not thought fit to inform us. The text which is prefixed to it is Rom. i. 16, *I am not ashamed of the gospel of Christ.* The subject is of considerable importance, and is here treated with great ability. The author discovers a liberal and enlightened mind, a sincere love of truth, and a spirit fully according with genuine Christianity. We wish that bigots, and all who are enemies to the discussion of religious principles would listen to such truths as the following:

"The quarrels, the dissensions, the domestic uneasiness, the civil discord, the wars, the persecutions which religious differences have occasioned, must be acknowledged and lamented. The mournful detail of them crowds the pages of the ecclesiastical historian. They give rise to many painful reflections, but they suggest many salutary lessons. They impress the heart with horror of persecution; they convince the judgment of its expediency; they exhibit in the clearest light the strength of religious principle; the sublimity of conduct which religion can inspire; its power even on the coolest reflection, to raise the mind above all in this world, which is accounted great, or dear, or terrible. They inculcate most strongly the necessity of mutual forbearance, of candour, and general toleration. They shew that differences of opinion ever have existed, and they afford reason to conclude that these differences will long continue to exist.

"For what means can be adopted to produce agreement? What contrivance can be suggested which shall lead different men to form the same conceptions of the truth of their sentiments; to possess the same feelings of their importance? There were times,

indeed, of little apparent difference. Turn to the history of those times. They were not times of light and learning; they were not the times of primitive Christianity; they were not the times of the apostles. They were the times during which the human mind was sunk in the most deplorable darkness and barbarism; in which the depth of ignorance was equalled by the atrocity of vice; in which you will in vain seek for any thing noble or refined; any thing on which you would be disposed to value either your species or yourself. There was no difference on points which none studied, which none understood. Happily those times are past, never to return. Happily study, and inquiry, and learning, and civilization, and science, have revived, have flourished, have advanced beyond the conception of our ancestors. But has any man discovered the art of producing uniformity of sentiment on points like those which constitute our religious creeds? Consult experience, recall your knowledge of history; have the most honest, the most diligent, the most competent inquirers, arrived at exactly the same conclusions? Did Peter agree in all respects with Paul? Was there an exact concurrence of opinion among the most learned and venerable fathers of the church? Did Luther, and Calvin, and Melancthon, and Zuinglius, exactly coincide in sentiment? Did those who began and those who completed the reformation of the English church agree exactly in opinion? Did Wickliffe, did Latimer, did Cranmer, did others most eminent for learning and integrity, form precisely the same views? Turn from religion to other similar objects. Inquire of history and experience concerning these. They will tell you, that as there is a difference in the bodies, there is likewise a difference in the minds of men; that on subjects confessedly of great importance, whatever approximation there may be to uniformity of sentiment, yet perfect uniformity is never to be found.—Such is the fact, and doubtless the wise and beneficent Creator of the universe has for good reasons chosen that it should be so."

ART. LXI. *Thoughts on the Harvest; a Sermon, preached at the Chapel of St. Mary, Penzance, January 17, 1802. By CHARLES VALENTINE LE GRICE, A.B. late Scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 32.*

THE discourse before us evinces the piety and benevolence of the author, and may be read with advantage by persons who are desirous of cultivating a devout frame of mind. Some of the thoughts the author acknowledges are taken from Bishop Atterbury, and some from Doctor Dodd. The text is Psalm, civ. v. 24.

ART. LXII. *A Discourse, (addressed chiefly to Parents) on the Duty and Advantage of inoculating Children with the Cow-Pock: preached in the Chapel of St. Edmund, in Dudley, on Sunday Feb. 14, 1802. By LUKE BOOKER, L.L.D. 4to. pp. 20.*

A very laudable attempt to recommend the general use of what Providence seems to have pointed out as a preventative of one of the most fatal diseases to which the human frame is liable. We earnestly recommend this discourse to the serious attention of parents, and sincerely hope that others of the clergy will follow the example of Dr. Booker. The text is chosen from John, ch. iv. ver. 49. "Sir, come down ere my child die."

ART. LXIII. *Bull-Baiting! A Sermon on Barbarity to God's Dumb Creation, preached in the Parish Church of Wokingham, Berks, on Sunday the 20th of December 1801 (being the Day previous to the Annual Bull-Bait in that Town), and inscribed to JOHN DENT, Esq. M.P.: by the Rev. EDWARD BARRY, M.D. 4to. pp. 13.*

THIS is a very excellent and praiseworthy endeavour to prevent that horrid practice of bull-baiting, which forms one among many other disgraceful sports to which the lower classes of our countrymen are addicted; a practice which, however, has found an advocate in a British senator! "Two useful animals," observes Dr. Barry, "the bull who propagates our food, and the faithful dog who protects us, to be thus tormented, for what purpose? Does it tend, as some have said, to keep alive the spirit of the English character? In answer to this, we must remark, that the barbarous sport (if sport it can be called) was unknown to the ancient bravery of our ancestors, was introduced into this country in the reign of a bad king (king John, in the year 1209), and earnestly do I pray to Almighty God, that in this reign of a most pious and benevolent Prince, it may be for ever set aside! Cowards, of all men the least unmoved, can both inflict and witness cruelties. The heroes of a bull-bait, the patrons of mercenary pugilists, and the champions of a cock-fight, can produce, I should think, but few, if any, disciples brought up under their tuition, who have done service to their country."

either as warriors or as citizens! But *abundant* are the testimonies which have been registered at the gallows of her devoted victims, trained up to *these pursuits*." To the same purpose Mr. Brenner, the minister of Wokingham, observes, in a letter which he addressed to Dr. Barry: "For twenty years past I have watched the effects of bull-baiting, and unhappily have found it pernicious to the education, the religion, and the morals of the people whom I am appointed to instruct." In the same letter we are informed, that Dr. Barry's sermon produced no effect; but that the two bulls were baited the next day with as much ferocity as formerly.

ART. LXIV. *A Sermon on the Sin of Cruelty towards the Brute Creation; preached in the Abbey Church at Bath, on February 15th, 1801: by the Rev. LEIGH RICHMOND, A. M. of Trinity College, Cambridge, and Curate of the Parish of Brading, in the Isle of Wight.* 12mo. pp. 28.

THIS sermon, the object of which is similar to that of the preceding, was preached at an annual lecture, instituted by the Rev. Henry Brindley, of Lacock, Wilts, for the benevolent purpose of lessening the injuries and sufferings of the brute creation. The preacher considers cruelty to the inferior animals as the consequence of the fall, and humanity towards them as the effect of "recovery to a state of grace." Some, perhaps, may think that education is more concerned in this matter.

ART. LXV. *The Right and Duty of Unitarian Christians to form separate Societies for religious Worship. A Sermon preached July 22, 1802, at the Opening of the New Meeting-House at Birmingham, erected in the Room of that in which Dr. Priestley officiated, and which was destroyed in the Riots, July 14, 1791.* By THOMAS BELSHAM. 8vo. pp. 46.

THIS discourse is in every respect worthy of the occasion upon which it was delivered, and of the well-known character of the preacher. It is not more distinguished by large and liberal views than by the truly candid and Christian spirit which it breathes throughout, and while it vindicates with much ability, the right and duty of Unitarian Christians to separate from a Trinitarian

establishment, it cannot we think, it ought not we are sure, give any offence to those from whom such are here instructed to separate. Mr. Belsham's observations on ecclesiastical discipline, are peculiarly excellent, and will be gratifying to all our readers—to some perhaps useful;

"To me this controversy concerning ecclesiastical discipline has long appeared comparatively trivial. It is the glory of the christian religion, and a presumptive argument of its divine authority, and ultimate universality, that no form of church government, or ecclesiastical discipline, was ever prescribed as of universal and perpetual obligation upon the community of Christians. All who profess their faith in the divine mission of Jesus Christ, and who live in the expectation of a future life, founded upon the resurrection of their great master from the grave, are the acknowledged members of his visible church. And such persons are left at full liberty to regulate the external form of the religious societies of which they may be respectively members, as they may judge to be most expedient.

"If, therefore, one body of professing Christians judge it to be most conducive to christian edification to place the spiritual direction of their several societies in the hands of officers of different ranks and powers, rising in regular gradation, from the parish priest to the bishop of a diocese, and the metropolitan of a province, or a nation, there is nothing in this order of things which militates against any express precept or injunction of Christ; and while this form of ecclesiastical discipline is recommended upon the ground of expedience, as a human institution, and not imposed as of divine authority, and of indispensable obligation, it would in my apprehension constitute no sufficient ground for separation from a christian community.

"If another description of Christians should think it expedient, that the pastors of separate congregations should from time to time assemble to consult together for the benefit of their respective churches, and to form rules for their regular discipline; and if the members of those societies are willing to be so directed; if it should be further thought advisable that deputations from a certain number of these presbyteries should constitute a synod, and that the representatives of synods should form a general assembly, which should exercise a prudent superintendence over the subordinate meetings; there appears to be no substantial reason, and I am sure there is no scriptural obstacle, to prevent such persons from acting up to their judgment and conviction, and forming a system of ecclesiastical discipline in conformity to these views. It may in-



need have its use. It may, from local circumstances, be better adapted to some situations, and to some societies, than any other mode of church government would be. Let those who approve it, adopt it. They have a right to follow the dictates of their understandings in this instance: christianity is a law of liberty: but let them not impose upon the consciences of others, an institution of human wisdom as an ordinance of Christ.

"Further, if religious worship is regarded by any number of Christians as a business in which all ostentation is to be carefully avoided, and a modest simplicity is to be chiefly consulted; if under these impressions they form themselves into distinct societies, holding, indeed, communion with, but acknowledging no dependence upon, any other individual or society of Christians whatever; if they appoint their own officers and teachers, either from their own body, or from some approved school of learning, and place of previous education; and if they settle all the rituals of worship and forms of discipline amongst themselves, without recourse to any foreign arbitration: they have a right, as the disciples of Christ, standing fast in the liberty with which he has made them free, to act according to their own judgment and discretion in the case; and to pursue their own schemes without molestation, while they keep within the limits of the public peace. This seems to have been the original constitution of the apostolic churches, and was no doubt well adapted to the infant state of the Christian community; though it cannot be inferred that it was the intention of the founder of the Christian faith, that this simple form of ecclesiastical polity should be obligatory upon all the professors of the Christian religion to the end of time.

"Upon the whole, therefore, where any particular form of ecclesiastical discipline is not imposed as of divine authority, but simply proposed as a matter of expedience, I freely confess, that it would not with me be an argument of sufficient weight, to induce a separation from a national church: and the same observation is equally applicable to the use of unexceptionable liturgies, and public forms of prayer."

Mr. B. therefore justly considers the proper ground of dissent to be *diversity of sentiment, with regard to the object of worship*. The text is taken from 2 Cor. vi. 16, 18. And a well-composed prayer, used at the conclusion of the service, is annexed to the discourse.

ART. LXVI. *The Difficulties and Supports of a Gospel-Minister; and the Duties incumbent on a Christian Church: a Charge.* By JOHN RYLAND, D. D.:

and a Sermon. By JAMES HINTON: delivered November 17, 1802, at the Ordination of Thomas Cole, A. M. to the Pastoral Care of the Baptist Church at Bourton on the Water, Gloucestershire. 8vo. pp. 53.

THESE services are composed in the strain usually adopted on such occasions. Plainness and seriousness were the prevailing features by which they are distinguished, and to many they will undoubtedly be as acceptable in the form they here assume, as they were to those who were present at their performance.

ART. LXVII. *A Sermon preached in the Chapel of Gosport, on Sunday the 14th of February 1802, being the yearly Meeting of the Children educated at the Charity Schools in the Town of Gosport.* By EDMUND POULTER, M. A. Prebendary of Winchester. 8vo. pp. 40.

THE preacher in interpreting the word *charity* in his text, 1 Cor. xiii. 13. according to its vulgar acceptation, passes a high encomium, first upon charity in general, and secondly, upon that particular mode of it which is employed in providing instruction for the children of the poor. In a discourse, upon the whole well written, we were surprized to meet with the following passage: "If the rich, instead of rising with the occasion, *succumb* under it," &c. p. 27. We are no enemies to the enriching of our language by words drawn *Romano fonte*, when it can be done without offending the genius of our own tongue; but we must enter our protest against all such words as that before us, which is no less unnecessary, than displeasing to an ear of the least taste and discrimination.

ART. LXVIII. *St. Paul no Arian; or the End of the Mediatorial Kingdom: a Sermon preached on Sunday, the 25th of April 1802, in the Church of the United Parishes of St. Bennet, Gracechurch, and St. Leonard, Eastcheap.* By the Rev. JOHN WHITE MIDDLETON, M. A. 8vo. pp. 19.

IF this discourse was intended to be a public testimony to the preacher's zeal for orthodoxy, and his contempt, if not hatred, of all those who cannot believe every article in his creed; the object is certainly obtained: but if it was de-

signed to afford an exhibition of his talents, as an able interpreter of scripture, or of his prowess as a well-armed cham-

pion against the assaults of heresy, the attempt has completely failed. *Non tali auxilio.*

## PRACTICAL THEOLOGY.

**ART. LXIX.** *The Characters and Properties of True Charity displayed. Translated from the original French of FENELON, late Archbishop of Cambray, 12mo. pp. 298.*

"The learned and pious author," it is justly said in the preface, "examines in this work the characters of charity, as they are enumerated in the thirteenth chapter of the first epistle of St. Paul to the Corinthians: and he unfolds them in so untried, so new, and so clear a manner; that the reader is at a loss, whether more to admire the abundance of instructions contained in this book, or the sublimity of the thoughts and the nobleness of the style."

The following passage, while it serves as a specimen of this work, may convey some useful instruction:

"There are people whose outward conduct seems to be perfectly irreproachable, and whose exactness in the observance of all rites and ceremonies prescribed is so strict, that they may be proposed as models to others worthy of their imitation. But these so exact and punctual people are not always sufficiently fortified and guarded against a very dangerous temptation, which makes them look on all the slips of others as considerable faults, and on all their defects as unpardonable crimes. They observe every thing, and take particular notice of every thing. The least flaw raises their quickest

attention; and the smallest omission or oversight is immediately followed by their censure, either public or private. But it is to such St. Austin addresses his discourse on the 130th psalm, wherein he informs them, that they are themselves intolerable, whenever they cease to bear with others. *Non toleras!* saith he to them. How! do you take offence at every thing! Does every thing provoke you! *Quis te tolerabit?* with whom then will it be possible for you to live? And who will be able to bear a temper so averse to all mankind? a man so full of himself? so nicely difficult in dealing with others, so sharp-sighted in discovering the failings of his brethren, and so ready to pass a sentence upon them? *Quis te tolerabit?* A disposition thus opposite to patience and gentleness, is rather the result of pride, than of true zeal. Real virtue is never attended with this severity and rigour."

**ART. LXX.** *A circumstantial Narrative of the Stranding of a Margate Corn Hov, near the Village of Reculver, on the 7th of February 1802; written with a Design to improve a Catastrophe, as awful as it is unparalleled in the Maritime Annals of that Neighbourhood. Second Edition, with Additions. 12mo. pp. 47.*

The intention of this little tract is deserving of praise—we are sorry that it is not in our power to say the same of its execution.

## ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY AND CHURCH DISCIPLINE.

**ART. LXXI.** *Periodical Accounts relative to the Baptist Missionary Society, for propagating the Gospel among the Heathen. 8vo.*

WHAT missions have you undertaken to convert the heathen? is one of the questions which the Catholic asks the Protestant; and to this no satisfactory answer can be returned. As with the Romanists zeal fermented into persecution, so with us toleration has become indifference; they, in their ardour for the salvation of souls, perpetrated the most dreadful enormities that disgrace the history of man; we, with an apathy which religion does not sanction, and cannot excuse, behold the idolatrous crimes of nations whom we command, and make no effort to prevent them.

But, says the philosopher, if salvation be possible out of the pale of the church, wherefore propagate Christianity? Because the moral institutes of Christianity are calculated to produce the greatest possible good, individual and general; because it would root out polygamy, with its whole train of evils; because it would abolish human sacrifices, infanticide, and practices of self-torture; because it is a system best adapted for our happiness here as well as hereafter.

When the Portuguese had opened an immediate intercourse with India, a Jesuit of Navarre, whose spiritual con-

quests are little less wonderful than the victories of Albuquerque, or of Castro, began his missionary career. This was Francisco Xavier, one of Loyola's earliest disciples, since canonized and entitled the Apostle of the East. The converts whom he made within the line of the Portuguese territories, were probably influenced by the power of their European masters, and tempted by the hope of temporal and immediate advantage. These motives could not have operated in the distant regions which Xavier visited. The success with which he preached in Japan must have been the effect of his own personal exertions, and it required an obstinate and difficult war of forty years to extirpate from that country the seeds which he had sown. The effects of the Jesuit missions in the east have now almost wholly disappeared. The few descendants of their converts, who continue to profess Christianity, are despised by their countrymen, and not respected by the Europeans. We have succeeded to the empire of the Portuguese, and if they injured themselves by a zeal which was blind to their own interest, we are secure from any danger arising from that cause! They refused millions for an ape's tooth; if there were a demand for this article now, we should have manufactories of ape's teeth at Birmingham.

A sect of dissenters, neither numerous like the Methodists, nor powerful by their opulence like the Quakers, have undertaken to preach the gospel in Hindostan, a duty shamefully neglected by the church of England. This enterprize originated in an extraordinary man, who unites cool prudence and persevering talents to the zeal of an apostle. William Carey, till the age of 24, worked as a shoemaker. His religious disposition induced him to study the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages; in these he instructed himself, and has since become master of the Dutch, French, Portuguese, Bengalee, and Sanscrit. He is now settled in India, as a missionary, where he has translated the Bible into the Bengalee dialect, and printed it himself. This is a work of such magnitude, and such importance, that the origin and progress of the mission, where it has been executed, deserves to be minutely recorded.

At a meeting of Baptist ministers at Clipstone, in Northamptonshire, in 1791,

Carey proposed the question "whether it were not practicable, and our bounden duty, to attempt somewhat toward spreading the gospel in the heathen world?" He was desirous to draw up his thoughts on the subject, and publish them. Accordingly, in the beginning of the following year, he published "An Inquiry into the Obligations of Christians to use Means for the Conversion of the Heathens; in which the religious state of the different nations of the world, the success of former undertakings, and the practicability of further undertakings, are considered." There is nothing enthusiastic or declamatory in this pamphlet. After sketching the history of former conversions, and attempts at conversion, he draws out tables of the religious state of the world, and sums up the result thus:—"The inhabitants of the world, according to this calculation, amount to about 731,000,000; 420,000,000 of whom are still in Pagan darkness; 130,000,000 the followers of Mahomet; 100,000,000 Catholics; 44,000,000 Protestants; 30,000,000 of the Greek and Armenian churches; and, perhaps, 7,000,000 of Jews. It must, undoubtedly, strike every considerate mind, what a vast proportion of the sons of Adam there is who yet remain in the most deplorable state of heathen darkness, without any means of knowing the true God, except what are afforded them by the works of Nature, and utterly destitute of the knowledge of the gospel of Christ, or of any means of obtaining it. In many of these countries they have no written language, consequently no Bible, and are only led by the most childish customs and traditions. Such, for instance, are all the middle and back parts of North America, the inland parts of South America, the South Sea Islands, New Holland, New Zealand, New Guinea, and I may add Great Tartary, Siberia, Samojedia, and the other parts of Asia contiguous to the Frozen Sea: the greatest part of Africa, the island of Madagascar, and many places beside. In many of these parts also they are cannibals, feeding upon the flesh of their slain enemies with the greatest brutality and eagerness. The truth of this was ascertained beyond a doubt, by the late eminent navigator Cook, of the New Zealanders, and some of the inhabitants of the western coast of America. Hu-

man sacrifices are also very frequently offered, so that scarce a week elapses without instances of this kind. They are in general poor, barbarous, naked Pagans, as destitute of civilization as they are of true religion.\*

It is, indeed, a melancholy consideration, to reflect, within how small a circle the comforts and advantages of civilized society are included! Carey's book produced a considerable effect; by the world it was scarcely heard of, but it circulated among the members of his own society. He preached to them also upon "lengthening our cords, and strengthening our stakes;" and pressed upon them the expediency of expecting great things, and attempting great things. At the ministers' meeting at Kettering, in October 1792, an association was formed, under the title of the Particular Baptist Society, for propagating the gospel among the Heathen, and 13l. 2s. 6d. subscribed as the commencement of a fund for converting the natives of Hindostan!

At this period Carey opened a correspondence with Mr. Thomas, who had been a surgeon of an Indiaman, and was now endeavouring to establish a fund in London for a mission to Bengal. By his own account he had been greatly troubled in mind, but a state of faith and religious hope had succeeded this struggle. He had found a few "serious people" on his first visit to India. On his return to England he was baptised, and then went out a second time in the same capacity, and remained in the country to learn the language, and preach the gospel. What he related of the disposition of the natives was encouraging; many were in the habit of reading the Bible, for they had Matthew, Mark, James, some part of Genesis, and the Psalms, with part of the prophecies, in Bengalee manuscript. A Bramin, by name Mohun Chund, had been one of his hearers, and had talked with him on the subject: one day he asked the preacher this question, "Sir, when a man prays to God, how many days is it before he gets an answer?" Mr. Thomas's conversation so impressed him, that he neglected the ceremonies of his own religion, and was in danger of losing cast, the worst disgrace, and

heaviest calamity, that can befall a Hindoo.

When two of equal cast meet together, it is a ceremony of friendship for the master of the house to offer the visitor his hookah: when Mohun Chund did this to Parbotee, a Bramin of higher rank than himself, Parbotee emptied the water out of it, an action which was to precede the loss of cast. Chund was exceedingly alarmed at this, but to his infinite surprise he was roused up at two o'clock the following morning by this very Parbotee, who had been terrified in a dream, and came to him to hear the gospel. The effects of this dream were visible on his body and mind for several days. Mr. Thomas was called in to him, and has recorded some very striking and affecting expressions of this Bramin in prayer. "I performed the rites of the Ganges, I called this *good*. I worshipped wood and stone, I called this *good*. I heard the shasters of men that are all false and vain; I called this *good*. Lord! I am a most wretched creature to this day: I know nothing—nothing! Save me, oh, save me! Give, give, O Lord, give me to know Hell what? Heaven what? Without the blood of Christ I shall never be saved; without the flesh of Christ I shall never live; Lord what is the meaning of this? I know not what it is. How can I get the blood of Christ? Oh, teach me; I will do any thing thou sayest. Cast, what? Home, what? Friends, what? Life, what? What is any thing? All is nothing but thee!"

Besides Parbotee, Mr. Thomas had converted Ram Ram Boshoo, one of the writer cast, who had been his teacher in the language.

Thomas remained five years and a half in the country. On his return to England he brought with him a letter from Parbotee and Boshoo, to one of the Baptist ministers, requesting him to send *ootum*\* people into the country, to preach the gospel, and translate the word. "Oh, great sir!" say they, in this letter, "though we thought that many nations had many kinds of *shasters*, yet in the country of the English we thought there was no *shaster* at all, for concerning sin and holiness those who are here have no judgment at all. We

\* They say there are three sorts of men in the world, the *ootum*, *muddhum*, and *oddhum*, that is the best, middling, and worst.

*have even thought that they were not men, but a kind of other creatures, like devourers."*

With this extraordinary invitation Mr. Thomas brought information that a mission to Bengal would be neither expensive nor dangerous. He himself had, by his preaching, offended many Hindoos of considerable authority, yet he lived within a mile of them, in a lonely house, with his windows and doors wide open all night, without sword or fire-arms, and free from the smallest apprehension of danger. For eighteen shillings a missionary might build an excellent house, with mud walls and straw covering. Near Malda, where he had resided, hogs, deer, and sheep, were half-a-crown each, and thirty fowls sold for the same price. Europeans who will have splendid luxuries must pay dearly for them, but men, who both by wisdom and principle were temperate and frugal, would find Bengal a cheap country.

In consequence of this information, Mr. Thomas was engaged by the society as a missionary, and Carey prepared to accompany him. Cheap as the country is, the stipend allowed to them was rather adapted to the funds of the association than the wants of the missionaries; both went out with families, and they were allowed 150*l.* yearly between them; but 20*l.* was added to Carey's portion in consideration of his larger household. 40*l.* was allowed for the expence of a munshee, or teacher of the language. A farewell sermon was preached to them by Andrew Fuller, the well-known Calvinist, who said to them, with that quaint application of scriptural language so common among sectaries, "Does Christ ride forth as on a white horse, in righteousness judging and making war? Ye are called, like the rest of the armies of heaven, *to follow him on white horses*, that India may be conquered by his truth."

When the missionaries arrived at Calcutta, they found that Ram Boshoo, the interpreter, had returned to his idolatry. The poor wretch, after Thomas's departure, had been deserted by the English, and persecuted by his own countrymen. The natives gathered in bodies, and threw dust in the air as he passed along the streets; he was seized with a flux and fever: "In this state I had nothing," said he, "to support myself or my family, a relation offered to

save me from perishing for want of necessities, on condition of my bowing to the idol. I knew that the Roman Catholic Christians worshipped idols; I thought they might be commanded to honour images in some part of the Bible which I had not seen." The missionaries took a few acres at Hashnabad, about forty miles east of Calcutta. An English gentleman generously offered them his house, till their own was finished, the walls of which were to be mats fastened to wooden posts, and the roof formed of bamboos, and thatched. The interpreter, though he had thus fallen off, was still a useful friend, and expressed his inclination to be a Christian. He spoke of the missionaries in such a manner as to induce 4 or 500 families to resolve upon coming to reside near them. European protection was, perhaps, a strong inducement, for that country had been almost deserted on account of the tygers, as the natives do not fear them when Europeans are near with fire arms. They both wrote in high spirits to the society; they had begun the translation, and Thomas expressed his joy that he was so near a flock of black sheep. With this information the society concluded the first number of their periodical accounts.

The missionaries, as might have been expected, were soon embarrassed for money, and Thomas took a house at Calcutta, designing to practise surgery. Fortunately at this time an Englishman, who was his friend, had begun to erect two manufactories, and he invited the two preachers to superintend them. This offer they immediately accepted. The situation of their new residence was in the district of Dinagepore, not very far from the frontiers of Tibet. The two manufactories were sixteen miles apart. Upon this they wrote to inform the society that they could subsist without further assistance, and to request that what had been designed for their wants might be appropriated to some other mission. They resolved also each to educate twelve children, six Hindoo, the other six Mahomedan, for seven years, and to provide them with meat, clothing, and lodging. The translation was in hand, and they sent over specimens of the Bengalee letter, that types might be cast in England. Carey had lost one of his children by a disease, the effect of the climate. It was with difficulty that



Mahomedans could be found to dig a grave for the child, for even the Mahomedans call themselves a cast, and are the slaves of this prejudice. The father and mother imagined that they should themselves have been obliged to carry the body to the grave. No progress had been made in converting the natives; indeed the missionaries had not been settled long enough, but they expressed a belief that there was a *stirring among the dry bones*. The character which they give of the Hindoos is less favourable than the usual accounts, and probably more accurate; lying, deceit, and servility, are the vices of an enslaved people, the inevitable effects of oppression; we were more surprised to hear them accused of cruelty to animals. Much as they venerate the cow, great numbers of cows are annually starved to death in the dry season, merely through the avarice and neglect of their owners. Of their moral qualities the missionaries may be considered as adequate and impartial judges; but it is no proof of the confusion of ideas in the natives, that they have no settled notions respecting heaven and hell, that one of them supposed those who went to hell would be used like the people in Dinagepore jail.

The third number brings down the affairs of the mission to the beginning of 1796. Carey was now sufficiently conversant with the language; his translations, indeed, were more easily understood than those of his interpreter, who wrote a purer dialect.

"As to what respects myself," he says, "I have but little to say. It was always my opinion, that missions may and must support themselves, after having been sent out, and received a little support at first; and in consequence I pursue a very little worldly employment, which requires three months clostish attendance in the year; but this is in the rains, the most unfavourable season for exertion. I have a district of about twenty miles square, where I am continually going from village to village to publish the gospel; and in this space are about 200 villages, whose inhabitants from time to time hear the word. My manner of travelling is with two small boats; one serves me to live in, and the other for cooking my food. I carry all my furniture and food with me from place to place; viz. a chair, a table, a bed, and a lamp. I walk from village to village, but repair to my boat for lodging and eating. There are several rivers in this extent of country, which is very convenient

for travelling. Sometimes we travel to other parts, and may now, perhaps, travel much more than we have done heretofore. Success is not conspicuous, but hope continues."

"Never," says Thomas, "was a people more willing to hear, never a people more slow to understand."

Ram Boshoo, the interpreter, of whom such hopes had been entertained, was convicted of adultery, and dismissed from Carey's service. This was a serious evil, and Carey found himself unable to support the school which he had undertaken; he and his colleague, however, were nothing dispirited; they continued their great work, and earnestly entreated the society to send out more missionaries, lest they should die, and their labours thus be lost. Another missionary, by name Fountain, was at this time on his way. The picture of the natives is horrible; the institution of casts has polluted and poisoned their feelings. "Do not," says Thomas, "send men of any compassion here, for you will break their hearts. This country abounds with misery. I have found the path-way stopped up by sick and wounded people, perishing with hunger, and that in a populous neighbourhood, where numbers pass by, some singing, others talking, but none shewing mercy, as though they were dying weeds, and not dying men!" The following shocking narrative will shew some of the effects of this cursed institution:

"My heart aches just now with a case which is full of human misery. I will tell you the whole of it. A few days ago a young woman came to my door, who complained of being very ill. She had come twelve or fourteen miles, by degrees, from the city of Dinagepour, to ask relief of me. I saw her bloated in the face and hands, as though she had that sort of dropsy called anasarca. I understood she had a fever, with a variety of other diseases and pains. She also told me that she had nothing to eat, and no home to go to. I gave her what she wanted, and in two or three days she seemed much better. About three days ago I was riding out, and she called to me, and seemed in a more languishing way than before. I found her house, or hut, was too cold, and I rode up to another, where a crippled Mussulman and all his family are living on what little they get from me: I begged them to let this poor creature come in to sleep, as the nights are cold; but they said no, she was not a Mahomedan; and if she came in they must turn out. I thought she had been a Mahomedan, and I rode back and asked her, 'Are you a Maho-

medan?' 'No.' 'A Hindoo?' 'No.' 'What are you then?' 'I am,' said she, with inexpressible anguish, 'the child of a common prostitute.' I now pitied her more than ever, knowing that no native of this country would pity or relieve her, in her complicated distress, because she was of *no cast*. I then told the family that her distress was the greatest, and they must remove into some of the more distant houses, and she must be admitted immediately, as the day was far gone; so they parted off one end of the house, and let her come in; but I found she could not rise, and on inquiry learned that she had dreadful sores of a venereal kind, which she had too much modesty left to mention. I got her removed; and sent her a coarse cloth; and as she was of no cast, she gladly partook of food which was dressed by us: so I sent her some fowl, and chicken broth, and Mrs. Thomas and Mrs. Carey visited her, and acquainted me more particularly with her situation. The evening before the last, she complained of cold, and I sent her some warm broth, and a person to make her a fire; I thought she could hardly survive the night, and the first word I heard the next morning was 'the poor woman is dead.' My whole body and mind are affected with her miseries, and these were temporary; alas! where is her poor soul? Why, I dare say, in a far more tolerable state than mine would be, if I departed this moment, and had no CHRIST!

"Yesterday morning I called a Mahomedan, and told him this poor woman must be buried, and I committed the burial to him, and told him I would pay whatever charges were necessary; he said very well, and went out; but soon returned, saying, that no Mussulman would bury her, because she was not of their religion. I then sent him out among the lowest of the Hindoos, and they also refused. At last one man, whose office is something like a nightman's in England, undertook it, on condition of being well paid for it: but in a little time this same man came back, refusing to dig a grave for her; for if he did, nobody would eat or drink with him, and (low as it was) he should lose his cast. He wanted to have her thrown into a pond just by, or into the next field, where the jackals might devour her in the night; however, at last I prevailed; a grave was dug, and she was buried, and I have secured the man his cast; but had it been an European, unacquainted with the customs and manners of this people, the body must have remained where it was, and being in a house, the jackals would not soon have devoured it, and the most serious consequences to others might have ensued."

In 1797, Carey was enabled to resume his school. Both he and Thomas, like the primitive Christians, had renounced all ideas of accumulation,

and whatever could be spared from their own wants, was devoted to the service of the mission. The unavoidable expences of the country, he thus explains in a letter to his father.

"As you observe, provisions are cheap, but the number of servants which it is necessary to keep, makes living here much dearer than in England. I am obliged to keep two millers in my own family, for two persons are required in "grinding at the mill," which is turned by the hand, and the "women" here are chiefly employed in this business. Matt. 24. 41. I also keep a baker, and a man to procure *toddy*, which we use instead of yeast. *Toddy* is the sap of the date tree, and we get it from one, two, three, or more miles distant. Also I keep a *cook*; a *khansaman*, viz. a kind of butler; a *matron*, viz. a cleaner; and two *bearers*, who clean furniture, carry a *chatta*, &c. It employs one man to go about the country to buy provisions, which are often brought from the distance of twenty miles; another man to keep the poultry; another to keep the cows; another the hogs; and another to attend the horse: for one man will not do all these things, or any two of them. I am also obliged to keep a washerman; a Bramhàn to teach me the language; a school-master whom I employ to teach the native children in the neighbourhood; and several gardeners: so that though all necessities do not cost above fifty rupees per month, yet servants cost more than a hundred, and yet I have fewer than most other people have."

The prospect now was opening upon them. Thomas and Carey went to the frontiers of Thibet, or Bootan as they call it, where they preached, and were received with exceeding courtesy by the Soobah. A Portuguese catholic of the city of Dinagepour, invited them to preach the gospel there, and became a convert. A correspondence was begun with the Moravian missionaries on the Malabar coast. The most curious article in the number, is the queries proposed by Raje Keeshore of Dinagepour, to the missionaries.

"Now the gospel is come into this country by the *Sahib Padres*, I wish for answers to these questions:

*Question 1.* God is the creator of the world, and he has made all living creatures that are upon the earth; and no one else preserves and governs them all. 'He is the musician, and all living creatures the instrument. As he plays on it, so it gives forth the tune. If thus, wherefore are the creatures sent to hell to suffer for it?

"*Q. 2.* Besides God there is no one. He is eternally the same. He has created man,

beast, bird, and insect. The Lord is very compassionate over all: his favour extends equally to all. Having known this, yet when the creatures are eaten, or destroyed, or in any manner injured, will the punishment of this murder fall on the perpetrator or not?

"Q. 3. This supreme Lord has created all living creatures in the world: all are his creatures. If parents have many children, all equally obtain favour: yet amongst men some are rich, others poor: Wherefore?"

"Q. 4. The worshippers or lovers of God, after death, will they come again into this world, or where will they go?"

"Q. 5. God created four things, viz; *life, water, air, and earth*. Besides there is *fire*, which is not in the body. Animals, body, and spirit, are made from these. At death these all return to their primitive like: if so, what dies?"

"Q. 6. Under and all sides of the earth is water, and it swims on water: How then is it stedfast? and sometimes earthquakes happen: why?"

"Q. 7. I have heard of heaven and hell; are they within the earth or without?"

"Q. 8. What place is best for God's worship: that where many people assemble, or solitude, viz. inaccessible places?"

"Q. 9. Will the world always remain in its present state, or will it be destroyed?"

"Q. 10. Is it best to worship God by fastings, penances, and macerations; or by eating and drinking, and enjoying ease?"

Meantime the society in England were raising funds to print the translation of the New Testament, and endeavouring to obtain more missionaries. One they had found, Mr. Ward, who having been a printer, was calculated at this juncture to be peculiarly useful. Carey had some slight acquaintance with him, and had said to him, when he himself was about to depart, "If the Lord bless us, we shall want a person of your business to enable us to print the scriptures; I hope you will come after us." This speech seems to have worked in Ward's mind.

The letters received in 1798, and the early part of the following year, were sufficiently encouraging, as the society did not look for the miraculous rapidity of Catholic conversions. Thomas's skill in surgery had made him extensively known; and the bodily and immediate good which he thus rendered, procured him much respect and good will. Carey had now near forty children, of different ages, under his care. He had purchased a press, and the translation of the whole scriptures was now almost

completed. As yet they had made no native convert. "I sometimes think," says Carey, "we may be like pioneers, to prepare the way for some more laborious and successful ministers." "Though the Lord's house is not built," says his fellow labourer, "yet a great deal of rubbish is removed, and the way of the Lord, by all these means, is prepared: his paths are making straight, and we expect him to come."

In May 1799, three other missionaries, Brunson, Grant, and Marshman, embarked with Ward.

The new missionaries landed at Serampore, a Danish town, fifteen miles from Calcutta. A few days after their landing Grant died. The manufactories in which Carey and Thomas had been employed, had been given up in consequence of the failure of the indigo crops. Carey had taken a small factory for himself in the neighbourhood, but though he had made all possible interest, *he could not obtain leave for these new missionaries to settle in the British territory.* It was necessary that they should be all in one place, for the great work of printing the translation. Carey therefore gave up his new establishment, a loss of five hundred pounds, and went to join his associates at Serampore, where the governor permitted them to settle, and encouraged them in a manner becoming a European and a Christian.

Ram Boshoo, the old interpreter, here found them out, and was again a useful helpmate. They printed many smaller religious tracts, and distributed them with a success that alarmed and offended the Bramins. That they should be offended, indeed, is not surprising. When Carey was asked, where he thought they came from, he replied, "That God created man, but when man sinned, the devil became lord of the world, and he made the Bramins, and then the Bramins made the shasters for their own profit." In the summer of 1800, Fountain died. This was a serious loss to the society. He was a young man of great ardour, and had now become master of the language. A lady to whom he had been attached in England, went out with the last missionaries, to marry him: she is now the mother of a fatherless child, in a strange land.

The removal to Serampore was in every respect fortunate. The mission-

aries derived respectability from the countenance of the Europeans; and the governor protected the natives who had incurred the resentment of their relations by forsaking their own religion. A school was set up to increase their resources. This was under Marshman's direction. His wife also undertook the care of a school for girls: and Carey was appointed, by Marquis Wellesley, to an important station in the New College at Fort William, an appointment the more honourable, as it was not solicited. His whole emoluments from this, he appropriated to the missionary stock; but this college has since been suppressed by the Directors at home. Several of the natives have now been converted, and baptized after the manner of the Baptist church. The New Testament has been distributed among the people, and some progress made in printing the Old. Carey has written a Sanscreeet grammar, and begun a dictionary of the same language. If he can procure the *Vedas*, he thinks of publishing them, that the people themselves may see what none but the Bramins have hitherto been permitted to inspect. Carey's eldest son has been appointed a missionary, at an age somewhat premature indeed, but he has his father's example, and the peculiar advantage of having been taught to speak the language in his childhood. Two other of the brethren are dead; Brunsdon, whose ill health had never permitted him to be of much utility, and Thomas, an active and able man, whose loss will not be easily supplied. One young associate is on his way to join them. The subscription for printing the Bible was encouraged in Bengal: and a sum of 1200*l.* a year has been almost subscribed there, for the foundation and support of a school for the board, clothing, and instruction, of twenty native youths, either children of Christian parents, or of such who are willing to lose cast. Such was the state of the mission in April 1802, when the last advices were dated. Meantime the funds of the society at home are in a flourishing state.

It is evident that the obstacles to this attempt are many, and such as cannot soon or easily be surmounted. The system of cast is the first.

"Its effects," says Carey, "in debasing

the mind, and brutalizing the soul, can scarcely be conceived. On account of this unnatural distinction of classes among men, all motives to exertion, enquiry, or mental improvement, are cut off: for the most honourable actions, the most beneficial discoveries, or virtuous conduct, would secure no honour or advantage to a person of a low cast: and those of a higher cast being universally revered as a sort of half divinities, lose no reputation by their being ignorant or vicious. The consequence is, a stupid contentment to remain as they are; a total want of curiosity; and not a thought about the improvement of the mind. Harmless, indifferent, and vacant, they plod on in the path of their forefathers; and even truths in philosophy, geography, astronomy, or any other science, if out of their beaten track, make no more impression on their minds than the sublimer truths of religion. They suppose the different casts to be distinct species of animals, and therefore conclude, that it is as possible for them to become some other kind of animal, as to become Christians: and that the different forms of worship and habits of life, observed by particular casts, are as necessary to that cast, as eating grass is to the support of an ox, or flesh to the maintenance of a tyger."

This obstacle, however, great as it is, is not insuperable: it yielded to his perseverance and ability, whoever he was, who converted the Christians of St. Thomas, it yielded to the zeal of the Portuguese conquerors. The converts whom Xavier and his fellow labourers baptised by scores or hundreds in a day, assuredly could know nothing of the religion which they consented to profess, but they did not the less lose cast by professing it. Here the civil power might very materially assist the missionaries, by favouring and employing the converted natives; but from the oligarchy of English merchants, what is to be hoped? Christianity will neither extend their conquests in Hindostan, nor increase their sales at the India House. The priests of Kalle, at her great temple, told Ward, that many Englishmen made offerings of rupees to their goddess; and that even one of the former governors used to go every Sunday to worship her; and that *the English now gave sixty rupees a year to their idol*. We hope and trust that this was falsely asserted by the Bramins, that the system of conciliating the natives has never induced Englishmen and Christians openly to encourage so detestable an idolatry. Such conduct

would be consistent in those rulers who are atheists one year, and mahomedans the next, and catholics the third; but Englishmen have yet some character, and some honour, and some decency to support.

It is, however, in the power of individuals, in this instance, to do what the government will neglect or disapprove. The funds of the society were raised by private contributions in England. Private contributions in Bengal, have established the school at Serampore. If the individuals in India who approve the mission, encourage and employ the converts to the best of their power, the loss of cast will become a trifling evil. It must be their care, that the baptized Hindoos suffer as little loss as possible in their immediate interests, and that no man be reduced to want and physical distress, because he has professed Christianity. Christianity itself may be represented as a cast. The natives are said to believe that it is written in their shasters, that *all shall one day be of one cast*; and some of them begin to ask, if their cast will not be that of the English, whose *shaster* is now come among them. Mr. Maurice can never make the Trimourtee prove the Trinity; but it is an advantage, that, in the language of the Hindoos, the Bible must be called a *shaster*, and the incarnation of the Son, or word, or spirit of God, an *avatar*.

The opposition of the Bramins is less formidable. Pride and self-interest provoke them to oppose the progress of a hostile religion. By their own laws they have the power to fine those of any other tribe, for those trifling actions which are considered as sins, either of omission or commission, in their code of superstitious morality. These fines they have been forbidden to levy; but positive law extends not to the mind, and the people still pay this tribute under the name of atonements. But the interest of a particular body, though it always has opposed, and always will oppose the progress of truth, never has been, and never will be able to prevent it. The priests of a conquered people have no power to persecute: the efficacious arguments of fire and sword, are not at their disposal: they must appeal to public opinion, to the prejudices, and passions, and reason, of their countrymen. If in this dispute the Bramin should have the advantage over the

missionary, it must be owing to the weakness of the advocate, not of the cause.

There are rivers from the east, west, north, and south, said a Bramin to one of these preachers, but they all meet in the sea: so there are many ways among men, but all lead to God. This is the stumbling block! This tolerating principle accords too well with the common feelings, and common sense of human nature, to be easily overthrown. It was forcibly said by the *worthy*, old Fuller, "of such as deny, that formerly we had in our churches all truth necessary to salvation, I ask Joseph's question to his brethren, *Is your father well? the old man—is he yet alive?* So, how fare the souls of their sires and the ghosts of their grandfathers? are they yet alive? do they still survive in bliss, in happiness? Oh no! they are dead; dead in soul, dead in body, dead temporally, dead eternally, dead and damned; if so be, we had not all truth necessary to salvation before their time." He who preaches that salvation is exclusively confined to those who believe as he believes, will necessarily provoke this thought. There is an instinctive reason in us which gives the lie to such a doctrine, as instantaneously and as certainly as we reject the idealism of Berkeley, or the proposition that two and two make five.

The fatalism of the natives is another obstacle.

"The Hindoos most generally believe themselves to be a sort of machines, which God acts upon in a physical manner, and that they are not accountable for their own actions. If a man be detected in thieving, or charged with murder, he will generally answer that his *kepal*, or forehead, is bad. By this they mean, that they were destined by God to commit such crimes: for it is a common opinion among the Hindoos, that the fate of every man is written in his forehead; and including in that opinion all moral actions, as well as their providential situations, they conclude, that all their actions are chargeable on God, and not on themselves. This doctrine is almost constantly avowed when we attempt to press on them the sinfulness of sin, and the guilt of their conduct. In a conversation which I had with a man some time ago, on this subject, he roundly asserted, that he had never committed a sin in his life; for though many of his actions were unjustifiable, yet it was not he that committed them, but God. This notion prevails amongst them almost



universally; and to clear themselves of the inconsistency of charging sin upon a holy God, which I have often pressed them with, they say, that no act of God's can be sinful, though ever so great an enormity if committed by a man. In this way they clear their deities of sin, though their own shasters represent them as occasionally guilty of falsehood, and every atrocity."

One of the Hindoos asserted to Carey, that sin was as necessary as holiness, for that God had made hell as well as heaven. Carey replied, that there was a prison in Serampore, but it was not therefore necessary that he and others should commit robberies in order to fill it. Another argued, that every one would be saved by attending to the religion of his own country. The missionary answered, "you know there is but one God, and that he is of one mind: how then can he appoint one way for you, and the opposite for me?" "The fruit of both is the same." "You see there is a soozeena tree and a mango tree, now you may as well convince me that the fruit of these two trees is the same." This silenced the Bramin. But Carey was once told, in answer to such an analogy, that a tree would bring forth the fruit it was *intended* to produce. A predestinarian cannot easily parry such thrusts, nor convince a pagan fatalist by Jonathan Edwards's proofs of the usefulness of hell and damnation.

The zeal and the sincerity, and the abilities of these missionaries, cannot be questioned; but it is mortifying to observe their abject prostration of intellect to the dogmas of a miserable and mischievous superstition. Ward attributes all the vices of the Hindoos to antinomianism, and their disbelief in the eternity of hell torments. Fountain says he had pretty strong convictions of sin and remorse of conscience when he was about eight or nine years old; and that the book which expanded his mind was Hervey's Meditations. Even Carey talks of having "some sweetness" in reading a sermon: tells us that he was enabled to *roll* his soul and all his cares upon God: and in another place, mourns over the *leanness* of his own soul; for in Hindostan there is not that danger which the missionaries in Otaheite dreaded, that *their souls might wax fat like Jesurun, and kick*. "If it were not for my engagement in the mission," says Thomas

in a letter to a relation, "I would come to Old England to-morrow, and kiss the ground I trod on, and water it with tears of joy, as the glory of all lands." There is a feeling and a heroism in this language which makes us love and reverence the man. But what must the religion be which can make such a man employed in such a duty, feel "like one against whom the heavens above and the earth beneath were at war? As one deprived of all earthly comfort, "cast down," sunk in a horrible pit; whose spirits were dried up; who was religiously deserted?" At their school at Serampore, they tell us there was a considerable stir among the scholars; and they give this prayer by one of the boys, who was under considerable concern:

"Oh Lord, the day of judgment is coming: the sun, and moon, and stars, will all fall down. Oh, what shall I do in the day of judgment! Thou wilt break me to pieces [literal]. The Lord Jesus Christ was so good as to die for us poor souls: Lord keep us all this day! Oh hell! Gnashing, and beating, and beating! One hour weeping, another gnashing! We shall stay there for ever! I am going to hell! Oh Lord, give me a new heart, give me a new heart, and wash away all my sins! Give me a new heart, that I may praise him, that I may obey him, that I may speak the truth, that I may never do evil things! Oh, I have many times sinned against thee, many times broken the commandments, oh many times; and what shall I do in the day of judgment!"

(Soliloquy). "Dives, when he died, fell into eternal fire: so Lazarus said, 'You in your life time had so many good things; and Lazarus, poor thing, had nothing. Did you hear what Mr. Ward said? That way you must never forsake. You must love God better than father and mother, better than sister and brother, and better than any of your generation. Do not curse. Do not lie. Oh what a great thing it is! They that will go to heaven: what a happy thing it is!'"

"Many other sweet and hopeful expressions were uttered by this lad, with a plaintive and affecting voice. He has an abscess on his thigh, and keeps his bed; but he did not mention any thing of his affliction."

Poor child! sick in bed, and to be encouraged in this dreadful delirium! This is, indeed, a religion for which bedlams, as well as meeting-houses, should be erected. If the mission to Hindostan were connected with nothing but the propagation of such a faith, we should hope the natives would continue

to worship Veeshnoo, and Seeva, rather than the demon whom Calvin has set up!

The Jesuits were satisfied if they could make the eastern or the American idolaters profess Christianity, and submit to baptism. Their missionaries might sometimes be zealots or fanatics; but they who directed the order were cool-headed, thinking men, who proceeded upon system and calculation. The baptist missionaries are too scrupulous in admitting converts. There is little danger as yet, that any will lose cast for mercenary motives; even if that were the case, they should remember that the religion which the parents might profess only for lucre, would, by education and habit, become the faith of the children. It is not enough that a Hindoo is convinced of the falsehood of his own shasters, and the divine truths of Christianity, he must show that he has had *grace*, that he has experienced the *call*, the *new birth*. Alas! they need not heap these thorns and brambles in the way to the strait gate!

They should dwell upon the great and obvious temporal advantages of Christianity; for even the Christianity which they preach holds out this inducement.

"A certain man, on the Malabar coast, had inquired of various devotees and priests, how he might make atonement for his sin; and at last he was directed to drive iron spikes, sufficiently blunted, through his sandals; and on these spikes he was to place his naked feet, and walk (if I mistake not) 250 coss, that is about 480 miles. If through loss of blood, or weakness of body, he was obliged to halt, he might wait for healing and strength. He undertook the journey, and while he halted under a large shady tree, where the gospel was sometimes preached, one of the missionaries came, and preached in his hearing, from these words, "The blood of Jesus Christ cleanseth from all sin." While he was preaching, the man rose up, threw off his torturing sandals, and cried out aloud, "This is what I want;" and he became a lively witness, that the blood of Jesus Christ does cleanse from all sins indeed."

This conversion, which was effected by one of the Moravian missionaries, should be the great lesson for the preachers of the gospel in India. The practices of religious self-torture in that country are dreadful. One method is this; a man passes threads through each of his sides in six places, and the threads

being thirty yards long, and fixed at both ends, the devotee dances along these setons. Another method is running a long iron skewer through the tongue,

"April 8, 1794. This day the horrid custom of *self-tormenting* among the natives begun. A machine was constructed of bamboos, perhaps above twenty feet high, from which they precipitate themselves upon iron spikes, which run into their breasts, or any other part. I did not know of this horrid transaction till it was over, and therefore had not an opportunity of seeing it; but the servants came and told us, and my eldest son-in-law.

"9. To-day self-tormenting was carried to a greater length than yesterday. A number of people came near to our gate with drums and dancing; when presently a man had two pieces of bamboo, of twenty feet long, and each as thick as a man's finger, these were passed through his sides, and held at each end by two men; while he danced backwards and forwards in a manner almost frantic, but seemingly insensible to pain. To prevent the violent heat arising from the rubbing of the bamboo in the wounds, a man stood to throw water continually upon his sides. This mad practice was continued for an hour at least; and several others, with long spits run through their tongues, which they were continually drawing up and down, stood dancing by his side, to the sound of their horrid music. This was continued through the whole day.

"10. To-day the mode of their execrable self-torturing was varied. A large pole was erected, and a bamboo fixed across upon the top, and the poor wretches practised *swinging* by hooks fixed in the back. I went out to see it, and a man, dressed in a blue cloth like a petticoat, suspended about the height of twenty feet, was swinging rapidly round; presently they stopped turning the machine, and asked him to come down, which he refused, and insisted upon being whirled round again. I suppose he was thus suspended for half an hour, during which time his looks were perfectly placid and serene, and he rattled a few twigs tied up in a bunch: he then set his feet upon the top of three bamboos. When the cord was unloosed, he descended, with the hooks in his back, and came just before me, to shew me how they were fastened: when they were drawn out, a man placed his two knees against the wounds, and holding them over the breast, pushed the wounds with his knees, in such a manner as almost to dislocate the shoulder-blades: a leaf or two being then applied to them. The hooks were then fixed in another, who ascended the ladder where the cord was fastened, and he underwent the same operation."

Where practices like these prevail, the missionaries should insist upon the

easier terms of salvation which Christianity proposes: no Hindoo, however deficient in comprehension, but can understand that the new religion offers him a better bargain.

One day when Carey and Thomas were riding out, they saw a basket hung in a tree, and examining it, found that it contained the bones of an infant; the ants had eaten the rest. If a new-born child will not take the breast, they expose it in this manner. Women often make a vow, that if the river goddess Ganga will bestow upon them two children, they will present one to her. The number of infants thus sacrificed we have no means of conjecturing; but wherever infanticide is permitted among an oppressed people, we know it must be common. The widows in Hindostan who burn themselves with the bodies of their husbands are said to be annually about 80,000.

These are evils which the English government might and ought to check; but which can only be destroyed by the destruction of the cursed superstition which recommends them as duties. But these are trifling evils, compared to the system of casts. These are only the fruits of the Upas; and that institution is the root of the poison tree. In what manner force and fraud established so detestable and ruinous a system, is, and perhaps will be for ever unknown: but this system it is which, for so many centuries, has prevented all possibility of improvement in Hindostan; for this Christianity is the certain and effectual, and only remedy. As yet these missionaries have done little as to actually

converting the natives; but in translating and publishing the scriptures, they have smoothed the way for other labourers. It remains for the church of England to exert itself and send labourers into the vineyard; but individuals must not mean time neglect their own duty. We are too prone to expect every thing from national measures, from public institutions, and positive laws, undervaluing the importance of individual conduct. Whether or not the established church of England will come forward, as an establishment, to exert itself, and spread the gospel in the British territories, let the members of that church recollect that the work is begun, and that their contributions will materially assist it.

We have purposely omitted the extraneous matter contained in these periodical accounts; the history of an unsuccessful mission to Sierra Leona, and their resolutions respecting village preaching. The society have acted very wisely in confining their attention to one object, and attempting to introduce Christianity where its want is most grievous, and its success most probable. On the style and arrangement of these numbers it is needless to offer any remarks. The information is neither less valuable, nor less interesting, for the calvinistic language with which it is intermingled. Much may be learnt concerning the country and the manners of the inhabitants from these reports; and more may be expected now that the missionaries have completed their great work. The profits of the publication are applied to the fund.

**ART. LXXII.** *A Secular Essay: containing a retrospective View of Events, connected with the Ecclesiastical History of England, during the Eighteenth Century; with Reflections on the State of Practical Religion in that Period.* By JOHN BREWSTER, A.M. Vicar of Stockton upon Tees, and of Greatham, in the County of Durham. 8vo. pp. 414.

THIS essay is divided into four parts. The first contains the ecclesiastical events during the reign of Queen Anne, together with incidental reflections, and different views of the state of religion in the church of England, at the commencement of the eighteenth century, and the time of the queen's death. In the second part we are presented with a sketch of the principal transactions, and accounts of the divisions and controversies in the church,

from the accession of George I. to the close of his reign. The third part is subdivided into three sections. In the first section the author offers his remarks on the state of religion and morals in this country, the polemical discussions, &c. from the year 1727 to the year 1754. The second section is principally devoted to an account of the origin, progress, and present state of methodism in England, with reflections on the whole, as well as on the duty of

ministers of the establishment. The third section contains a review of the principles of the Moravians, Mystics, Hutchinsonians, and Swedenborgians; which is followed by particulars supplementary to what are comprised in the first section, and which reach to the close of the reign of George II. The fourth part commences with the accession of his present Majesty, and details, in chronological order, the events which took place from that period to the close of the century. This part of the essay is subdivided into four sections, for the multifarious subjects of which we must necessarily refer our readers to the author's table of contents.

Mr. Brewster appears to have undertaken this work with the best intentions; but we cannot bestow our applause on the manner in which it is executed. As a composition it is verbose and desultory, and is frequently marked by a quaintness of phraseology, or want of precision, which throws no little obscurity on the author's meaning. It is, besides, grossly defective in impartiality, when the principles and views of the Protestant dissenters from the establishment are the subjects of discussion, and particularly those of Unitarians, in whom "disbelief and disloyalty" are represented to be met together for the purpose of demolishing Christianity! In the course of his essay the author makes warm professions of candour and charity towards those who differ from him in religious sentiment, and avows himself a zealous friend to toleration, and freedom of discussion. From incidental expressions, however, which occur in it, we may not unfairly remark, that his ideas on the subjects of toleration and freedom of discussion, are not perfectly accurate or consistent. In relating the ecclesiastical occurrences of the last ten years of the century, Mr. Brewster largely introduces the topics of French politics, and French infidelity, considering them to have a close connection with the history of this country during that period. With the Abbé Baruel, and Professor Robison, to whose writings he refers for his proofs, he maintains, that the events to which they gave rise were the natural consequences of a long, premeditated, and deep conspiracy, for the overthrow of religion and monarchy; and to convince his readers, that a

systematic attempt was made to carry that conspiracy into execution in this country, he furnishes them with copious extracts, from a treatise on the rise and dissolution of infidel societies in the metropolis, by William Hamilton Reid! We shall subjoin some specimens of this performance, from which our readers may be enabled to form some idea of the author's manner, and of the justice of our preceding remarks.

Our first extract contains his observations on the proceedings in the convocation in the year 1714, occasioned by the publication of Dr. Clarke's celebrated treatise on the Trinity.

"It was a serious misfortune at this time, that while infidelity was making dreadful encroachments among the learned or dissipated, any deviation from the long established and well-grounded doctrines of the bible, should be found within the pale of the church itself. I refer to the proceedings in convocation concerning Dr. Samuel Clarke's book, entitled, 'The Scripture Doctrine of the Trinity.' From the unsettled state of men's minds, every thing became controversy, and that in its warmest manner. This mysterious, but appropriate and important doctrine of Christianity, by means of this introduction, afforded matter for public discussion. The revelation of the gospel was deserted in its interpretation, for the wild fancies of the most ignorant: and that doctrine which could be known only from the word of God itself, and which is indispensable in the awful circumstance of man's redemption, became so misrepresented as to be sometimes reviled, and often rejected, by those whose prejudices were stronger than their belief. What passed upon this occasion becomes the subject of the ecclesiastical historian. The last public notice of this controversy, consists of seven articles of direction, delivered to the archbishops and bishops, 'for the preserving unity in the church, and the purity of the Christian faith concerning the Holy Trinity; and also for preserving the peace and quiet of the state.'

"It must be observed, that these were *directions and not laws*; only so far as an offence was contrary to the canonical institutions. In discussing subjects of this nature, argument is our best weapon, and if we wield this with moderation and discretion, with a due regard to peace and the establishment of truth, we shall be most likely to overcome our adversary. In these articles there is much good sense as well as policy; and the clergy of every age will be the better for observing them. In giving this opinion, I would not be thought to infer, that the agitators of controversial subjects should be silenced by authority.' No. Let truth be

investigated with fairness and freedom: depend upon it, it will not suffer by the trial.

"This observation does not attach itself, neither ought it, to publications professedly disseminated for the purpose of overturning the pillars of the Christian faith, and introducing anarchy and confusion into society. Too many fatal instances of which hath this age beheld. Excellent and amiable as *toleration* is, it would degenerate into weakness, into madness, calmly to see the poisoned cup offered to a peaceful and an unsuspecting people, without dashing it from the hand of the presenter. But a fair discussion of doubtful or controverted points, requires a different treatment. No man would wish to profess a faith which could not openly be defended. Let gloomy superstition erect her inquisitions, let her prepare her dungeons and her racks, but let true religion meet her adversary in the open field. In that important moment when our Lord was conversing with his disciples previously to his apprehension, he said to Peter, 'Simon, behold Satan hath desired to have you, that he may sift you as wheat; but I have prayed for thee, that thy faith fail not: and when thou art converted strengthen thy brethren.' Peter, though assailed by Satan, through the support of his dying master, rose superior to his own infirmity. If we consider Peter as an emblem of the church (though no disciples of his once falsely reputed *infallible* representative) we shall find with what weapons he is to be defended—I have prayed that thy faith fail not: and he who uses any other on such occasions than 'the sword of the spirit, which is the word of God,' errs against that divine authority by which he pretends to be directed."

After giving an extract from Dodsley's Annual Register, for the year 1772, containing a summary of the grounds on which the majority of the House of Commons decided against the petition of several clergymen of the church of England, and other members of the two universities, to be relieved from subscription to the thirty-nine articles of religion; he adds,

"There is an argument, not mentioned in the petition, but alluded to in the debate, which casts an additional light on the motives of the petitioning party. 'A happy opportunity,' they said, 'was now offered, of opening such a door for the dissenters, as it was probable that most of them would enter at, and thereby be received into the bosom of the established church.' Happy, indeed, would that opportunity be, which could accomplish so important a purpose. I pray sincerely and earnestly for the union of all Christian churches. May they speedily become one fold, under one shepherd! But I

would not betray the true treasure of the gospel, for all that India or Ophir could produce. I would not see the invaluable doctrines of revelation invaded by an heterogeneous multitude, sheltered under *any* denomination of Christians, who might impose upon the ignorant and unwary, who might preach a faith, which is not the faith, and establish a church, which is not the church of Christ. I mean not, by this expression, to reject the offer of union with any believers in our crucified Saviour. We have all, probably, prejudices to be conquered. But the salvation of our souls is, or ought to be, equally near to us all. Therefore, as we regard our everlasting welfare, we should "buy the truth, and sell it not;" we should deal honestly with our own hearts; we should not compromise the great truths of the gospel, but love them, cherish them, live with them, die with them. External ceremonies, indeed, form no necessary part of the gospel of Christ. Times and seasons will alter their appearance. But no time, no season, can alter that faith which was once delivered to the saints. "Heaven and earth shall pass away, but my words shall not pass away."

"The last application to parliament on this ground, was, on the 5th of May 1774, upon a motion for the relief of *all* parties concerned. This application was not more successful than the preceding. So decided, indeed, was the general opinion, that the mover of the question did not divide the house.

'Here then,' says a relater of the successive attempts in this business, 'come we to that period, where, for the present, all proceedings stop. We will not enter into arguments. Let it suffice to remark, that Christianity, simple and unadulterated, as exhibited in the scriptures, remains, even at this day, and in this country, not only not established, but not tolerated by legal authority.'

"Is it possible, that this language is addressed to the mild, the benevolent, the truly *tolerant* church of England? Is it possible that any member of that church should have occasion to use this language? Individuals, perhaps, in all states and churches, may be found indulging harsh measures, the consequence of harsh tempers. But that *INTOLERANCE* should be attributed to a government, and to a church protected by that government, whose principles are generally known, and in which *Christianity, simple and unadulterated, as exhibited in the scriptures*, is professedly taught, will hardly be believed. That this church should watch with a careful, and even a jealous eye, over so valuable a treasure as she possesses, no one ought to condemn: that she will suffer any, *every* man to partake with her in this inestimable blessing, all dispassionate observers will allow. But that she should will



fully adopt a conduct destructive of true religion, that she should oppress any description of conscientious persons, so as to call forth violent invective, and intemperate reproof, and induce them to say, in the language of the author of this pamphlet, sore with disappointment, that *Christianity, in this country, is not only not established, but not tolerated by legal authority, is neither consistent with her general professions, nor her general practice.*

"The introduction of Arian and Socinian tenets, appear to have been, with many, the chief motives of this important controversy. Liberty of conscience, erecting its standard by the side of civil liberty (according to such definitions of liberty as began then to prevail), took advantage of the times to prefer its plea. Many luminous pens were drawn upon the occasion on both sides; and the church of England, as usual, met with many advocates. This controversy, having had its day, has now sunk into oblivion; but it has left a consequence behind it, which co-operating with the free opinions of more modern times, has diffused no salutary influence through many a peaceful retreat. The true faith of the gospel, indeed, has not been shaken as a public profession; but in some large cities and populous towns, places of worship have been opened, though many of them were not long supported, on the Arian and Socinian plan: some adopting the use of the Book of Common Prayer, as originally published by Dr. Samuel Clark, and others conforming to the Presbyterian model of public devotion. So unfettered, indeed, are modern sectaries of this description, that the names of both Arius and

Socinus have gone out of fashion, and that of *Unitarian* almost universally adopted. Perhaps there is policy in adopting a name, which, in one sense, even the most orthodox believer needs not reject; as he, as well as they, acknowledges, that '*there is none other God but one.*' But the orthodox believer will not reduce his faith to a level with that of Mahomet; he will not look for salvation in the manual of Epictetus, or in the offices of Cicero. Morality, however excellent as a rule of life, will not become a living principle in the heart of man, if it be not mixed with faith in those who are instructed in it. The religion of the *Unitarian*, therefore (in their sense of the word), may be called the religion of the Deist, or of any other believer of the revelation of the gospel. Indeed, if we take away the nature of God, as displayed in the awful words of scripture, we remove all distinctions between Christians and those Infidels who are not Atheists. 'I believe in God, and Mahomet his prophet,' says the disciple of the celebrated Oriental impostor. 'I believe in God, and Jesus Christ, a prophet and teacher,' is the creed of the Unitarian. But the member of the church established among us, finds a fuller faith in scripture, which is the anchor of his soul, both sure and certain; a faith which has God for its object in the most perfect state of unity, but in whose essence are *Jesus Christ*, the son of his love; without whose meritorious death and sufferings, sinners never could have been reconciled to the Almighty, and All-just; and the *Holy Spirit*, without whose inspiration the best of men could neither think a good thought, nor perform a good action."

ART. LXXIII. *Unity the Bond of Peace, and the Friend of Virtue; or, the Consequences of Schism morally and politically considered: tracing its Progress, and pointing out some of the Means to check it.* 8vo. pp. 271.

THE divine constitution of our national established church, and the heinousness of the sin of schism, are topics which have been warmly agitated in the theological world at different periods since the reformation. Of late years our clergy have been induced to revive the public attention to these points, in consequence of the increasing desertion of the parish churches, observable in many parts of the kingdom, chiefly owing to the labours of the Methodists, and the unwearied assiduity of their numerous itinerant preachers. To the apprehensions which their progress has created, are we principally to ascribe the publication before us. Taking for granted, that preceding writers have ably and satisfactorily proved, that our ecclesiastical establishment is mo-

delled precisely after the primitive pattern of the Christian church, the author divides his treatise into six chapters. The first chapter is employed in shewing, the consequences of schism, as they have respect to the ends of edification. The principal positions on which the author expatiates for the illustration of this part of his subject, are, that diversity of faith and worship, has a tendency to lessen the influence of religion on the minds of its professors; that those doctrines and authorities which are strong and commanding in themselves, like all other laws and authorities, lose much of their effect by opposition; that proselytism to doctrines or modes at variance with the national standard, leads the subjects of it, from a narrow spirit of sectarian zeal, to have

recourse to unfair and illiberal means of depreciating the doctrines, and lessening the credit of the church from which they have seceded, and to represent the clergy to be hypocrites and deceivers; and that the opposition of sects and parties produces a relaxation of discipline, and breaks that intercourse which should subsist between the minister and the people committed to his charge, and which the good order of society, and the ends of the ministry, require. The second chapter is intended to point out the consequences of schism as they respect the ends of harmony and peace. The principal topics on which the author enlarges, in order to illustrate this part of his plan, are, that party of any kind is always productive of feelings and contentions that are very injurious to harmony and peace; that if all were what they should be, there would be no such thing as diversity of faith, or disunion of worship; that diversity of faith and worship too often leads to personal enmity; that it produces a spirit of envy and jealousy among the members of the community, and a disposition to controversy, which too often leads to an alienation of affection, and an interruption of the harmony of social life; and that such division in the public mind tends to divide and weaken the strength of the nation, and at length to endanger the very existence of government, and the overthrow of the constitution both in church and state.

How far the author has succeeded in elucidating the positions above mentioned, and in implicating separatists from the church in the charge of criminality, for adopting a line of conduct which must necessarily obstruct the ends of the gospel, and prove fatal to the peace of the community, we leave it to his readers to decide. We cannot but remark, however, that he has assumed many points as indisputable, which cannot be conceded to him by his opponents without giving up their cause, and virtually subscribing to the harsh censures which he passes upon them. His mode of writing is more declamatory than argumentative; and his treatise abounds with unnecessary repetitions of the same sentiments, without any novelty of application. These observations apply to his succeeding chapters, as well as those which we

have already been considering. The extracts which we introduce in this place, will furnish our readers with a specimen of his manner of illustrating his subjects, and also with a summary of what he had before advanced.

“ That the peace and stability of a country depend upon the influence of religion on the principles and morals of the people; that to preserve this influence it should perform a part in the constitution; and that it must be dangerous to the public safety to disturb its foundations, by whatever means, or for whatever purpose, are points which I need not here undertake to prove.

“ The alliance between church and state has been a subject of much dispute. Without entering very deeply into the question, it must, I think, on all hands be admitted, that there is this connection or dependence upon one another, that whenever the religion of a country is overturned, the state must suffer with it.

“ I am not now to prove, that the national establishment of religion in this country, is the purest in its doctrine, or the most perfect in its form, that the wisdom of man would be able to devise. Whether it be the most free from error in point of doctrine, the most unexceptionable in its form, and the best calculated for the edification of its members, of any church existing; or whether it have its errors and defects, as others have contended, such is the church by law established; such is the national religion; and to subvert this establishment, to attempt its overthrow, or to endanger its existence, is not the part of a good subject, because in doing this he would be endangering the public peace.

“ Now it is among the consequences of schism, that the foundation of the established religion is shaken by the opposition of rival and contending sects, all, however divided in their own opinions, aiming to increase their numbers, to gain the ascendancy, and to build their own advancement upon the ruins of the church from which they dissent.

“ It is, as has already been observed, in the nature of schism to be zealous for its own increase, and to be indefatigable in making proselytes from the church which it hath itself forsaken. The steps which are taken to increase its numbers, and advance the cause in which it is engaged, are not less dangerous to the stability of the church than they are to the ends of edification and peace.

“ The efforts of misguided zeal, the misrepresentations of prejudice, the intrigues and artifices of party interest, not only operate to weaken the influence, and defeat the labours of the ministry, but they tend to weaken the foundation, and at length to overthrow the church itself.

"To the increase of their own numbers, and the advancement of their own particular interest, their aim is, of course, first directed; but if the deduction from the church established, be not attended with its full proportion of increase to their own party, such is the spirit of opposition, that they all feel a sympathetic pleasure in the acquisition which others make, and can forget their own differences, and forego their own particular advantage, in contemplating that defection from the establishment, and that addition to the number of its adversaries of any description, as a gain to the general cause; as a step which brings them so much nearer to the object which is never far from their sight; as an advance towards the accomplishment of the fall of that church against which all their envy and powers are directed.

"The continual and combined efforts of such zeal, if no more than the constant droppings of water upon the hardest stone, must in time have their effect. But religious zeal is of a more active nature, and not so slow in its effects. It is always awake, and vigilant to seize every occasion of strengthening its own, by weakening and dividing the power of its adversaries. It is fruitful in its resources: it is active in its operations: it is not very nice in the choice of means to accomplish its object. By loud and violent declamations against the church and its ministers; by unfavourable, if not unjust, representations of its unprofitableness, by unfair comparisons; by pretensions to greater light and purity; by holding forth their own as the only profitable, if not the sole mode of salvation; by terrifying the minds of the public, and impressing them with the fear, that if they remain in the communion of the church, they cannot be saved, they are continually drawing away some of its members, lessening the attachment of others, and hastening that period when the strength of its numerous adversaries shall be too great for it any longer to withstand their united powers.

"Should the clergy, or the members of their church, with whom, no less than themselves, it must rest to defend it; should they be at any time insensible of their danger, and not watchful to resist the multiplied force that is brought against it, it must fall; and all the dreadful consequences of such a revolution must be experienced in their fullest extent. If, on the other hand, they be aware of their danger, and active to repel it, zeal is opposed to zeal, and the conflict is attended with consequences most hurtful to the public peace; and, at last, the evil is only protracted for a time: increasing numbers, and renewed exertions, at length find their opportunity to effect their purpose. That period, which no friend to his country can contemplate without horror, arrives. The church is overwhelmed by its numerous and triumphant foes. The civil government, the con-

stitution, and laws, fall with it. All is anarchy and confusion.

"It is therefore not without good reason, that wise states and governments have taken so much care to guard against religious schism, and to promote a uniformity of worship; sometimes by provisions that have trench upon the rights of private judgment: though too often the occasion may have required measures much stronger to secure the peace and safety of the state, than may, when the cause is forgotten, appear to have been altogether necessary, or perfectly consistent with the principles of religious liberty.

"When the claims of conscience have been carried to such an extent, or have been so abused to the purposes of interest or ambition, as to endanger the public peace, and it has been found necessary to restrain or limit them, it is not easy so to define their bounds as to protect the national establishment on one hand, and not to afford occasion of complaint on the other.

"Whatever might be the legal right to a separation of worship, it would be a question of grave consideration in the mind of every serious Christian, whether the difference of opinion, in point of doctrine or mode, be of such serious import as imperiously to require or need a separation, which is in its consequences so hurtful to the cause of religion, and so injurious to the public peace. Those errors must be very great indeed in the national creed or worship, and of essential concern to their salvation, which will justify a schism that will obstruct the ends of the gospel, lay the foundation of jealousies and uncharitable affections in the hearts of its professors, and eventually operate to the overthrow of the church by law established, and therewith the state, which would be involved in its ruin."

The third chapter is entitled "The Consequences of Schism, confirmed by the experience of our own Church and Country." This chapter presents us with a slight sketch of the English ecclesiastical history, from the reformation to the overthrow of the national establishment, during the reign of Charles I. or rather a slight sketch of the history of the Puritans, intended to excite a jealousy of all pretended efforts at ecclesiastical reformation and improvements, by exhibiting an alarming picture of the mischiefs produced by a love of innovation, particularly in that monarch's reign. Among the numerous quotations from the writers of the times, illustrative of the designs of those "reforming zealots," are some choice selections from Doctor Leighton's "Zion's Plea against the Prelacy," which are followed by the ob-

servation that the author "found no other immediate reward than the loss of his own ears, and a heavy fine into the bargain." A writer who can speak with such ease and apathy of the inhuman and horrible sentence inflicted on Doctor Leighton, as a punishment of the violent and indecent language in his book, would have proved a very suitable associate of the pious and merciful Bishop Laud, who, when it was pronounced, could pull off his cap, and give God thanks for it. In pointing out the means by which the Puritans acquired their influence in the kingdom, our author principally dwells on the pamphlets and publications which were directed against the church and clergy; the formation of separate societies, and the opening of places of worship, where their own opinions, and their own modes, would be extolled and recommended with all the powers of art and address, at the expence of the national establishment; the *prophecying*s, or religious exercises, which different bodies of associated clergy maintained among themselves, for their mutual edification and improvement in scriptural learning; meetings in private families, for the purposes of prayer, and religious exhortation; and the establishment of lectures in towns and populous places, connected with a plan for purchasing impropriations, the suppression of which formed one of the articles of Laud's impeachment.

The 4th chapter is employed in describing the progress of schism in the present day. The author's object is to produce a conviction that the conduct of modern separatists, is a counterpart of that of the revolutionists in Charles's days, and that a considerable body of them, at least, is at this time treading in the same steps which led to the ruin of the church, and the dissolution of the government at that period. With this view he animadverts on the sentiments and writings of some modern dissenters; and particularly of Doctors Price and Priestley; but his principal strictures are levelled against "the great body of separatists, who, under a variety of descriptions and ramifications, pass under the general name of Methodists."

"Numerous, indeed," says the author, "these are, and zealous beyond all former times; and their success is equal to their zeal. The virulence with which they oppose

the church, whose articles, and homilies, and liturgy, they affect to admire; the bitterness with which they speak of its clergy, as an unenlightened and unprofitable ministry; the unfavourable comparisons which they are for ever drawing between them and their own evangelical teachers; the variety of arts which they make use of to prejudice the members of the church against it, and lead them to become members of their societies, are circumstances which cannot have escaped the observation of any who are at all acquainted with their proceedings."

The numerous meeting houses erected by this description of people, and their labours to disseminate their principles, particularly by entering into associations for the purpose of sending out missionaries into country towns and villages, to *propagate the gospel at home*, the author points out as among the means which are likely sooner or later to overthrow the religious establishment of the country. And if he is accurate in the following representation, his apprehensions are not entirely visionary.

"Great already is the change that has been made in the public opinion, by such unremitting efforts to break the attachment of the people to their religious institutions; and to destroy their confidence in their appointed ministers. A very large proportion of the members of the establishment, have been already drawn away from its communion, and among those who remain there is an indifference, a want of attachment, and a want of confidence, that is too visible in their own neglect of its services, in the little attention which they pay to the admonitions of their clergy, in the unconcern which they feel for its deserted state, and in the little that they seem to care for the rapid progress which schism is making every where around them. This indifference, which is the evident effect of impressions made upon their minds in their intercourse with the enemies of our establishment, and from the language of confidence which they have been accustomed to hear, prepares them also for the reception of the same poison, and disposes them to become at some future time the subjects of like delusion. By little and little their old habits and prejudices will die away, and the change will become easy from formal members of their church to rank among the number of its zealous opponents. And even should they not be gained over to the side of its enemies, the church will find in such lukewarm friends, whenever the crisis shall come which calls for their assistance, little that is worth its dependence. Its numerous adversaries will be too sensible of their superior zeal and strength, to reckon much upon the opposition of a few old members

that may remain in its communion, without spirit or energy to defend it."

Other means which, according to our author, men of this description, "who form a kind of link between the church and the meeting," practise to the injury of the church are the purchase of advowsons and presentations, in order to fill them with their gospel preachers; their unwearied exertions to secure the elections to lectureships in populous parishes; and the support which they afford to young men who are sent to the universities, where they are placed under the eye of some resident friend of the same description, whose directions they are implicitly to obey, to prepare them to become the future reformers of their church.

Prayer meetings the author pronounces to be another mode of sapping the foundations of the church. All such meetings he considers to be dangerous innovations, and maintains that on the part of the clergy they are illegal; and on the part of the laity so many preparatory schools, in which, by accustoming themselves to an infringement of the discipline of the church, their veneration and attachment to its public institutions will gradually be undermined, and they will be rendered fit subjects for the influence of sectarian teachers. The last powerful engine which the author notices as being made use of by schismatics to overthrow the establishment, is the publication of pamphlets and small tracts, enforcing their principles, which he says are dispersed by associations in various parts of the kingdom, through every possible channel; particularly among the poor, to whom they are recommended with the highest eulogiums, in order to induce them to read and to profit by them. From a combination of the means above mentioned the author of this treatise augurs the most fatal consequences to the existing establishment, maintaining that "in the schisms of the present day, are to be seen the seeds of all those mischiefs that once did effect its ruin."

The 5th chapter of this treatise is employed in pointing out the means of checking the progress of schism, as they respect the clergy; and the 6th, as they respect the laity. Before the author enters on these parts of his plan, he deprecates all suspicion that he is influenced by any other motives but "the desire to

promote the great ends which all should have in view, glory to God in the highest, peace on earth, and good will to men; and this by means the most free from all uncharitableness, from all interference with the rights of private judgment, from the smallest desire to lay one needless burden upon the conscience of another."

"With respect to the means, I leave it to those to whom it more properly and constitutionally belongs, to consider whether any, and what measures, of a more public nature, are necessary to meet the growing evils of dissension. Well perhaps it had been, if they in whom it rested had, at an earlier period, seen the tendency of some of the causes from which those evils have arisen, and had recourse to those preventive measures which would have secured us against much of that danger to which we are now exposed. Mild and temperate, yet effectual, perfectly consonant with the spirit of toleration, and at the same time preservative of the foundations of the church, might have been the steps which, a few years back, would have cut off many of those evils which are now grown to such an alarming size. Whether it be yet too late to recall the provisions of the Act of Toleration to their original design, and confine them within their intended limits; that while they afford all the relief that is due to the conscientious dissenter, they may not be made a cover and pretext for wanton and needless schism; or what other remedies remain for the wisdom of parliament to devise, is not for me to discuss."

With respect to the clergy, after allowing the full force of every thing that can be said on the great importance of a zealous and conscientious discharge of the public duties of the ministry, or the necessity of the most exemplary conduct in themselves; and after admitting that among the great number of those who are received into the sacred order, there are individuals, through whose indifference, inactivity, and bad conduct, the cause of religion may, in some places, have been injured; he maintains, that in no period of the church has there been a body of men of greater respectability in talents or character, than in the present time.

"All that is wanting more from the clergy seems to be an increase of zeal suitable to the peculiar circumstances in which they are placed; but that a zeal according to knowledge; not that zeal which would lead them into irregularities, or carry them beyond the bounds of the strictest discipline and order, but an increased activity and

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watchfulness within the proper line of their profession.

"They may be earnest, yet temperate. They may be zealous at the same time that they are strictly regular. They may be warmed with the truest spirit of the gospel, and with the sincerest desire to promote its important ends, without running after the multitude to court popularity, or seeking to be distinguished from their brethren as more enlightened or evangelical, by adopting any of the modes of sectarism, or even affecting their terms to win their applause. They may do all that the cause of religion requires at their hands within the pale of that church whose ministers they are, and within the proper sphere of their parochial duties.

"In the stated times of public assembly in their parish church, and in the occasional visits of the sick at home, will be found all the *prayer meetings* in which the clergy are allowed to join, and for these the proper services are provided. All beyond this, whether in the clergy or the laity, is the business of the family or the closet. To the instructions which their sermons, catechisings, and lectures, will afford them the opportunities of giving in public, and the private explanations, admonitions, and consolations, which they will be called upon at home to give to their parishioners who may need their assistance, if they add the seasonable and familiar advice which they may see occasion to give in the private intercourses of friendship or conversation with their neighbours, and, as their circumstances may require, the recommendation and sometimes the loan of books that may be necessary to build them up in our most holy faith, they will have done all that is expected of them. Whatever is more than this their church does not require from them; nor is it consistent with its discipline and rules: and so far from being likely to check, if it were permitted to them to deviate from the course appointed, it would be the most ready means to increase the spirit of sectarism."

The rest of this chapter is devoted to a defence of the clergy against the charges brought against them, of not insisting in their sermons on the peculiar doctrines of the gospel, and of resting upon mere externals, without sufficiently enforcing internal and practical Christianity; and in recommending to them to pay a greater portion of their attention on instructing their flocks in the knowledge of the origin and constitution of the church, as the means to preserve its unity, and promote the ends of its institution.

The author's concluding chapter is employed in shewing the part which the laity have to take in checking the pro-

gress of schism, and in the preservation and defence of the church; and this as it respects, first, their own attachment and example; and secondly, the more active assistance that it may be in their power to give. Under the former head are comprised steadiness, founded on principle and conviction, "not haling between two opinions, now a member of the church, and now the member of a separate society;" a resolute determination not to be tempted, under any pretences of receiving greater light and edification, to desert the opinions and modes in which they have been educated, by an adherence to which, as they are the opinions and modes of the established church, they will at the same time fulfil the dictates of conscience in submitting to the ordinance of God, and approve themselves peaceable and good members of the state; and an example of the strictest attendance upon the ordinances of the church, of the real practice of the duties of religion, as well as the profession. Of the more active assistance which, according to our author, the laity have it in their power to give, and which the circumstances of the times demand, a summary is comprehended in the following questions, prefixed to the more particular discussion of the subjects which they embrace.

"They see those who are in opposition to their church, zealous, active, persevering, and successful; what are the steps they take to prevent the obvious effects of such zealous exertions? They see the means employed to draw away its members from their communion with the church; what have they to secure them from the impressions which such zeal and industry must make upon the minds of those who are not prepared to resist them? Do they take equal pains to make converts to their communion, or to keep even those who yet remain from being led away after the numbers that have been already deluded from it? Do they give themselves the trouble to observe who are the regular frequenters of divine worship, and to call upon and converse with those who absent themselves from it? Do they even enter into conversation with their friends, their poorer neighbours, their labourers and dependants on the subject, to persuade them to come to church, to avail themselves of the benefits of the divine word and ordinances, to consider what they lose by neglecting the valuable opportunities which are provided for their instruction? Do they, like the zealous adversaries of our church, employ their influence to impress the minds

of the poor with a higher opinion of their clergy, to give them a confidence in their labours, to guard them against the prejudices that are so industriously instilled into them, to lessen the character and influence of their lawful pastors, to alienate their affections, to defeat the good that they might else have received, and at last to draw them away from the church, against which so much pains have been taken to poison their minds?

"Do they meet the zeal of those who are so industrious in the circulation of tracts which their societies bring forth for the purpose of proselytism, by an equal zeal to distribute among the poor any of the publications which their own venerable and valuable society will furnish, to guard them against the snares of enthusiasm, and the arts that

are employed to lead them astray? Some among them are sensible of the declining state of the church: do they put forth a hand to prop and support it: do they consult with its ministers what it is that they can do to avert the danger which is impending? Do they, if the clergy be not themselves awake to their danger, do anything to rouse and animate them to a consideration of the zeal and exertions which belong to them in this time of need?"

From the preceding very copious analysis of this treatise, and the liberal extracts which accompany it, our readers will be able to form a sufficient idea of its contents, and of the manner in which it is executed.

ART. LXXIV. *The Necessity of the Abolition of Pluralities and Non-residence, with the Employment of Substitutes by the beneficed Clergy; demonstrated in an Enquiry into the Principles and Consequences of the Establishment of Curates.* 8vo. pp. 394.

THIS is a very able, well written, and dispassionate publication, which deserves the serious attention of every well-wisher to the interests, honour, and utility of our established church. In the introduction the author passes a just encomium on the Christian religion, and its beneficial consequences in promoting the civilization and improvement of mankind, and then adverts to the means which have been made use of for carrying it into effect, particularly the designation of an order of men properly qualified to teach its truths, and enforce its sanctions. Having afterwards maintained, that its success, or its want of efficacy at different periods, is clearly to be traced to the degree of fidelity or negligence with which these ministers have discharged their duty, he observes:

"As the operation then of the gospel depends so much on the character and conduct of its ministers, their establishment is an object of the utmost importance; and all possible care and caution should be used in their appointment. For the old observation, '*talis est populus, qualis est sacerdos*,' is founded in truth, and will always be demonstrated by facts. If the clergy be ignorant, idle, profane, immoral, they will either be despised and derided, or they will mislead their people into error and superstition, and seduce them into vice and impiety. And these evil consequences, which are imputable to themselves only, will be attributed to their religion, though, like its righteous Founder, it be unblameable, and no fault can be found in it: and, in truth, Christianity has suffered more injury from the idleness and dissipation, from the ignorance

and immorality of unworthy men, carelessly or wickedly appointed to the work of its ministry, than from all the infidels that ever opposed it.

"If the clergy were distinguished for their knowledge and piety, and eminent for their virtuous accomplishments; if they performed the offices of a pure and reasonable worship with sincere devotion; if they delivered the sublime doctrines of their religion with truth, simplicity, and power; if they enforced the practice of its holy precepts by clear reasoning, persuasive eloquence, and good example; and if they carefully reminded men of their danger from unbelief and impenitence, reproved them for their vices, admonished them of their follies, and earnestly excited them to discharge their duty as men and Christians, by all the motives of hope and fear, and all the arguments of reason and religion; they would then be universally respected and beloved; their principles would be revered, and their conduct imitated: Christianity would display its powerful influence, would effectuate a general observance of piety and virtue, and promote public prosperity and private happiness.

"It becomes, therefore, the duty, and it is the interest, of Christian governments to provide, that such a learned, able, and diligent clergy be established, as may give to the gospel its full operation, and promote, in the most effectual manner, the present and eternal welfare of the people committed to their care.

"How far the clergy of the church of England are established, so as to answer these most important ends, would be a useful enquiry, and seems absolutely necessary at the present alarming period, when this church, which was the fairest and best beloved daughter of the reformation, is so much despised, and the gospel itself so greatly

nerally neglected. These lamentable facts demonstrate, that there are faults or defects somewhere, either in the ecclesiastical polity itself, or in the clergy who do not fulfil the laws, nor act up to the designs of their establishment, or perhaps in both. And those would do important service to their country, who should point out, after a full and free enquiry, these defects to the legislature, and recommend their proper and adequate remedies.

"With this view the author presumes to examine into that part of our ecclesiastical establishment which relates to curates, who officiate for the beneficed and non-resident clergy; for it has long appeared to him a great defect, disgraceful to the church, and injurious to the cause of religion and virtue.

"That those who enjoy the chief emoluments of the priesthood, and who consequently ought to be eminent examples of zeal and diligence in the discharge of its duties, should hire others to officiate for them, that they may indulge themselves in the ease and pleasures of secular life; and by allowing their substitutes a scanty pittance, that they should become guilty of oppression, and introduce an artificial poverty in those churches, where an abundant maintenance has been provided, seems, to many, highly disgraceful to the clerical character: and that the government should sanction this conduct, and even *limit* the salary of the labouring curate, so that it is unequal to the wages of a nobleman's servant, or of a journeyman mechanic, consigns him to ignorance, poverty, and contempt, and renders him unable to discharge the duties of his office with effect; seems so repugnant to the principles of common equity, as well as of religion and sound policy, as to excite the sneer of unbelievers, and give offence to many serious Christians. Its lawfulness and expediency may well be questioned, and therefore the author proposes to enquire,

"First, Whether the use and establishment of curates, or substitutes among the clergy, be agreeable to the laws of the gospel relative to its ministers, and to the primitive constitution of the ministry in England?

"Secondly, What were the causes which first led the clergy to the employment of substitutes, and what were the principles on which they were established?

"And thirdly, What influence their establishment had on the national religion and morals?"

These enquiries constitute the three parts into which this work is distributed. The first part is subdivided into two sections. In the first section the author enquires, whether the employment of curates, and their public establishment, be agreeable to the laws of the gospel relative to its ministers? This question

he decides in the negative, after appealing to the descriptions of the ministerial office and character contained in the gospel, to several positive laws relative to the conduct of ministers, and to many just inferences, and plain deductions from various other precepts of scripture. In the second section the author discusses the enquiry, whether the employment of substitutes by the clergy, and the establishment of curates, be agreeable to the primitive constitution of the ministry in the English church? This section will supply the reader with much curious matter relative to the constitution of the clergy in the Saxon church, at first in their collegiate or conventual state, which continued during the space of nearly two centuries, and afterwards upon the establishment of a resident and parochial ministry, which commenced about the middle of the eighth century, but was not completed till the tenth, when the division of parishes was finally adjusted.

"At this time," says our author, "there was not an instance, not an idea of one clergyman's acting as a substitute of another, and officiating for him for a small annual stipend. For the very design of the original endowment of most churches, and the very end of the separate and independent establishment of the clergy, were, that the revenues should be appropriated to the resident and officiating minister, and to him only.

"And, conformably to this design and end, no clergyman before the period of the Norman conquest, had more than one church; this he was to consider and love as his lawful wife, and thereat he was obliged to reside and officiate till death. He was not allowed to resign or relinquish it; nor could he be removed from it, unless the bishop, for some very particular reasons, should permit it. And if on some extraordinary account the bishop granted any clergyman leave to remove to another church, he did not think of retaining his former benefice along with it, and hiring another in his room to perform its duties, whilst he himself received the revenues. Such an idea never entered the minds of the English clergy of these ages; and such a desire or attempt would have been considered as criminal as adultery, fraud, and oppression. Every priest deemed himself bound in duty to perform his sacred function, and considered the benefice as inseparably connected with the office. They thought themselves justly entitled to reward from the laity, in consideration of the religious services which they rendered them; and if

after the performance of such services they would have thought it unreasonable and unjust to be denied the due recompence of their labours, it must have seemed to them equally unjust to receive the reward without performing the offices for which it was designed and appointed.

"The laws of the church, prior to the Norman conquest, are founded on these obvious principles of common equity and reciprocal justice between the clergy and laity, and were conscientiously acted upon and observed by both parties.

"The inference, therefore, manifestly deducible from this view of the primitive constitution of the clergy in the English church is this; that the use of substitutes by the beneficed clergy is so far from receiving any support from it, that it is directly repugnant to its design and end, and to all the laws on which it was founded; and that the establishment of curates has no precedent to sanction it in the history of the clergy, for nearly a thousand years from the first promulgation of Christianity."

The second part of this work is entitled, "Enquiry into the causes which first induced the clergy to the employment of substitutes, and into the principles on which the establishment of curates was founded." It is divided into four sections, of which the first treats of the appointment of foreigners to English benefices, which was the first occasion of the use of substitutes among the clergy. This abuse was introduced into the church soon after the Norman conquest, when William I. deprived many bishops and priests of their preferments, that he might place Normans in their room; who, as they were ignorant of the English language, hired English priests to officiate for them for annual and inconsiderable stipends. Afterwards it was greatly extended, when the popes had subjugated both church and state to their dominion, and in the exercise of their assumed right of collation and presentation to many ecclesiastical preferments, appointed Italians to the first dignities and benefices of the church. Of the repeated, but ineffectual attempts entirely to correct this abuse, by which "the house of God was literally made a den of thieves," from the pontificate of Pope Gregory IX. to the abolition of the papal power under Henry VIII. our author has exhibited a judicious sketch.

The second section treats of the institution of clerks in inferior orders to ecclesiastical benefices, which was ano-

ther cause of the employment of curates. These clerks consisted of sub-deacons, readers, singers, exorcists, ostiaries, &c. who not having been admitted into holy orders, were incapable of discharging the duties appertaining to the cure of souls. Before the Norman conquest they were never beneficed in England; but after that event, those of them who had interest with the prelates and nobility obtained presentations to ecclesiastical dignities and benefices, and hired substitutes to discharge the duties belonging to them. Our author traces the progress of this abuse from its origin till its abolition in the reign of Elizabeth, concluding with the following observations:

"This reform, however, did not go quite far enough, nor produce all the good effects which were expected from it. For the beneficed clergy, after entering into holy orders, and becoming capable of doing their duty, were not compelled to officiate personally in their churches; and the consequence was, that they continued to hire curates to act for them, and enjoyed in ease and pleasure the revenues of their churches, while others performed the services, and were not rewarded according to their labours and deservings. It is much to be lamented, that after requiring every beneficed person to enter into priest's orders, they did not proceed one necessary step farther, and also enjoin them to discharge in their own persons the duties of their churches, on pain of being deprived of them. For without such obligation, they might as well have continued in the lower orders; for there is little or no difference between a clerk in the inferior orders, who cannot preach and administer the sacraments, and a clergyman in holy orders, who will not perform the duties of his sacred office. *Paulum sepultæ distat inertie celsa virtus.* Such nominal ministers tend only to disgrace the clerical character, and injure the cause of religion and virtue. *Næ illi falsi sunt, qui res diversissimas pariter expectant, ignavia voluptatem, & premia virtutis.*"

The third section is on the appropriation of churches, which gave further occasion for the use of curates. The gradual progress of this corruption, and its pernicious effects on the condition of the resident and officiating clergy, from the time when the monastic orders set the first example of such a perversion of the revenues of the church, to the reign of Queen Anne, is detailed at considerable length by our author; but his account is not capable of being abridg-

ed. The same observation is applicable to the contents of the fourth section, "on pluralities and non-residence, which were the last, and now remain the only cause of a poor and stipendiary clergy." These abuses were not introduced into the English church before the eleventh century, but were soon carried to an enormous excess, to the cruel oppression of the great body of the clergy, and the scandal of religion. The author's history of them, and of the inefficacious attempts, at different periods, for their correction, is the evident result of industrious and careful enquiry, and, as well as the preceding section, will furnish those readers who are not deeply read in English ecclesiastical history, with much valuable and interesting information. From the author's reflections on the state of things in modern times, we shall extract his charge against the clergy of the present day, and a specimen of his mode of arguing against the immediate subjects of his complaint.

"To take away the only plea urged in defence of these corruptions, namely, the poverty of many livings, which caused them to be held in plurality, Queen Anne generously gave up her whole revenue arising from first fruits and tenths, for their augmentation, in the hope that it would gradually operate to the suppression of pluralities. For as benefices should increase in value, it was reasonably presumed that there would be less occasion for their being held in plurality, that the clergy would content themselves with one living, and thereon reside and conscientiously discharge the duties of it.

"Through the operation of this revenue during the space of almost a century, through the inclosure of commons, the recovery and improvements of tithes, and other causes, many benefices have been greatly augmented, so as to become a competent subsistence for a resident minister. But have these corruptions decreased in proportion to the increase of the value of benefices? Or have they at all been diminished? This is so far from being the case, that it may justly be asserted, pluralities and non-residence were in no period more prevalent in the church of England than they are at this present time, to the disgrace of the clergy, the offence of the people, and the injury of the Christian religion. And it is a lamentable proof of the general inattention to the welfare of the church and religious concerns, that for many years no public opposition has been made to these abuses, which are committed in the richest as well as in the poorest benefices,

and by all ranks of the clergy, from the mitred prelate down to the humble curate.

"For are the clergy content with any *one* of the most valuable livings in the kingdom? And are all the best benefices, from five hundred to one thousand a year, served by their proper incumbents resident upon them? These are the livings that are chiefly held in plurality, and being retained with archdeanries, deanries, and prebends, are prostituted to non-residence, and served by poor curates. If the best livings then are deemed insufficient, when is it to be expected that the clergy will be satisfied with one benefice, and that an end will be put to these shameful abuses? From all past experience it cannot be hoped that the clergy will sacrifice their interest to their duty in this respect, and therefore it concerns the legislature to interfere and compel them to it. For if pluralities and non-residence are not to be abolished till every benefice is augmented to a competent maintenance, and the clergy are to be the judges of that competency, the day of their abolition will never come. Well may livings of one or two hundred pounds a year be held in plurality, when those which are worth more than a thousand are subject to the same abuse. There are benefices worth *communibus annis* from 1400*l.* to 2000*l.* a year. But are the rectors content with this most ample provision? And do they personally reside on them and execute those spiritual offices, for which the revenues were assigned? The rectors visit not their parishes even once in a year; they hold other benefices along with them, besides profitable dignities. And thus these most valuable benefices are reduced to an artificial poverty, and with respect to the parishioners, not worth more than the laborious curate's pitiful stipend of 40 or 50*l.* per annum. What injury and waste is committed in such livings! And what a violation is this of the people's just rights? So far, indeed, is it from there being any truth in the argument, that poverty is the occasion of pluralities and non-residence, that, in fact, there scarce exists an instance, where two small adjoining livings are held together, and served by the same incumbent, though these are the only pluralities which reason and necessity can justify.

"To the charge of these corruptions the clergy of every degree are liable."

After enlarging in illustration of this statement, the author proceeds:

"Every church might and ought to have one resident incumbent; but instead of this, through these abuses above 2000 have not even a resident curate. Between 3000 and 4000 more churches are indeed supplied with resident curates, but then their stipends do not exceed thirty, forty, or fifty pounds a year; so that above half the livings in the



kingdom are reduced to a state of artificial poverty; the best part of their revenues are appropriated to pluralists and non-residents, and are perverted to other purposes than the instruction and benefit of the parishioners severally belonging to them.

"Such is the extent of these corruptions at the present day, after all that good and wise men in every age have said and done to restrain and reform them. Religion feels their pernicious effects, and with sorrow laments their general prevalence. Common sense cries out shame upon them; and common decency hides her face, and blushes to hear the false arguments and mean excuses, which have been used to palliate and defend them.

"It is a maxim plainly deducible from the principles of the gospel, that a minister cannot discharge his duty by a substitute. On this ground, pluralities and non-residence are unjustifiable.

"It is a maxim equally certain, that idleness is so incompatible with the character and conduct of a Christian minister, as to be criminal. For if diligence and fidelity in their sacred vocation be their principal virtues; if it be particularly required of them, that as stewards of the mysteries of God, they be found faithful, and make full proof of their ministry, then must idleness and disregard of the duties of their profession, constitute their chief vices. And what is the appointed end and punishment of the idle and unprofitable servant, it concerns non-residents seriously to consider.

"It is another maxim of scripture, that they who will not work in the Lord's vineyard should not eat the fruits of it; and it is also agreeable to common equity, that they who will not labour should have no wages. When, therefore, pluralists and non-residents do not perform the work of the ministry, and yet receive its best rewards, they not only transgress this doctrine, but are guilty of gross injustice.

"When the nobility and gentry first built churches, and endowed them with manse, glebe, and tithes, it was on the express condition that they should have a resident clergyman among them for the constant instruction and benefit of themselves, their families and tenants; and these endowments were considered as a compensation for the services of their officiating minister, and no other, and were understood in this sense for ages. For the founders of benefices could build parsonage houses with no other view than for the residence of their priest; nor annex lands and tithes thereto with any other intention than to reward him for his spiritual labours. And on this ground, when any clergyman accepted a benefice, he was bound to reside thereon, and perform all the duties of his function; and was forbidden, by the most express laws, to forsake or resign his church till death. Hence it

follows, that for any clergyman to receive the profits of a church, without residing constantly, and personally officiating in it, is not fulfilling the conditions on which those profits were granted, but is acting contrary to the will and intention of its pious founder, abusing his charity, and committing evident fraud and injustice. And in this conduct there cannot be less iniquity, than in breaking the will and testament of any other deceased person, or in not keeping and fulfilling any other fair and honest agreement.

"Besides this aggravated guilt, is there not also in non-residence the dreadful crime of perjury? By their own solemn vows, promises, and declarations, the clergy are bound to a diligent and conscientious discharge of their ministerial office. For at their ordination they 'profess, that they are inwardly moved by the Holy Ghost to take upon them this office and ministration, to serve God for the promoting of his glory, and the edifying of his people.' If then they minister not, nor instruct their people by their doctrine and example, may it not be said of them, 'that they lie not unto man but unto God?' They declare also at their ordination, 'that they are determined with the scriptures to instruct the people that shall be committed to their charge; they promise that they will give their faithful diligence always so to minister the doctrine and sacraments, and the discipline of Christ, as the Lord hath commanded, and as this realm hath received the same according to the commandment of God, &c. And they most solemnly ratify and confirm these declarations and promise by receiving the holy communion.' When the clergy therefore absent themselves from their benefices, which are their proper cure and charge, and live in ease and a total neglect of their sacred function, or even when they officiate in other men's churches, and take a plurality of cures, at some of which they neither can nor mean to reside; they then wilfully break those solemn promises which they made and ratified to God and his church, at their ordination, and transgress the strongest and most awful sanctions. Vicars more particularly are sworn to be resident, unless they shall be dispensed with by the diocesan. But bishops have no power to dispense with residence, not authority to license men to neglect their ministerial duty towards the people committed to their care; and many vicars are non-resident without episcopal dispensation, in contempt of their oath. Further, the clergy, when they take possession of their churches, read over to their people the thirty-nine articles of religion, and profess their unfeigned assent and consent unto the same, which, if it have any meaning, must imply, that they will regulate their future preaching and conversation among their

parishioners by these articles. But how many clergymen immediately after entirely neglect their cures, so that it is of no consequence to their people what their religious principles and teachings are? They do not, however, neglect the revenues of their churches; these rewards they exact sometimes with rigour, and always without scruple and without shame, though they do nothing to deserve them, in wilful violation of the strongest divine and human obligations.

"Pluralists and non-residents, indeed, are of opinion, that the appointment of a curate to officiate for them, frees them from the obligations of personal residence and service, and gives them a sufficient right to the revenues of their churches. But others think, that instead of justifying, it only renders them the more criminal; for it is adding injustice and oppression to their other guilt. If they choose not to reside and perform the office themselves, they have no right to the benefice. If the curate performs the services of any church, he has a just claim to its revenues, because they were intended and given by the will of the founder to him only who should reside and officiate in it. To take the wages, therefore, from him who has performed the work for which they were assigned, is oppression. But, say they, the curate is our servant; and as we pay him a certain salary for his labours, which he voluntarily agreed to accept, we do him no wrong. But what right have they to make contracts of this nature, which violate the wills of the first founders of benefices, and are directly repugnant to their pious intentions? Who gave them a right to lord it over their brethren, and to treat as servants, men who are confessedly their equals in spiritual orders and authority? Who empowered them to live in idleness and luxury on the labours of their brother ministers, and to subject them to servitude and want? Christ gave them no such power, nor did his apostles set them any such example: they have expressly prohibited and condemned all such tyranny and oppression; and therefore no others can do it, whatever be their pretended authority."

The third part of this work is devoted to the enquiry, whether the employment of substitutes or curates, by the beneficed clergy, tends to promote the interests of religion and virtue? The conclusion which the author draws from it is, that such an establishment, instead of being favourable, always has been, and ever must continue to be, prejudicial to the cause of religion and morality. To justify this conclusion, he sets out with premising, that "it will be generally allowed, and particularly

by pluralists and non-residents, that the clergy should have a sufficient and liberal support; because this is absolutely necessary to enable them to acquire such knowledge as is requisite for the proper discharge of their duty, and to render them respected and useful in their important profession." In the next place he institutes an enquiry into the stipends, which at different times have been allowed for the support of curates, and into the salaries which at present are by law assigned them. This enquiry exhibits a shameful picture of the almost uniform oppression exercised towards the inferior clergy, from the twelfth century to the reign of Queen Anne, when an act passed in their favour, by which the bishops or ordinaries were empowered to appoint them stipends not exceeding fifty pounds, nor less than twenty pounds a year, according to the greatness or value of the cures which they were nominated to serve. Inadequate as such relief was at that period, it became greatly more so as the price of the necessaries and comforts of life gradually increased till it became nearly doubled; when, at length, "the sufferings of the inferior clergy were so great, and the shame of permitting them to remain under their oppressed state so flagrant, that, in 1796, their case was taken into public consideration, but had not that attention paid to it, which its importance justly deserved. That something ought to be done for them, was universally allowed; but the augmentation which the legislature made of their stipends, was not proportioned to the increase which had taken place in the price of all necessaries of life, since the passing of the statute of the 12th of Anne."

After reciting the provisions of the act passed on this occasion, the author introduces the following reflections relative to its equity, and the extent of the relief which it affords the inferior clergy:

"This statute is more calculated to satisfy the public than the distressed curate, whom it leaves entirely dependent on the pleasure of his diocesan, 'who has power to revoke summarily and without process, any licence granted to any curate employed within his jurisdiction, and to remove such curate for such good and reasonable cause as he shall approve; subject, nevertheless, to an appeal to be made to the archbishop of the

province, and to be determined in a summary manner." But though he has no permanent security of house or stipend, by this statute, this is not the part of it which the curate will find fault with; because he thinks himself safe under the protection of his bishop, from a vexatious removal by his rector or vicar, to which he was formerly liable. The act tells him of the seventy-five pounds a year, with the addition of the rectory or vicarage-house, garden, and stable, or of fifteen pounds in lieu of these, making an income of ninety pounds a year. But it does not secure to him this maintenance; the bishops are under no obligation to assign him this stipend, and he therefore finds it to be *vax et præterea nihil*. All the obligation which it lays on the bishop or ordinary, is, that he shall not assign or allot them more than this income. Here the bishop's power is expressly limited; they shall not assign them more, but they may assign them as much less as they please. On what principle this limitation is founded, the act does not say, and it is difficult to conjecture. For in livings of 500l. and 1000l. per annum and upwards, why should the curate be prevented from having his stipend apportioned according to their value? Is there any reason for such a prohibition? or rather, is not such a limitation contrary to every idea of reason and equity? The legislature appear extremely careful of the interests of the non-resident clergy; but surely they ought not for their sakes to oppress their substitutes, 'who labour in the word and doctrine,' and who have the best claim to their indulgence; 'for they are worthy of double honour.' Had the legislature permitted the bishops to appoint the curate's salary without any restraint or limitation, they need not have been apprehensive that they would have abused their liberty in favour of the curate, to the detriment of the beneficed clergy. Such a thing was never heard of. Few of the prelates exercise their power in favour of the curates as far as the law allows them; and hardly one in a thousand enjoys the stipend to the extent which the statute permits.

"The number of curates in England, on a moderate computation, will amount to 5000; and the greater part of the public services of religion are performed by them. Surely then it highly concerns the government to take care that they be placed in such an establishment, as may render their influence most favourable to the national piety and virtue. But such care never has been taken; and their stipends in general are such as to render their appointment almost useless, not to say injurious to the interests of religion. For of the whole body of curates it may be questioned whether, notwithstanding the last act, 1000 of them have fifty pounds a year, unless they serve two or three churches; though a plurality of curacies should never

be permitted; the stipend of 2000 more may be fairly estimated at forty pounds a year; and the salary of the other 2000 descends from forty to twenty pounds per annum, and even below that sum. If the respective stipends of all the curates in England and Wales, with the number of churches which they supply, were exhibited to public inspection, as also the revenues which pluralists and non-residents receive, and the services severally performed by them, it would discover such a scene of injustice and oppression, as would astonish the nation, and induce every honest and disinterested member of both houses of parliament, who had a sincere regard for the cause of religion and virtue, to undertake a reformation of our ecclesiastical polity in this respect, and either to abolish pluralities and non-residence entirely, or to place the important body of curates on a more equitable and prudent establishment. For supposing each curate to have the full stipend of seventy-five pounds per annum, with the parsonage or vicarage house to reside in, free of rent, neither of which is the case in most instances, yet even this allowance is not sufficient to enable him to live up to his character, and to render him respected and useful in his profession."

This subject the author afterwards illustrates, in different points of view, and then maintains, that such a partial and unequal establishment of the clergy has always given great and general offence to the laity; that it has led some to doubt or disbelieve the truth of Christianity itself; caused others to desert the church of England; and induced many of those who continue within its pale to be negligent and remiss in the performance of their religious duties. In addition to these reasons, to prove that the appointment of curates must be prejudicial to the cause of religion and morality, the author deduces the same conclusion from a discussion of the following positions: that such an establishment deprives them of the means of obtaining that knowledge which their profession necessarily requires for the full and perfect discharge of it; that by it they are deprived of that respect and reverence which should always belong to the sacerdotal character, and are exposed to contempt; that as it holds out no encouragement for men of family and abilities to enter into it, pluralists and non-residents, to suit their convenience, and gratify their indolence, are led to introduce into the church persons of low birth, or who have received an imperfect education,

or who have been bred up to other professions, or exercised mechanical occupations, and who are in every respect unfit for the sacred office of the ministry; that such an establishment will not permit the officiating clergy to exercise that charity and hospitality, which have always been supposed to constitute a part of the ministerial office, and thus deprives them of all that influence and authority which, arising from beneficence, would render them revered, beloved, and useful in their profession; that it prevents them from administering effectually admonition and reproof; and that it also exposes them to low company, betrays them into improper conduct, and prevents them from acting up to the dignity of their sacred character and office.

We shall present our readers with one more extract from his concluding remarks, in which the author gives a summary view of the leading points attempted to be established in his treatise, and draws his general inferences.

"If the national knowledge be at all affected by the learning, and the national manners be in any measure influenced by the religious and moral conduct of the clergy; and if the stability of government, with public peace and order, depend on the general prevalence of piety and virtue, then the amount of the injury done to society by the establishment of curates, who are the chief administrators of religion through the kingdom, and who, from their insufficient maintenance, are unequal to the due discharge of their sacred office, is left to be computed by those who esteem the welfare of their country, and the good of society, objects of important concern.

"But if it be farther considered, that the future interests, and the eternal salvation of men, are affected by this oppressive establishment, the injury will rise in their ideas, till its magnitude will exceed their estimate and their comprehension. This injury, therefore, ought to be prevented by a speedy reformation: and a wise, equal, and liberal establishment of a learned and virtuous clergy, would confer immortal honour upon the government, and be attended with everlasting benefit to the people.

"What mode of reform should be adopted will doubtless appear different to different persons; though all (except those who are interested in the continuance of the present establishment) must confess some reformation to be absolutely necessary for the preservation of religion, and the honour and welfare of the church of England.

"If, indeed, it has been sufficiently demonstrated, that for a clergyman to neglect

his function, and perform his duty by a substitute, is contrary to the very nature of the sacerdotal character and office, to the laws of the gospel which relate to its ministers, and the solemn vows and declarations made by the clergy themselves, at their ordination and institution to their benefices; if it has been proved that such conduct is repugnant not only to the constitution of the ministry, prescribed and established by Christ and his apostles, and adhered to by their successors for several centuries, but also to the primitive constitution of the British clergy, to the design of parochial endowments, and the laws and customs of the church of England, till the time of the Norman conquest; and, further, if it has been sufficiently shown, that the employment of substitutes by the beneficed clergy was introduced into the church in the subsequent ages of extravagant superstition, and founded in various false principles, through the prevalence of ecclesiastical tyranny and corruption; that the establishment of curates has ever been a partial and oppressive system, calculated to benefit one part of the clergy at the expence of the other; that it obstructs the progress of the gospel, and is injurious to the piety and morals of the people, and by consequence to the national welfare; then this inference necessarily follows, that the employment of curates ought to be entirely abolished. This would be the radical and proper reform of this old and offensive corruption.

"But if worldly policy will not allow Christianity this perfect justice, and if the non-residence of the clergy, and their use of substitutes, should appear in some particular instances expedient, in such case it is absolutely necessary that curates should be placed on a liberal establishment, that they may exercise their office with effect, and be of public utility."

The author of this treatise appears to have been guided in what he has written, by pure and zealous wishes for the honour of our established church, and the administration of the public offices of religion, with the greatest possible propriety and effect. The enquiries which he has discussed, are unquestionably of high moment, considered in relation to both those objects; and in his manner of elucidating them, he is entitled to a considerable share of praise, for diligence in investigation, calm reasoning, and temperate urbane language. Our numerous extracts, and analyses of some parts of his work, will assist our readers in forming a judgment whether the author has succeeded, or otherwise, in establishing the pretensions advanced in his title page; but we think that the whole is well worthy of their perusal.

ART. LXXV. *Anguis in Herba! A Sketch of the true Character of the Church of England, and her Clergy; as a Caviat against the Misconstruction of artful, and the Misconception of weak Men, on the Subject of a Bill about to be brought into Parliament, for the Revival of certain Ecclesiastical Statutes concerning Non-residence, &c. &c. &c.* By the Rev. JAMES HOOK, M. A. F. S. A. Domestic Chaplain to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. 8vo. pp. 86.

THE principal objects of Mr. Hook in this animated, and, with the exception of occasional tumid expressions, well written pamphlet, are to convict the author of the last-mentioned treatise of scandalizing and calumniating the system and plau of our ecclesiastical polity; to contest his reasonings and conclusions on the subjects of pluralities and non-residence; and to maintain, that "if ever the established clergy of a nation deserved well, or merited the good opinion and favour of their fellow-countrymen, that of the church of England stands forth conspicuous, and enters a claim on every point comprehensive and indisputable; and if ever the doctrines of the Christian religion were administered with more peculiar attention to the dictates of charity and the spirit of benevolence, with less dogmatical tenaciousness, or freer from the corruption of human alloy at one period than at another, that the present is the period of these most serious and estimable advantages." Before he proceeds to his immediate business, however, he enters into an explanation of his principles and motives; when he takes the opportunity of expressing, in pointed and indignant language, his detestation of the French revolution, and the effects produced by it on the civil and religious state of society, and of maintaining, that our modern "self-erected reformers" and innovators, are influenced by the same mischievous views with the licentious actors on the Gallic scene; that "they are men who make authority and tyranny synonymous, who pursue liberty under the fleeting form of revolutionary usurpation, and cultivate infidelity and atheism as the essence and perfection of liberality." These accusations, as our readers well know, are not of a novel nature, and appear to have been considered by our author as so indisputably well founded, that they required no kind of proof, and would be admitted on his bare assertion. After representing these men as having been foiled in a bold attempt upon the civil authority of this country, he endeavours to convince the reader

that the ecclesiastical branch of our establishment has been of late the peculiar object of their attention, against which their operations have been carried on, not only by open and direct attack, but upon the plan of malignant misrepresentation, or under the insidious guise of friendship.

"It is generally understood, that a bill which has been some time preparing, is about to be brought into parliament, to revise and amend some ecclesiastical statutes, and more particularly the act of the 21st of Henry VIII. which has of late been perverted by some venal informers, to the oppression of the clergy, and the degradation of the church herself. It is further reported, that some new arrangements are to be proposed upon the subject. I profess myself totally ignorant of what those arrangements may be, or what the modification of the existing ecclesiastical law. These I leave to the reverend bench, from whose councils they are to proceed, in full confidence that they will equally avoid trespassing beyond the rights of the church, or sacrificing the privileges and advantages to which she is justly entitled.

"On such an occasion it was not to be expected that the genius of jacobinism would remain inactive. The attention of the legislature is called to the calm discussion of certain points in our church discipline, and the party have lost no time in endeavouring to prepare the public mind to meet it. In public, in private, in the highways, and in bye places, through the medium of letters, pamphlets, and journals, the church has been aspersed, and her clergy misrepresented in the most flagrant manner. They have availed themselves of a prejudice, which it is impossible to say, is not in some degree founded in justice; a prejudice confirmed by history, and strengthened by every writer of common honesty: but though the propriety of its formation is unquestionable, yet must I on every point dispute its application to the times in which we live. They search the dusty records of antiquity to rake up the abuses of priestcraft; these index-hunters find church and corruption often linked together, and have no idea that they are separable.

"Though we certainly know very little respecting the state of the church in Britain before the mission of Austin by Pope Gregory, yet, like the fabulous periods with respect to which history has left us in the dark,



and the poet's fancy has furnished us with golden ages and arcadian felicities; these good men have in the most glowing colours painted the simple and beautiful emanations of their own imagination, as the rights and customs of our primitive church. If they had really bewildered themselves in their inquiry, and had caught some clue which enthusiasm had pursued till the truth became unintentionally obscured, we might be led to attribute their conduct at least to a conscientious though misguided motive: but the fact forbids this lenity; they inherit from their poetical archetypes the spirit of invention as well as the talent of embellishment, and the weaker the foundation they are able to lay in strict verity, the greater latitude they allow themselves in resorting to the aid of fiction.

"Another incentive, however, to this decorative species of description, is the happy effect of contrast, which they are able to produce by opposing the primitive excellence to the succeeding corruption of the English church.

"Now, I am willing to admit all that can be urged against the abuses, the inordinances and intrigues of our ecclesiastics during a long period of our history (with many great and brilliant exceptions); and I am moreover willing to take advantage of the same effect of contrast, of light and shade, of which they appear so proud; yet, though I profess to adopt the same means, my end, I suspect, will not be so congenial with theirs: with the premises I am satisfied; but their conclusions I deny. I oppose those very corruptions (which I deprecate equally with themselves) not to their supposed and imaginary excellence, not to the dark and unrecorded simplicity of our early Christians, but to the virtues and excellence of our present establishment, as corrected and amended by the progress of civilization and the accession of talent:—to our church as it now stands, steady to the true and unsophisticated worship of God, bereft of all its grossness, purged of its superstition, and served by a clergy whose principles, talents, and deportment as a body, or taken individually, whose utility and beneficial exertions as members of the community, may challenge Europe for a parallel at any period of history. Perfection is not an attribute of human nature; it stands out of the mortal economy. No man who wishes to establish a rule, would be so wildly enthusiastic as to suppose it without exception. The very admission (which we dare not dispute) of the frailty of our nature, implies, that in an establishment of such magnitude some errors must remain uncorrected, and that individuals may be admitted into its bosom who do not exactly correspond with the character I have ventured to set down of the clergy.

"What I would enforce is, that during a long period of the history of our church,

the account of great or good men was overbalanced by that of the worldly and ambitious; but that now the balance is reversed, and that the exception applies to the defaulters.

"The cabals and intrigues which once disgraced the preachers of the gospel, have no longer any existence. The plan of society has varied with the times, and a recurrence of past corruptions among ecclesiastics is impossible."

Among those who have engaged in the party adverse to our present establishment, Mr. Hook classes the author of "The Necessity of the Abolition of Pluralities," &c.; and after giving him all credit for his manner, passes the following judgment on his matter, and the ground on which a part of his argument is built: "He has varied the language, and refined the diction, but at the same time it must be confessed that he has very closely pursued the spirit and beat of a *presbyterian son of the church* who wrote about the middle of the last century ("Pluralities indefensible," &c.) with some novelties of his own."

"After having by his *fiat* dispossessed every pluralist, and enforced indiscriminate residence, he stigmatizes, though he would appear the champion of the order of curates; he deplores the insufficiency and inadequacy of their stipends to their labours, but in the same breath divides them by so palpable a line from their beneficed brethren, that they might fairly be mistaken for a different sect. Surely in the eagerness of his zeal he forgets that the curate has received as regular an education, has produced to the bishop as well certified testimonials, and (if he be a priest) has been admitted into the bosom of the church under the same form and ordination as his neighbour the vicar or the rector—as our metropolitan himself. Nay further, if he take all the beneficed clergymen of the establishment, the dignitaries of the church, and the bishops at their head, I verily believe he will find (with very few exceptions), that they have all, at one period of their lives, served the office of curate; and yet were any foreigner ignorant of the nature of our church polity, to peruse the treatise before us, he must necessarily conclude the office of curate to be at least like that of the early deacons, a sort of attendant in the temple and upon the superior clergy, whose humbleness may be suited to his employment, but who could never be preferred to the sacred office of reading or preaching the word of God.

"I suspect the body will not feel much indebted to this author for his line of demarcation; but to shew how far people may sometimes be led away by following up a

favourite dogma too closely, if we examine the ground upon which he builds his strong arguments in this instance, we shall find that it is to their poverty and contracted incomes, that he attributes the want of respect and attention from the people to substitutes, not considering that in setting up this plea, the cause takes a far wider range than he is aware of, and from the title of his treatise, certainly than he would wish or intend."

"When he allows himself time for reflection, and takes into his consideration that two-thirds of the whole of the church livings are under 100*l. per annum*, he will find that it is the cause of the majority of beneficiaries, the poverty of the church herself, and not of her curates, that he has so feelingly and justly deplored. It is an instance of charity, which I confess I did not expect at first starting. I agree most cordially with him, that '*The poor man's wisdom is despised, and that his words are not heard;*' but he must in return (and he cannot refuse) admit, that it is the poorly beneficed rector, *whose authority is despised, and the words of a starving vicar, as well as the stipendiary curate, which lack of conviction, because unsupported by a sufficient endowment. He will not suffer in a liberal discussion like the present, any partial, party philanthropy to bias his judgment. Upon the great scale I will meet him upon any possible arrangement towards the amelioration of every class in life. Such philanthropy is the first of virtues, and next to our duty to God himself, is the great injunction of our Redeemer; but when I hear a favourite opinion defended, upon the principle of brotherly love, whilst the spirit of intrigue and malevolence is exerting its baneful influence in the cause; when I find rebellion assume the exalted and revered form of patriotism, and schism dictate to our church upon the subject of her rights and establishments, I must be convinced that there is a snake in the grass; nor can I ever be brought to sanction licence as the painted doll of liberty, or welcome vice under the semblance of a high-flown morality."*

Afterwards Mr. Hook devotes several pages to a defence of the existing establishment, by taking a brief view of the state of the Christian church as connected with the history of this country, from the time of Austin to the present moment, and maintaining that at no period was the church, as a church, so correct, pure, and praise-worthy as at this day.

We shall now present to our readers a specimen of Mr. Hook's manner of defending the practice of pluralities, in opposition to the censures of reformers.

"If all benefices were of an equal value, the justice of their censures would be evi-

dent and irresistible, for our principal argument for the continuance of the long existing custom would necessarily fall to the ground; but that any injury can arise, or the cause of religion be more affected by a minister holding two benefices of 250*l. per annum*, than by holding one only of 500*l.* I cannot, I confess, discover or comprehend, particularly as the pluralist is (on the face of the dispensation to hold two livings) entitled to an advantage from superior learning or piety, or other admissions for dispensation which he cannot even obtain by this, as his unalike neighbour is as well endowed as himself; nay better, for a curate must be provided for the benefice on which he does not reside.

"The reader will perceive that I am speaking of pluralities, as they are restricted in our day.—It is necessary to premise that as a defence against the unqualified and indiscriminate abuse which has been lavished on pluralities, in a general point of view, with a reserved application *in petto*, to the existing custom. For our opponents invent axioms and pervert quotations; they apply censures on corruptions which exist in one corner of the globe, to people who inhabit another. Principles as opposite as the Poles are brought into one focus, and the crimes and errors of our ancestors are, by their lethæan potations, lost in the mist of antiquity, and the severity which they excited in the breasts of their wiser or more virtuous contemporaries, is hurled in multiplied application upon us their poor descendants; but as well might our present race of females be stigmatised as gross and sensual, because Queen Elizabeth and her maids of honour breakfasted on beef steaks; or, in a more serious tone, deny the excellence of our present happy and blessed state, because kings have been tyrants, and princes the scourge of their people.

"Their conclusions upon an apt quotation, are as rapid as the evolutions of a juggler, and general observations are applied with an individuality that would surprise a novice in these affairs. They mince and garble as their purposes require, and by a partial scrap, belie the context from which they feloniously purloin. The scriptures are industriously searched for authorities, to prove the church in a state of delinquency. Every gospel and epistle is ransacked for general censures, which may, by a little management, be fixed on our church exclusively. How lamentable a reflection is it, that in such a consultation of the sacred volume, those principles of charity, mercy and benevolence, which are its peculiar characteristics, should never have attracted their eye, or forced their way to the heart. *But they "having swerved (from charity) have turned aside to vain jangling, desiring to be teachers of the land, understanding neither what they say, nor whereof they affirm."* They are,

alas! like the Scribes and Pharisees, who lay in wait for our Saviour, "*catch something out of his mouth that they might accuse him.*"

"As so much has been urged with respect to original intension in the founders of endowments, and upon the primitive system of parochial institutions, it will not be amiss to enquire a little into the cause and origin of plurality, so grossly perverted in succeeding times.

"Before the clergy quitted their conventional state and religious communities, or became parochial residents on their benefices, a perfect (or nearly so) equality obtained among them—little or no distinction was observed. The revenues of each church were paid into a general exchequer of the diocese, and the stipends or allowance to each parochial officary equally distributed. But this custom soon fell into disuse; and when the priests came to maintain themselves upon the produce and profits arising out of their individual benefices, that inequality of endowment which has existed to the present hour, immediately took place. The extent and boundaries of the parishes depeided upon the property of the first founders of the churches, and varied necessarily with their possessions; some embraced a very large territory, whilst others were confined to a mere hamlet. This naturally produced a sensation of discontent in the minds of those who were appointed to the inferior endowments, and as naturally awakened a desire in them to obtain redress or remuneration for this evident though unavoidable injustice. Injustice it must be acknowledged in the first instance, for where a community of interests, and in some degree of talents, had existed, so disproportionate an allotment could not in equity be defended. No reason, no pretext, can evade the charge, though we may admit it was in a great measure unavoidably incurred. If our modern reformers will but concede this, (and for my part I do not see how they can do otherwise,) they must admit that a remedy (whatever that might afterwards turn out to be) was justifiable; nay, founded in strict justice. That remedy, then, was most clearly PLURALITY—the annexing a living within a certain distance of that already possessed, and the rendering two benefices, under certain restrictions, tenable with each other.

"This was the cause and origin of the long deprecated evil, and are we, because the indulgence was afterwards carried to an unwarrantable height, and engendered corruptions by holding out temptations to men of inordinate or ambitious nature—because it drew men for the sake of "*filthy lucre,*" to break through all rules of decency and moderation, and avail themselves of unenforced laws to aggrandize themselves, and engross the revenues of the church—because canons have anathematized, bad popes countenanced,

and good kings feebly endeavoured to check the odious corruption—are we, I say, to pull down the custom when truly purged of its excess, in its reformed, in its primitive, restored state (which it may now fairly be esteemed), and deprive the church of the power of rewarding merit or piety, or dispensing in her wisdom those benefits to which she may owe her brightest ornaments? Now that the mellowing hand of time and gradual amendment have rendered the lays against corruption nugatory, and penal statutes (with some exceptions) inapplicable, and scarcely known but to the antiquarian? Shall we exact to the very letter? As well might we shackle the liberty of the press because our church and constitution are assailed by artful and wilful misrepresentations, such as I have reluctantly been led to notice. Justice would be violated by the abolition of pluralities restrained by the wholesome regulations that obtain in the present practice of the church of England. It might, it is true, be better to have an original good than a remedy for the loss of it. A more equal valuation of church livings might, for aught I can urge to the contrary, be desirable; but in the present matured state of the establishment, that is impracticable, and more particularly since the spoliation of the church revenues by Henry VIII. But surely we are not called upon on this account to shut our eyes and ears to the claims of equity.

*Malum bene positum non est temerè removendum.*

The removal of a *decided* evil requires caution, and, though a state maxim, applies equally to the government of the church, to which it is unalienably allied; but where the evil is doubtful, and the consequences of its removal still more so, our caution should be doubled."

To his defence of pluralities Mr. Hook subjoins the following reply to the objections of reformers against non-residence:

"Were this made out upon the great scale which our enemies insist, or were it a general and prevailing evil, I should agree with them that a decided and severe check should be applied without delay. But that it is so, as far as my own observation and a very strict and rigid enquiry bear me out, I do utterly deny. No man can more seriously deprecate the conduct of a minister, who wantonly, or without strong reasons, absents himself wholly from his benefice. As a general rule it would indeed degrade the church; as an exception, it must be admitted, and under certain restrictions can never, I should conceive, be done away. Let any dispassionate man look over the list of prosecutions upon the statute against non-residence, within these last two years, and he will find the hardship of enforcing indiscriminate

residence, and the oppression of a law designed against a glaring corruption, when applied to an inferior misdemeanor.

"In several of these instances we find the penalty necessarily exacted by the letter of the statute, levied against men who could not possibly reside; and it is not likely that the worthy informer would have selected the least offending part of the body for his legal attack and persecution. I do not therefore conceive that the evil complained of, is of such an extent as represented by those who have an interest or point to carry in the misrepresentation. Such, however, as it exists, must be the object of our consideration; and though I in common with all conscientious men, deem it incumbent upon every beneficed clergyman to reside upon his preferment, yet should circumstances arise to establish a sufficient plea or excuse for absenting himself, I do not by any means take in all that string of horrors to my account, which an author I have so frequently noticed, has enumerated and deplored. The principal bent of his argument is here from scriptural authority, upon which he denies the propriety of employing substitutes. But surely the very principle upon which the Christian religion was first propagated, was delegated commission to preach the word; and is not the vicarial appointment of a substitute acknowledged in this principle? Yet does this gentleman, like many preceding authors, who have taken up the dispute on this same ground, deny that the use of substitutes is defensible upon any scripture admission. What are the subordinate ranks of deacons in the early churches, who acted upon delegated authority, though perhaps in inferior offices? and the appointment of the *ὑποπρωτοπρεσβυτερος*, called by Vossius the *Vicarius olosorum Episcoporum*, is certainly a sufficiently strong evidence of the early introduction of substitutes in the church. This for historical evidence, and let me ask what is the establishment of every vicarage in the present hour, throughout the kingdom, but the appointment of a *Vicarius*, or substitute for the lay impropriator; and surely he will not remove the bandage from one eye of justice and leave the other still covered! Let his reform begin by restoring to the church her just rights and posses-

sions, and when her revenues are no longer in lay hands, let him exclaim, as he has before done, upon the heinousness of pluralities and non-residence, and the corrupt practices of our clergy, from 'the mitred prelate down to the humble curate;' till then why should he tolerate or sanction such partial indulgence, or why shall the lay impropriator be permitted quietly to receive the emoluments, &c. whilst the whole duty to which they were originally appropriated is performed by a substitute? I entertain no such high-flown, wild ideas as to imagine that these alienated revenues can or ever will be restored; I only would pacify his lay wrath against clerical delinquency, by shewing how differently he has treated offenders in the same degree, and with what a discriminating hand he has dispensed his pardons, and fulminated his anathemas."

These pleas in answer to the objections against non-residence are followed by an enquiry into the motives of Henry VIII. in procuring the statute against that practice, under which the late prosecutions of many clergymen have been conducted; a view of his gradual encroachments upon the patrimony of the church, and an estimate of the amount of his spoliations; a state of the present finances of the church, taken from the Bishop of Landaff's Letter to the Archbishop of Canterbury; and further observations in defence of the character of the clergy, intended to corroborate the author's former statements to shew that, whether considered "as the servants of God, or as members of society, they move in every sphere of life so as to secure the respect due to their sacred calling, and attach the regard and gratitude of their fellow citizens by the useful exertion of their talents, industry, and learning." Such are the contents of this treatise, from which we have given sufficiently ample quotations to enable our readers, to decide on the author's merits as a logician, and as an energetic elegant writer.

ART. LXXVI. *Observations on Dr. Sturges's Pamphlet respecting Non-residence of the Clergy; in a Letter from T. B. HOWELL, Esq. to BARON MASERES.* 8vo. pp. 63.

THIS temperate, and elegant little treatise, is the production of a gentleman who avows himself "a sincere Christian, and a hearty friend to the church of England; a friend to her ministers, and to the measured wealth, the mild dignity, and the modest splendour of her establishment." With Mr. Burke, he "would not relegate religion

to obscure municipalities, or rustic villages. He can, without pain, see an archbishop precede a duke; a bishop of Durham, or Winchester, in possession of 10,000l. a year, &c." But, he adds, "I am not, therefore, to lose sight of the great purposes for which national churches were established and endowed; or to forget, that the interests of re-

ligion are paramount to those of her clergy, and that all the rights of the members of that body, as such, are derived from, and held in subservience to the religion of which they are the ministers."

He commences his work by contrasting Dr. Sturges's "elegant but frigid" remarks on the *propriety* of clergymen's residing on their respective benefices, with the sentiments of bishop Horsley, and the learned Hooker, on this subject; but before he proceeds to consider the details of his pamphlet, enumerates, from Blackstone, the classes of men, who, being parish priests, are yet enabled to absent themselves from a parish, of which they may have the benefice, without incurring the penalties imposed by the statute 21 Henry VIII. For this enumeration we must refer our readers either to the author's pamphlet, or the authority whence he has taken it. On these exemptions the author observes, "that they tend to bereave at least a sufficient number of parishes of resident incumbents. They take out of the scope of the statute at least a sufficient number of cases of parochial non-residence, and, I verily believe, quite as large a number as Dr. Sturges could supply meritorious reasons for it." After shewing that they apply to the most important cases for which the doctor pleads, he proceeds to notice a particular case, on which his observations are such as merit attention.

"Dr. Sturges has mentioned as claimants, for exemption from residence, those ecclesiastics who are occupied as tutors at home, or companions abroad, to young men of fortune. That several ecclesiastics are so employed, I recognise with pleasure; for, by this connection, I conceive that 'we attach our gentlemen to the church, and liberalise the church by an intercourse with the leading characters of the country.' But I am not bound, therefore, to admit that they have a right to exemption from the duties of parish priests, or that, if they had such right, the statute against non-residence should therefore be repealed. As to the latter point, I very much doubt whether we should find, on a particular examination, that the number of clergymen thus rendered obnoxious to the laws against non-residence, is so considerable, as to merit much national attention. The whole number thus engaged, cannot be very great; of these, the proportion having parochial benefices, I believe to be extremely small; and of that small

proportion some are, as chaplains, and otherwise, protected from the penalties of non-residence.

"But why are any parochial clergymen thus employed? It is evident, and it is notorious, that there are abundance of members of the universities, and other ecclesiastics, unattached to parochial benefices, who are willing and perfectly qualified to engage in this other sort of occupation. Why then are the parochial clergy to be called from their bounden duties? And why, if they listen to this call, are they to be thought objects of particular favour and indulgence?

"A parochial benefice is by no means an unconditional freehold. He, who accepts it, imposes on himself conscientious and legal duties—among others, the conscientious duty of residence, and legal subjection to the penalties, enacted against the breach of it. When St. Paul says, that *they who wait at the altar, should live of the sacrifice*, he plainly implies, at the same time, the converse of his proposition, that they who live of the sacrifice, should wait at the altar. The duties and the emoluments are correlative. And though our forefathers, in their wise and salutary attachment to a church establishment, have 'not entrusted that great fundamental interest of the whole, to the unsteady and precarious contribution of individuals,' but have given the greatest possible stability and security to the provision of this establishment; yet have they not by any means released the ministers of the church, from those original, eternal obligations, which form the fundamental considerations, for the appropriations of the revenues set apart for their use.

"Subject to these obligations were all parochial benefices accepted, and subject to these are they retained. When measures are taken to compel performance of them, complaint is groundless; and the obvious answer to it is, that which our great poet has represented as suggesting itself to the first man, in refutation of his querulousness against his Creator.

—Too late

They thus contest. Then should have been refused  
Those terms whatever, when they were proposed.  
Thou didst accept them. Wilt thou enjoy the good,  
Then cavil the conditions?

"The station of a parochial incumbent (he is called incumbent, Blackstone tells us, in contemplation of constant residence) is his parish. Spartam nactus es: hanc exorna. He is there, not merely to run over the ritual services of religion, but to administer her instruction, her charities, her consolations, to the ignorant, the poor, and the afflicted. It is not by a weekly lecture from the pulpit, but by constant, vigilant, systematic dili-



gence, in season and out of season, here a little and there a little, line upon line, and precept upon precept, that he is to instruct his flock in their religious, and in their civil duties; to teach them to fear God, and to honour the king. If he suffer himself to be seduced from this strait path, truly he will have his reward; but he has only slender cause of reproach to any besides himself, if legal chastisement fall upon him."

In the next place, Mr. Howell controverts Dr. Sturges's reasoning against the enforcement of parochial residence, on the plea, that the poorer clergy, who are possessed of small, inadequate benefices, who keep schools in convenient situations, or resort to other laudable expedients of industry or æconomy, may be oppressed by that measure; and enters into a confutation of his opinion, that the profession of the church would, by such a restraint, be rendered so discouraging, as to deter young men of good connections, and promising abilities, from engaging in it. To his arguments he adds the assurance, that

"Dr. Sturges has little cause to fear, that two archbishoprics, twenty-four bishoprics, six and twenty deaneries, the splendid appointments in the churches of Durham, St. Paul's, Westminster, Christ Church, Windsor, Canterbury, and Worcester, besides the desirable and affluent stations in the other cathedrals and collegiate churches, in the universities, among the parochial benefices, and the whole mass of Irish preferments, will lose their power of attracting, to the churches of the united kingdom, a sufficient number of 'young men of good connexions, and promising abilities.'"

On Dr. Sturges's recommendation, that the compulsion of residence, instead of being enforced by the penalties of a clear, determinate, unyielding law, should be left on a vague, discretionary power in the bishops, he remarks, in general, that judicial discretion is an abomination; and fortifies his opinion by quoting the memorable language of Lord Camden,

"It is better to leave a rule inflexible, than permit it to be bent by the discretion of a judge. The discretion of a judge is the law of tyrants: it is always unknown: it is different in different men: it is casual, and depends upon constitution, temper, and passion. In the best, it is oftentimes caprice; in the worst, it is every vice, folly, and passion, to which human nature is liable."

But he adds,

"Perhaps it may be supposed, that in the ANN. REV. VOL. I.

case now before us, some special grounds of exemption from the general principle, may be applicable to those reverend persons for whom this discretion is arrogated.

"I am sensible that I now approach tender ground: *incedo per ignes, suppositos cineri doloso*.

"I feel what 'respect is due to high place, what tenderness to living reputation, and what veneration to genius and learning.' And I trust, that I shall not give just offence to any of whom I am about to speak, by a temperate expression of my sentiments, on a point of deep and extensive concernment.

"Many reasons then, over and above that I have not yet seen any proof of cause for the repeal of the statute 21. Henry VIII. strongly impress upon me, that the enforcement of the residence of parochial clergy, should not be wholly committed to the voluntary interposition of the bishops."

These reasons we shall give in the author's words, confining ourselves to their outlines, excepting when his enlargement is necessary to convey an idea of their force and application.

"First, in the human character is universally acknowledged to exist, (and it may, with perfect freedom from guilt, exist in a very considerable and effective degree) a principle of *esprit du corps*; a principle which, in its mildest operation, is apt to subject a man to a more lively sensibility of the rights, and a less acute feeling of the duties of those with whom he is, either by profession or by habits of life, assimilated, than of others. From this principle, most unquestionably, the body of the clergy is not exempt.

"Secondly, I find not, that the successive bodies of bishops, notwithstanding the anxiety on the subject, from time to time, expressed by individuals among them, have been very active in enforcing that residence, which I hold to be of so great national consequence, and of which it is now proposed, that they alone should have the compulsion.

"Thirdly, supposing all our bishops to be completely purified from every gross taint of mortal corruption, yet we cannot expect them to be entirely free from the frailties of humanity. Some will be indolent, some will be timid, some will be too easy tempered. Their very virtues may subject them to misconduct in occasions which would occur

"Fourthly, length of days weakens the power of resistance, and disables and inclines from exertions of trouble. In reward for the regularity and temperance of our prelates, their lives are ordinarily extended to very long periods. Of the existing twenty-six, one fifth, I believe, have seen more than fourscore years. Is it safe, is it decent, to impose on the infirmity and decrepitude, on the languor and irresolution of

such advanced age, the new task of combating the pertinacious importunity of every clamorous claimant for indulgence, throughout an extensive diocese?

"In fine, *quis custodiet ipsos custodes*? It is by no means absolutely impossible, that a bishop himself may be obnoxious to the charge of neglecting the duty of residence. And how then would he interpose to enforce the performance of it in another? With what propriety could, for instance, a bishop of Llandaff (I refer to the known delinquency of this learned prelate—*clará et multá virtute redempti*,—with the respectful and anxious embarrassment of a child, compelled to remonstrate against the misconduct of a parent); with what propriety could that prelate, possessing a bishopric in South Wales, a professorship of divinity in Cambridge, and a parochial benefice in Leicestershire, yet holding his residence on a lay estate in Westmoreland; with what propriety, consistency, or decency, with what sincerity, or seriousness, I ask, could he undertake to censure, for neglect of the duty of which we speak, the beneficed clergy of Monmouthshire or Glamorganshire? But let us turn aside from this mortifying contemplation of reality, to the supposition of some other possible but fictitious case. Let us suppose an English bishop, of ample revenues, and in no lack of episcopal mansions, induced to pay a long visit to foreign countries, by some, in itself, innocent, but voluntary motive; a wish perchance to "survey the sumptuousness of palaces, or the stateliness of temples, to make accurate measurements of the remains of antient grandeur, or to form a scale of the curiosity of modern art;

to collect medals, or to collate manuscripts." In his absence, if haply he could find within his bishopric a man, who, to the consideration and dignity resulting from the appointments of parish priest, chancellor of his diocese, prebendary of his cathedral, and chaplain to our royal master, should add the still higher dignities of eminent talents, a benevolent heart, and spotless integrity of life; he would eagerly devolve on such a character the vicarious discharge of his high and weighty functions.

"Of such a case Dr. Sturges will allow, that the occurrence is not impossible. And let me ask him, with what feelings he, as such vicar-general, would set about to exercise a discretionary power of coercion, on the non-resident clergy of his non-resident bishop?"

On the other topics which Dr. Sturges has introduced into his pamphlet, our author does not enlarge, as they are either totally unconnected with the grand question at issue between them, relative to the justice and necessity of enforcing, by statute, the parochial residence of the clergy, or merely respecting matters of subordinate regulation. Whatever may be Dr. Sturges's opinion of the weight and conclusiveness of the author's strictures, he will find no reason to complain of the acerbity of any of his remarks; and the doctor's friends will be gratified by the delicate compliments which his opponent has paid him.

ART. LXXVII. *Proposals for a new Arrangement of the Revenue and Residence of the Clergy.* By E. POULTER. 8vo. pp. 38.

IT will not be denied, we presume, that a large proportion of the disgraceful quarrels which are continually springing up between the clergy and laity, arise from the institution of tythes. In a few instances, the clergy themselves, by unnecessary rigour, and harassing punctiliousness, in the collection of their dues, have become justly odious to their parishioners. For the most part, however, on this point, they are rather sinned against than sinning: the moral sense of a farmer is apt to be much less acute than his sense of profit; and a dexterous imposition on his rector, troubles his conscience about as much as a successful voyage does a smuggler. From whatever cause, however, they arise, it is greatly to be wished, that these eternal bickerings could be put an end to, or at least mitigated. Various

substitutes for the ecclesiastical revenue from tythes have been proposed by individuals among the clergy, as well as among the laity; but the church, with a wise preference of landed to funded security, has shewn little disposition to acquiesce in a temporary augmentation of income, at the hazard of its stability. Landed property equivalent to the value of the tythes, is not at the disposal of the community; it is obvious, therefore, that no other plan than a modification of the present system, can be proposed by the one party, and accepted by the other. In this point of view, Mr. Poulter's proposals are entitled to serious consideration. They would abolish the odious practice, and with it the disagreeable necessity of taking tythes in kind, would, in a great measure, put a stop to personal disputes between the

clergyman and the farmer; and would neither alter the security, diminish the present value, nor prevent the progressive improvement of the revenue of the established church.

The observations of Mr. P. with respect to the duty of residence, and the necessity of enforcing it, are temperate, judicious, and convincing. A strict at-

tention to this important branch of ecclesiastical discipline might delay, for a time, the arrival of that state which is fast approaching, when every parish in England, as is now almost universally the case in Scotland, shall contain a larger number of seceders than of adherents to the national church.

ART. LXXVIII. *Substance of the Speech of the Right Honourable Sir WILLIAM SCOTT, delivered in the House of Commons, April 7, 1802, upon a Motion for Leave to bring in a Bill relative to the Non-residence of the Clergy, and other Affairs of the Church.* 8vo. pp. 58.

THE statute of Henry VIII. respecting the clergy, subjected them for non-residence, and for engaging professionally in certain secular occupations, to be prosecuted by information, in the civil courts. Many instances of such prosecutions having lately occurred, especially for non-residence, Sir W. Scott proposed a bill to parliament for the

purpose of quashing all such prosecutions, and rendering, for the future, the clergy amenable only to their ecclesiastical superiors for breaches of ecclesiastical duty. How far this will conduce to the interest of the church, and the welfare of society, time will show. For our own part, we think it an injudicious measure.

ART. LXXIX. *The Recorder: being a Collection of Tracts and Disquisitions, chiefly relative to the modern State and Principles of the People called Quakers.* By WM. MATTHEWS, of Bath. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 311.

FROM the time of Barclay till within a few years past, the society of Friends, as far as can be gathered from the few notices that have been published concerning them, neglecting literature, science, and the various branches of profane knowledge, appear to have confined their attention to the prudent management of their individual and common concerns: and it is a singular fact, that a religious association, distinguished in its origin for the wildest and most frantic enthusiasm, should, without changing its principles, have reduced its practice to the strictest discipline of sobriety and good sense. By prudence and frugality the sect is become rich: and wealth, in many of them, seems to have produced, as is natural in all sectaries strictly educated, both good and bad effects, which have almost an equal tendency to separate them from the connexions in which they have been brought up. In the idly disposed it has fostered a foolish vanity, a mean sensibility of shame and contempt for the plain habits and manners of their ancestors. In the more ingenuous, the more serious, the more inquiring, by affording leisure and means, it has fostered a curiosity for literature, a taste

for investigation, an ardent desire of exerting the faculties upon subjects interesting either for their novelty or importance. Hence the religious and political maxims of the society begin to be canvassed, and, in consequence, examples of schism have made their appearance. Expulsion has, in some cases, been resorted to, and the expelled have published their reasons for dissent. Of this number is W. Matthews, the author of the present work. The subjects on which he differs from the society, are, 1st. With regard to the payment of tythes, which he considers as a mere tax levied by the authority of the state, and therefore no more to be resisted than the payment of any other impost. 2d. He differs from the established religious creed of his sect, in denying the doctrine of the Trinity, and of the eternity of future punishment.

Several of the tracts in this volume, refer to the transactions against Hannah Barnard, a preacher in the society, who has been silenced for unsound notions on the subject of the Fall, and the Atonement, which her accusers, with the usual candour of zealots, represent as leading directly to deism and atheism.

ART. LXXX. *Reasons for withdrawing from Society with the People called Quakers, &c.*  
By JOHN HANCOCK. 8vo.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Lisburne, is another of the expelled members from the society of Friends. His objections are partly to the discipline of the sect, and partly to their religious tenets. He accuses them of pride, of worldly-mindedness, and differs from them on the doctrine of the Trinity, the Atonement, the

inspiration, and, as appears to us, the authenticity of the Scriptures.

Both this and the preceding article are interesting, as again introducing the quakers into the pages of ecclesiastical history, from which they have been so long absent.

### METAPHYSICS.

ART. LXXXI. *An original Essay on the Immateriality and Immortality of the Human Soul, founded solely on physical and rational Principles.* By S. DREW. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 306.

IT has always appeared to us that far too great stress has been laid upon the purely metaphysical arguments by which various learned, ingenious, and pious men have endeavoured to confirm and illustrate the principal dogmas of our holy religion. The existence of a powerful and intelligent first cause, is clearly demonstrated from the deductions of reason, upon a survey of the inanimate and animated wonders of creation, that every where present themselves to our view. The profusion of life, the vast variety of forms in which it resides, the infinitely diversified, yet admirable means by which its great ends are accomplished, all bespeak the stupendous and adorable wisdom of God. His general goodness, in apportioning a large balance of happiness to his creatures, is deducible from the experience of every day; and the murmurs which impatience would raise, the anxious doubts which reason is incapable of repressing, when vice appears triumphant, and virtue sinks in the dust, are most satisfactorily relieved by the Christian revelation. Our hope and faith thus highly authorised, thus divinely assured, render us, we confess, somewhat indifferent to those more circuitous, and less satisfactory methods, by which the human intellect, without superior aid, has endeavoured to arrive at the same conclusions. The natural arguments for a future state, the materiality or immateriality of the human soul, the freedom of the will, or its necessary subservience to motives, are subjects upon which the most ardent and ingenuous inquirers after truth have differed, and will continue so to do to the conclusion of time, "and find no end, in wandering mazes lost."

The present essay appears before us with three recommendations to our special notice. In the first place, it has arrived, in a few months, at a second edition, a circumstance of itself sufficiently remarkable in a work of this nature, which is not calculated to suit the taste of the great mass of theological readers. In the second place, it is dedicated to that pillar of orthodoxy in the Anglican church, the rev. J. Whitaker. "Superior to those local prejudices," says Mr. Drew, "which might have influenced a mind devoid of magnanimity, you have more than called yourself my friend; while, stimulated by your encouragement, I have prosecuted with vigour the present work, which, abstracted from this circumstance, would, in all probability, never have seen completion—the link which united completion to publication, originated also with you." In the third place, the preface to this edition is (perhaps a little ostentatiously) preceded by the high sanction of a work which peculiarly devotes itself to the detection of heresy, both civil and ecclesiastical, in all its protean forms, and which thus terminates a panegyric upon Mr. Drew, in terms that savour more of blasphemy than sound judgment: "he is the untutored child of nature, deriving no advantage from education, indebted only and immediately to heaven for a reach of thought astonishingly great! for a mind to which all the matter of the universe seems but an atom; and in himself exhibiting a splendid proof, that the soul of man is immortal." Such being the circumstances under which this book presents itself to us, we think ourselves obliged to pay more attention to it than its merits

alone can, in our opinion, justly demand. The first part of the work is an illustration of the immateriality of the human soul. After reading the chapters relative to this subject, two or three times, in order to familiarize ourselves with the style, and peculiar strain of thought which the author has adopted, we hope to be able to convey to our readers a tolerably clear idea of as singular a tissue of absurdity and contradiction as ever was woven by metaphysical artist.

Every thing that exists, is either material or spiritual substance. The essential properties of matter are solidity, magnitude, and figure. The qualities that characterize the human soul, are consciousness, perception, &c. "If the substance from which these qualities flow be *material*, it then follows, that matter itself must think. And if mere matter, considered as such, be capable of thinking, thinking must be an essential property of its nature; and if so, no portion of matter can exist abstracted from it: without admitting this, its *essentiality* is done away." Now, if thought is the property of every portion of matter, as matter is infinitely divisible, consciousness must be so too, which is absurd.

This is the first step of Mr. Drew's demonstration; upon which we need only remark, that no one has ever asserted, that every portion of matter is *essentially* possessed of thought, except the author himself, who advances a hypothetical absurdity for the sake of refuting it. He proceeds to shew, that "consciousness cannot be the *result* of matter;" for this must be either "from matter as a *substance*, or from some peculiar *modification* which it assumes." In the first of these cases; since "the influence of matter can extend no further than the contact of its surfaces," and since, "if the *mutual contact* of material bodies be entirely annihilated, in that instant all influence must cease to exist;" it thence follows, that matter cannot possibly extend itself beyond its own existence, nor ever act where it is not:" and, therefore, "consciousness cannot result from any material substance." For,

"If matter be not infinite in its extension (and that it is not, I hope soon to make appear), there must be, in the immensity of space, pure expansion where no matter is. In this case I would ask, Is the mind of man capable of extending its actions through

this pure distance, which is thus supposed to be devoid of matter, or not? If it be, we have then a clear idea of consciousness acting where no matter is; and if it can exist and act where matter is not, it undeniably follows, that it neither results from matter, nor can be dependent on it for its existence."

In other words, matter can act only by "physical contact" with other matter, but the human mind can act in pure space devoid of matter, *ergo*, mind is not matter.

This, we imagine, is one of those "reaches of thought" for which Mr. D. is "indebted immediately to heaven." It was reserved for this last revelation to inform us, that because the sun and planets mutually act on each other, they must therefore be in physical contact; that the mind of man can act in empty space, not only deprived of organs wherewith to act, but of any thing to act upon; and that it can exist in space thus busily employed about nothing, without occupying space: for, according to Mr. D.'s own definition, if the soul occupies space, it must have both magnitude and figure, which are two of his essential attributes of matter.

To prove that thought cannot result from any modification of matter, he observes:

"An assemblage of atoms may produce an increase of magnitude. A modification of parts may produce a change of figure. A new disposition of surfaces may produce different sensations, and variously affect the organs of vision; but all changes which matter is capable of undergoing, are only capable of *enlarging or lessening* the extent of those essential properties of its nature, which always exist in proportion to the specific quantity of matter which is thus modified. If all consciousness result from any modification of matter, it is certain, that consciousness could not have existed previously to the existence of that modification from which it results; and if so, no consciousness could have existed prior to the existence of matter. The arrangement of materials must necessarily be posterior, in point of time, to the existence of those materials which are thus arranged; and if we admit the pre-existence of those parts which are thus modified, and consciousness itself to be the result of a *modification* which depends upon those *parts* for its own existence; we behold, not only the pre-existence of *matter*, but the pre-existence even of that *modification* from which consciousness itself must be supposed to result. And yet, to make consciousness result from any modification of matter, we must deny the existence of all consciousness previously to



that which results from a modification, which must be the effect of consciousness itself."

A short answer to this quibble, upon the hypothesis of materialism, is, that God so modified and organized matter, as that thought should be one of the necessary effects of such modification.

The impossibility of thought being an attribute of matter, being thus demonstrated, our author proceeds, in the second chapter, to investigate the properties and attributes of spirit. Of this chapter we are sorry not to be able to give an analysis, but it is really, for the most part, beyond our reach, we must, therefore, confine ourselves to a few detached observations. Perhaps one of the most striking novelties is the following ingenious definition of the mental act of complete comprehension. "A full comprehension implies an expansion of faculty which takes a circuit round itself, and travels on those margins of existence where entity begins and ends."

One of Mr. Drew's brightest discoveries, however, is with regard to consciousness. In answer to a common argument against immaterialism, that certain intervals of time occur in which the soul is unconscious of its own existence, Mr. D. observes, that "it would not at all affect the immateriality of the soul, if it could be proved, that there were intervals in which the mind has no apprehension of its own actions. *For that men are not always conscious to themselves of their own consciousness, I readily admit*; but it does not follow from hence, that consciousness in these intervals has no existence. It proves a want of perception in the thing, but does not prove the non-existence of the thing itself." We bow with respect to Mr. D.'s heaven-taught faculties, but, for our parts, we must acknowledge our utter inability of forming the most distant idea of an imperceptible consciousness.

Part. II. treats of the immortality of the human soul, which Mr. Drew demonstrates by showing, that it is impossible for the soul to suffer death either by dissolution, by privation, or by annihilation. Dissolution, or the separation of parts, cannot take place with regard to the soul, because it is a simple substance: nor can privation, for privation implies at least two substances, the thing taken away, and that from which it is taken. There remains, therefore, only annihilation as a method by

which the soul may perish. From the simplicity of the soul, Mr. D. infers that it cannot have two opposite tendencies; being possessed of life, it must naturally, and of itself, persist in a state of life; annihilation, therefore, must be produced by an external force. This force cannot be material; for

"It has been already proved, that material bodies can never act but when they bring their surfaces into contact with one another. As an immaterial substance has no surface, it is a contradiction to suppose, that matter can ever be brought into contact with it: to suppose such a contact possible, is to suppose a surface in an immaterial being, which, at the same time, is supposed to exist without it.

"Whatever has an exterior, must have an interior; and what has both, must necessarily be extended; and what is extended, cannot be immaterial. An immaterial substance, therefore, can have no surface; and what has no surface, can never be brought into contact with that which has. The very supposition includes this contradiction, that there is a contact, and no contact, at the same time. It therefore follows, that the soul must be inaccessible to all violence from matter, and that it can never perish through its instrumentality."

Mr. D. seems here to forget, that in the compound, man, the body, his material part, is acted on by the soul, his spiritual part; and that there is no greater difficulty in supposing mind to act on matter, either with or without contact, than matter to act on mind.

The inspired metaphysician, however, disregarding these trifling objections, proceeds to show, that no finite being can annihilate the soul, and at length ventures on the question, "whether any power which possesses *positive being in itself*, can destroy the soul? And this question, Mr. Drew, the *deceit* of the rev. Mr. Whitaker, through whose special patronage his book has been published, in the direct face of a most awful declaration in the gospel, that there is a Being who can *destroy both soul and body in hell*, answers in the negative, by the following inexpressibly contemptible abuse of language.

"It is certain, that nothing can *communicate* what it does not possess; nor *produce* what it has not the *power of producing*. These propositions are self-evident, and the reverse of either is a contradiction. A being which can communicate annihilation, must be one which is in existence; for that which *is not*, can communicate nothing; and, for

the same reason, can produce no effects. And that being which is in existence, cannot, from the *certainty of its existence*, include the *absence of existence* within its nature, and, consequently, can never communicate to another, that *absence of existence or annihilation* which it does not possess itself. *Annihilation*, therefore, can never be communicated, either by a being which is *in existence*, or by one which is *not*.

As no being can communicate to another, what it does not possess itself, so neither can it *produce* what it has not the power of *producing*. If annihilation be the *effect* of power, which must be admitted by all who contend that power produces it, annihilation must be produced by an *energy* residing in that power which is supposed capable of producing it. For unless an *ability* to pro-

duce annihilation be included in the nature of power, power itself can never perform what it has not the *ability* to accomplish. But in admitting a *resident energy* in power, to produce annihilation, we make this *resident energy* to produce a *nonentity* (for annihilation is a nonentity), and that which produces a *nonentity*, produces *nothing*. The supposition, therefore, of a power whose *active energy* produces *nothing*, is a contradiction in terms; it attributes to the power an *activity*, which, in the *only effect* which it is supposed to produce, we are obliged to deny the existence of; and, a power which is thus constituted, must be *active* and *not active*, at the same time. If, therefore, neither the *absence* nor *presence* of power can produce annihilation, it necessarily follows, that the human soul must be immortal."

*The following Work is so extraordinary, both in its Plan and Execution, as to render its Arrangement under any of the preceding Subdivisions impossible, we have therefore thought it best to place it here by itself at the Conclusion of the Chapter.*

ART. LXXXII. *Génie du Christianisme, ou Beautés de la Religion Chrétienne, par François Auguste Chateaubriand. 8vo. 6 vols.*

THE English reader has been accustomed to hear of the beauties of Sterne, and the beauties of Shakespear, but it was reserved for a French author to give us the *beauties of the Christian religion*. This work has made much noise at Paris, one party crying it up as a work of brilliant genius, and an excellent defence of Christianity; the other ridiculing it as puerile and fantastic. The author, who acknowledges that he did not always entertain the sentiments which he at present professes, gives, in his preface, the following account of his conversion:

"My mother at seventy years of age was thrown into a dungeon, from which she beheld the execution of some of her children, and at length expired in an obscure garret, where her misfortunes had obliged her to take shelter. Her last moments were embittered by the thought of my eccentricities, and on her death-bed she charged one of my sisters to recall me to the faith in which I had been brought up. My sister wrote me word of my mother's dying request, and when I, who was then beyond sea, received the letter, my sister also was no more; she was dead through the consequences of her imprisonment. These two voices calling on me from the tomb, this death, which served as interpreter to another death, struck me to the heart, and I became a Christian.—My conversion has not, I confess, been the result of any supernatural illumination, my conviction proceeded solely from the heart; I wept, and I believed."

The feeling heart will, no doubt, allow a good deal for situations so inte-

resting; yet such a beginning seems to promise a work more built upon sentiment and fancy than on reason and argument; and so, in fact, the reader will find it. We question if there exists a work on a serious subject so full of weak analogies, absurd reasonings, and fanciful coincidences; yet we must do justice to his powers of writing; they are no doubt considerable; he knows how to spread the charm of style, and the colouring of sentiment, over his fancy-pieces. How far he is himself in earnest we are somewhat puzzled to guess; but his manner is a singular mixture of the *unction* of the divine with the flowery imagination of the poet. In this country, where religion is considered as a serious business, an affair of the understanding, a thing to be proved step by step, and decided upon by weight of argument, it must appear a strange thing to hear a man say he believes because he has wept, for what have tears to do with the nature of belief, and to find a religion recommended because it affords fine subjects for the poet and the painter. We may be amused, but cannot be greatly edified by a chapter upon *bells*, by proofs of the Trinity drawn from the wonderful appearances of the sun, which he says, "at the same moment is, in different parts of the world, the rising, the noon-day, and the setting sun, three luminous bodies in one substance: nothing can be finer in nature," he adds, "than this triple splendour,

because it gives us an image of the glorious Trinity." Nor are we accustomed to see novels, however beautiful, or however moral, inserted into the body of a theological work. But the author has declared he does not write for the *sophists*, that is to say, we suppose, the *reasoners*; "a kind of men whom it is impossible to satisfy;" a very convenient declaration. First examine, then believe, and when you have found the truth, let it engage your best affections, is the order which would be recommended by a sober English divine; but this order is inverted by Chateaubriand, who would have us first like, then believe, and when we believe stoutly, we have leave to examine as much as we please. Considering how much the Roman catholic religion addresses itself to the imagination, and what sacrifices it requires of profane reason, this way of proceeding may be very judicious. The division which the author makes of his work is into four parts. The first treats of the doctrines of religion; the two next of the poetry of Christianity, its relation to literature and the fine arts; and the fourth, of the worship and ceremonies of the church. At the very first step we find ourselves plunged into the depths of mysticism. The first chapters treat on *mysteries*, a subject for which the author shows a peculiar predilection; he treats of mysteries in general, the mysteries of the Christian religion, the real mystery of the Trinity, &c. *Mysteries*, according to him, are to be found every where, and nothing is more agreeable to the nature of man. Without a shade of the mysterious there can be nothing beautiful or interesting in friendship or love, in the sciences or the arts.

"What is it that makes the bliss of childhood but ignorance, and what the unhappiness of old age but the knowing too much? A secret has in it something divine, and therefore the first sages spoke in parables. God himself is the great secret of nature; the divinity was veiled in Egypt, and the sphinx was seated on the threshold of their temples."

In proof of that great mystery the Trinity, he enumerates every thing that is reckoned by threes, not forgetting the three Graces, nor the mysterious triad of a man, his wife, and their child, which forms, he says, "the full complement of human life, and the delight of the soul." He forgets, it should seem, that if a second or a third child should

happen to come, a circumstance not unfrequent, his trinity is destroyed. Supposing our readers to be satisfied with these proofs of the Trinity, we beg leave to present him with the following passage in praise of the Virgin Mary, which we find under the mystery of incarnation:

"Ye poets who have received the creative fire, describe to us the blessed Mary, that vessel of election, adorned with all the gifts of the Holy Spirit, resembling the Athenian galley charged with the sacred presents to Ceres; its stern was crowned with immaculate flowers, and no criminal was allowed to perish till its return. Shew us this Virgin seated on a resplendent throne, whiter than snow; let her appear on this throne like a mystic rose, or like the morning star, the forerunner of the Son of Grace; let her be served by the most beautiful angels; let harps and celestial voices form a melodious concert around her; let the first glance discover in this daughter of man the refuge of sinners, the consolation of the afflicted, and the star of the sea; let her be ignorant of the holy wrath of the Lord; let her be all goodness, all compassion, all indulgence; let her beauty even preserve something terrestrial, something able to inspire the most ardent love, if at the same time it did not throw the beholder into religious extacies."

We cannot but agree with the author that many tender confidences might be made to such a being, which a protestant devotee would not so readily find an object for. After the mysteries, the author goes through the sacraments of the Romish church; upon which he says many pretty things, and many strange ones: he defends the celibacy of the clergy with much address, which leads him to expatiate on the virtue of celibacy in general, and at length we have a whole chapter on the subject of virginity, under the following title, *Examen de la Virginité sous ses Rapports politiques, Examination of Virginity as connected with Poetry*. The chapter is curious: we shall cite only the following, no doubt, beautiful, but to us incomprehensible climax: "Thus virginity, ascending from the lowest link of the chain of beings up to man, passes on from man to angels, and from the angels to God, where it terminates. God is himself the grand anachorite of the universe, the eternal celibatary of worlds." After having said so many fine things on celibacy, the reader would imagine there were none left for the contrary state; but he is mistaken, the author has an eulogium also for marriage, for it is one of the sacraments: he describes in

a very pretty manner the ceremony of betrothing as it is still practised in France, and contrasts it with the graver rite of marriage; the one he represents as presenting ideas of love and pleasure, the other of duty. That we may not incur the blame of unfairness by quoting none but the censurable passages of this author, we shall give his picture of the dying Christian receiving the sacrament of extreme unction:

"Come, see the noblest spectacle which the whole earth can afford, the death-bed of the faithful. This man is no longer the man of the world, he no longer belongs to his country, all his relations with society have ceased. For him the computation by time is at an end, and he dates only from the grand era of eternity. A priest seated by his bed-side is employed in comforting him. The venerable minister converses with the dying man upon the immortality of the soul, and the sublime scene which all antiquity has only once presented to us in the last moments of the most celebrated of philosophers, is every day renewed on the humble flock-bed of the meanest expiring Christian. Behold at length the last moment approaches; a sacrament once opened the gates of this world to this virtuous man, and another sacrament is about to close them. Religion has rocked him in the cradle of life, her solemn hymns and her maternal hand shall again lull him to rest in the cradle of death. She prepares a baptism also for this second birth, but instead of water she chooses oil, the emblem of celestial incorruptibility: little by little this liberating sacrament breaks the ties of the saint; his soul, half freed from the body, becomes almost visible on his countenance. Already he hears seraphic melodies; already he is on the point of flying far from the world towards the regions where he is invited by hope, the hope of futurity, daughter of virtue and of death. At length the angel of peace, descending towards this good man, touches his wearied eye-lids with his golden sceptre, and they close deliciously upon the light of day. He dies, and his last sigh has not been heard; he dies, and long after he has expired, his friends keep silence around his couch, for they imagine he still sleeps, so gently has this Christian passed away."

The fine imagination of the author gives us many of these touching pictures; they remind us of the pencil of Gräuse. We perceive, however, on translating it, that a great deal of the beauty is owing to the style, and that we have not been able to transfuse it. It must be remembered also that he addresses catholics.

With the same luxuriance of style the

author goes through the catalogue of Christian virtues, and the laws of the decalogue; which latter he compares (not very fairly) with the maxims of the ancient legislators. All that remains of the wisdom of antiquity, he says, may be comprised in three pages; these pages he accordingly gives us; and having run over, in a very cursory manner, a few sentences from Minos, Solon, Pythagoras, &c. now, he says, you shall hear Moses. He then describes "the chain of Lebanon, crowned with eternal snows, and her cedars that lose their heads in the clouds:" and when he has raised the imagination of the reader with all these pomps, he bursts out, "*Che-mang Israel Anochi Jebovah-Elshetcha*;" very fine sounding words certainly; but what do we learn from them more than the translation, which he afterwards gives us, would have told us; except that Mr. Chateaubriand understands Hebrew. This mode of surprising and elevating resembles, as a French critic has remarked, Sganarelle in Molière: "Ah, you do not understand Latin!" *Labricias arciturum catalamus singulariter.*" In the next chapter, which treats of the Fall, instead of theological arguments, we meet with a beautiful description of the serpent, which would have appeared to advantage in Buffon or Goldsmith. Every where imagination and enthusiasm, an imagination certainly brilliant and poetic; an enthusiasm, whether real or fictitious we pretend not to determine, takes the place of reasoning and sound argument; and when he has the air of plunging into the depths of chronology or astronomy, he escapes by an affected contempt for human science, or a phrase of studied prettiness. Thus he asserts, that "the herdsman of the Ganges committed fewer errors than the philosopher of Athens, as if the muse of astronomy had retained a secret inclination for the shepherds, her first loves." We suspect, however, that the author has not sufficient *knowledge* to treat scientific subjects in any other manner: we can make nothing of the following note, except he, by a strange mistake, confounds in his head the rotatory motion of the sun round its axis, with the apparent motion of the sun in the heavens:

"There are those who sneer at Joshua's commanding the sun to stand still. We should have thought it was not necessary to inform the present age that the sun is not immoveable, though in the centre. An ex-

cuse is made for Joshua that he used the language of the vulgar. Would it not have been more simple to say that he used the language of Newton? If you wanted to stop a watch, you would not break one of the small wheels, but the main spring, which being stopped would immediately stop the whole system."

Our author is fond of mentioning our English philosopher, whose fame he has certainly heard of; but we believe Mr. Chateaubriand and Newton would not have three ideas in common. We must not pass over, when speaking of this philosopher's system of geology, the curious chapter upon the youth and old age of the world: "It has been made an objection," he says, "to the system of Moses, that the earth bears marks of being much older than his chronology would make it. Nothing is more easy than to answer this objection; the world was created old; it was both young and old at the same time; the oaks were created with old crows' nests upon them (reader, we are translating literally, *vieux nids des corbeaux*); the nightingales were surprised to find themselves sitting upon their eggs; amidst the young trees were old decayed oaks, covered with moss and ivy; and the high cliffs were already eaten into caverns by the waves." "Otherwise," he says, "what would have become of the picturesque; of the holy horror inspired by woods and groves; of the sublime, the melancholy, the sentimental in nature, for all these essentially depend upon antique objects." We really should have thought that a new created being might have amused himself among the flowers of Paradise with his young bride, without feeling any want of those melancholy pleasures which are so much allied to the spleen inspired by the present fallen state of things; but it seems Adam himself was not young when created. He was produced a man of thirty, in order to correspond by his majesty with the *antique grands-curs* of his new empire; and Eve was a beauty of sixteen, that she might harmonize with the flowers, the nestlings, and all the *young* part of the creation. If in those parts of his work which treat of the most abstruse doctrines and deepest speculations of philosophy, the author has indulged so much his talent for description, the reader will suppose that he gives full scope to the luxuriance of his fancy when he comes to demonstrate

*the existence of the Deity by the wonders of nature.* It is, indeed, the most pleasing part of his book; his pictures of nature are lively and poetical; and though the naturalist might here and there find inaccuracies, and the man of taste some puerile conceits, the richness and variety of his descriptions show indisputably his talents in that walk of genius. He has travelled much in America, and has also made much use of Bartram's description of the Floridas. To the wonders of nature succeeds a display of the wisdom of God in our moral structure. In a chapter on the love of our country, we were somewhat surprised with the following illustration:

"Ask a Scottish shepherd if he would change his lot with the first potentate of the earth. At a distance from his beloved clan, he bears about with him every where the remembrance of it; every where he misses his flocks, his torrents, and his clouds; he aspires to nothing higher than to eat his barley bread, to drink the milk of his goats, and to sing in the valley the ballads which were sung by his forefathers. He perishes unless he returns to his native place. He is a mountain plant, whose root must be in the rock, and which cannot flourish except it is beaten by wind and rain; a rich soil, a sheltered situation, and the sun of the valley destroy it."

We apprehend the author has never been in England, or he might have seen that the Scotch bear transplanting, even to the smoky and luxurious town of London, better than he is willing to allow. The author next proceeds to the proofs of the immortality of the soul, most of which are drawn from sentiment: amongst them he mentions *the instinct* which he says an infant has *to look at the sky*. He asserts that all great men, and particularly great conquerors and warriors, have been religious. After enumerating Alexander the Great, the Scipios, Augustus, "who only reigned in the name of the gods," and a hundred other names drawn from heathen antiquity, he exclaims,

"And in our days were they atheists who gained the summits of the Pyrenees and the Alps, who affrighted the Rhine and the Danube, subdued the Nile, and made the Bosphorus tremble; who conquered at Fleurus, &c. &c. who have brought under their yoke Germany and Italy, Switzerland and Brabant, the Grecian isles, and those of Batavia, Munich, and Rome, Amsterdam and Malta, Mentz and Cairo? Were they atheists who gained above sixty pitched battles, took



above a hundred fortresses, baffled the coalition of eight mighty empires, and caused the sovereigns of the sea to tremble behind all the deserts of Asia?"

In answer to this pompous detail it may be observed *en passant*, that the French are very much belied by the rest of Europe, if the greater part of them were not atheists; but, however this may be, at any rate religion cannot be necessary for scenes of blood and devastation; in fact, it had little to do with it: the French owe to the spirit of liberty their brave defence of their country, and to the spirit of ambition their subsequent conquests. In serious truth, it is impossible to crowd more absurdities together than this author does in his defence of religion. In the first place, embracing as he does the narrow and bigotted system of popery, he ought to know, that, according to his belief, every other mode of religion is an abomination to the Divine Being; and that all the brave and virtuous heathens, as well as all the pious Protestants, are under the wrath of God, and will be miserable to all eternity: this is a tenet which it is well known the Roman Catholics do not depart from, even with regard to their most intimate friends; yet, provided there be a religion, it seems almost indifferent to him what religion it is. In recommending the principle of faith, he takes equal advantage of the names of Bossuet and Fencelon, Locke and Newton, Numa and Alexander; he even gives it as an instance of the piety of the latter, that he called himself the Son of Jupiter: this is entirely to abandon the basis of truth, and to establish a political basis, to recommend a national religion. Again he seems to think that every thing is good, provided a little religion is mixed with it; a crusade, a *preux chevalier* fighting for the honour of his mistress's beauty, an expedition for plunder, all are sanctified by having a religion along with them: but we have been accustomed to think that religion is only good as it is the basis of morality, and that a bad action is still more atrocious by being committed under the sanction of orthodox creeds and pompous ceremonies. He also, by a misrepresentation of an opposite nature, common to him with many other writers, confounds his invectives against unbelief with those against immorality; but the one does by no means always imply

the other. Very often too his arguments, with a little different colouring, might be turned against the cause he defends. For instance, where he endeavours to shew how favourable the catholic religion is to the happiness of the female sex in their relations of wife, mother, &c. would it not be easy to reverse his picture, and to say, See that unhappy victim of a cruel superstition, that counteracts all the best feelings of her nature; taught that her perfection consists in a barren and joyless celibacy, she is afraid to trust the instincts which the Divine Being has implanted in her, and her whole life is a perpetual struggle against the destination marked out for her by Providence; or if she enters into a state that she was so plainly intended for, she is afraid to indulge her affection for her husband, lest God should be jealous of his creature: her confessor, and not her husband, is the confident of the secret thoughts of her heart. She looks upon her innocent offspring with horror, as being covered with sin, and objects of the wrath of the Omnipotent; and should any one of them happen to die without the ceremony of sprinkling upon him a little water, she is delivered over to irremediable sorrow; days and years may pass over her head, but no balm can be found for her affliction, for she believes that she has given birth to a being destined to misery through eternal ages. The joys and duties of life are neglected for visionary hopes and fears, and every hour claims some minute observance, some unprofitable ceremony. Is this a religion that allies itself with the real interests of man?

The second volume more particularly treats of the *poetry of Christianity*; and to this the work should properly have been confined. The taste of the author, for he certainly has taste, has pointed out, in a striking manner, the advantages which may be drawn from the various rites and tenets (*he says all along of Christianity, we beg leave to say of Popery*) in works addressed to the imagination; for this purpose he gives a cursory view of the chief epic poems, ancient and modern. It is a defect here that he has taken such slight notice of Dante, whose poem, being entirely founded on the supernatural of the Christian mythology, afforded a better test of his assertion even than Milton. He next compares particular

characters antient and modern, as he finds them delineated either in the drama or the epic. His *pendants* are for conjugal love, Ulysses and Penelope, opposed to Adam and Eve; for the character of fraternity, Priam and Lusignan; of filial duty, Iphigenia and Zaire—he compares the Sybil of Virgil and the Joad of Racine; Dido with the Phædra of Racine. Phædra, the reader will probably object, was nothing less than a Christian heroine; true, but Mr. Chateaubriand says Racine, who draws her character, is a Christian, and her passion, in passing through his hands, is refined from its grossness. This, indeed, is true; but unfortunately in the English Phædra, though equally the work of a Christian, the grossness appears again. To the Cyclops and Galatea of Theocritus, he opposes, oddly enough, the Paul and Virginie of St. Pierre. Every where it is his aim to shew that the spirit of Christianity has given dignity to sentiment, purity to morals, grace to the poet, delicacy to the lover, and enthusiasm to the hero. But he considers its greatest force as displayed where religion itself becomes a passion; and he instances the Polyeucte of Corneille as a character superior to any that could have been drawn by a weaker poet. Many of his criticisms are ingenious and just; yet, though we do not mean to deny the influence of Christianity, well understood, in refining the passions, much of what he points out may more fairly be attributed to the influence of modern refinement, and the natural progress of mental cultivation. Having shewn the effects of Christianity on the passions, he proceeds to exhibit its resources in the marvellous; and here, indeed, Mr. Chateaubriand triumphs. He ranges his circles of seraphims and cherubims, and the whole hierarchy of angels, as pompously as if they were meant for one of the painted ceilings of Mignard; he musters his armies of saints, male and female, pastoral or warlike; he forgets not the witches cauldron; he triumphs in the tortures of the Christian hell, and he allows us particularly to plume ourselves upon the invention of purgatory. To all this we have nothing to say; we are now upon poetic ground, and let the poets make the best of it: yet one of our best poets, after addressing the powers of imagination, the genii and the muses, invokes as supreme,

The guide the guardian of their lovely sports,  
Majestic Truth.

She, we fear, would cause most of his phantoms to vanish into air.

The third volume is dedicated to shewing the influence of Christianity on the fine arts, on philosophy, history, and eloquence, and on the harmony of the Christian religion with the scenes of nature and the passions of the human heart. In all this there is a good deal of agreeable reading, and often just criticism. We cannot but observe that Voltaire is treated more gently by our author than one should have supposed, from his decided opposition to Christianity. We suspect we have found the reason in a quotation he makes from him, where he says *he hates the canaille*; Voltaire was no democrat. The protestant reader will here see a very curious chapter on popular devotions, many of which will doubtless be new to him.

“Who does not know, he says, ‘*Notre Dame des Bois*!’ The young girls who have lost their betrothed lovers, have often, by moonlight, seen the souls of these young men in this solitary place, and heard their voices in the murmur of the fountain. The populace is much wiser than philosophers; every fountain, every cross in a highway, has a prodigy belonging to it. For the believer, nature is a constant wonder: Is he in pain, he prays to his little image and is relieved. Does he want to see a relation, a friend; he makes a vow, takes the stick and wallet of a pilgrim, passes the Alps or the Pyrenees, visits our Lady of Loretto or St. James of Compostella, prays to the saint for the safety of a poor sailor his son, a pregnant wife, a sick father; his heart is lightened, he sets off to return to his cottage laden with shells; the country comes out to meet him, every one asks for a relique, every slip of his coat works a miracle. How many disorders are cured by a consecrated ribband? The pilgrim approaches his home; the first person who comes to meet him is his wife, recovered from her lying-in, his son restored to him, his old father grown young again.”

All this is mighty well; but suppose while the pilgrim was rambling from his home, his wife and infant had perished for want of his assistance, that his son had taken to bad courses, and that he was wanted to close the eyes of his old father; suppose nothing was left to manure his land but the cockle-shells he has picked up—all which is full as likely, what becomes then of the eulogium on *la bella devotiona*? In a different style is the comparison, which we think an

excellent one, between the sterility and coldness of atheistical principles, so unfavourable to genius of every kind, and the glow of heart and energy of sentiment inspired by the grand truths of religion.

The fourth volume contains an eulogium on the rites, worship, and different observances of the Romish church. Among other remarks we find the following on the cross, that it is found in various parts of nature, that there is a family of cruciform flowers, and that all these flowers show a decided inclination for solitude. In the chapter on bells alone, he has exhausted as much eloquence as would have served an ordinary writer for a volume. The vestments of the priests, the funeral ceremonies, the fête Dieu, the rogations, the ceremonies of the holy week, and all the other festivals, are equally subjects of admiration, and described in the most pompous manner. With regard to having the service performed in an unknown tongue, it is a remarkable thing: he observes that Latin services are always attended to by the crowd with peculiar devotion; and with his usual love of the mysterious, he adds,

"Is not this a natural effect of our fondness for any thing which is secret? In the tumult of his thoughts and the fund of misery of which his life is composed, man, in pronouncing words not familiar to him, or even unknown, seems to ask all the blessings which he wants, or even which he is ignorant of; the indistinctness of his prayer is its very charm, and his restless soul, scarcely knowing what it desires, loves to form petitions as mysterious as are its wants."

This is very ingenious, and we do not doubt but the people, while reciting their Latin prayers, form each for himself a variety of petitions which would never be found in any collect; but does not the church lose by this the great advantage of directing their minds to the proper objects of prayer? But it is little necessary for a Protestant to follow Mr. Chateaubriand through all the ceremonies of a Romish mass, nor in his description of tombs, antient and modern, to which he has given a whole book; we attend him with more pleasure in his history of the life of Christ, his account of the clergy secular and regular, the eulogium and defence of monastic institutions, the account of the missions, and the enumeration of the services rendered

to society by the institutions of Christianity; for though his partiality for the marvellous and the romantic is every where apparent; this part of his work has much in it that is just and interesting. The following remark is much to his purpose:

"People pretended that it was doing a great service to the religious of both sexes, to oblige them to quit their retreats; what has been the result? The nuns who were fortunate enough to find an asylum in foreign monasteries, eagerly took refuge there; others united together to live a monastic life, in the middle of the world; others have died of grief; and those monks of La Trappe, so much pitied, instead of enjoying the charms of liberty, and the pleasures of life, are continuing their macerations on the heaths of England, or the deserts of Russia."

The monks, he justly observed, succeeded the ancient philosophers; they wore their dress, and imitated their manners; some even had chosen the manual of Epictetus for their only rule. He adds,

"The greater part of the laws of these religious societies shew a profound knowledge in the art of governing men. Plato imagined republics without being able to establish any, but Saint Augustine, Basil, and Benedict, have been real legislators, and the patriarchs of many great communities."

The services of the missionaries are justly appreciated, as well as the benefit derived to society from the various hospitals.

It is unnecessary to follow the author in his picturesque description of the Maronite monks, the hermits of Thebais, the monks of Saint Bernard, so well known for their assiduity in saving the travellers lost in the snow; of the severities of La Trappe, and the awful silence of the Chartreux; even the bold and begging Capuchin is elevated into a figure of wonderful dignity, travelling about, we are told, and demanding hospitality, like Thales or Anacharsis. After the monks come the missionaries, whose zeal and labours, though no doubt considerably exaggerated by the glowing pencil of our author, are justly worthy of admiration; he shews that we owe to them much of our knowledge of foreign countries; and he adds, with a little stroke of satire upon a late expedition of ours,

"When powerful nations, at a prodigious expence, have sent out pompous embas-

sies, have they informed us of any thing more than Duhalde and Le Compte had already told us; or have they in any thing shaken the credit of those writers?"

The observation which follows is very just:

"A missionary must of necessity be an excellent traveller, obliged to speak the language of the people to whom he preaches the gospel, to conform himself to their customs, to live for a length of time with all classes of society; he seeks to penetrate equally into the cottage and the palace; and even if nature should have denied him genius, he cannot fail of treasuring up many important facts. On the other hand, a man who passes rapidly through a country with his interpreter, who has neither time nor inclination to expose himself to a thousand dangers, in order to learn the secret of their manners, this man, had he every talent for observation, can acquire but a very superficial knowledge of a people which have only glided before his eyes and disappeared."

He says in another place,

"Never will a company of philosophers visiting foreign countries, with all the instruments and the plans of an academy, perform what a poor monk, travelling on foot from his convent, has executed with only his chapel and his breviary."

We must observe, however, that this poor monk was generally supported by a very rich and powerful body. The next object of eulogium is the orders of chivalry; and here the author's love of the romantic has full play; Don Quixotte himself could not have expressed a greater reverence for the preux chevalier, and every thing belonging to him; we seem to be reading one of the old romances; love and war, and religion, plumes and crosses, and vigils and feasts, and tournaments, and Clorinda and Rinaldo, and Bradamant, and the knights of the round table, and the troubadours, whose verses, by the way, were very different from pious hymns, and the pages and their amours, all are enumerated, all are commended. The author finds a better subject in the following chapters, on the services rendered to the world by Christianity, in the establishment of hospitals, schools, universities, and various foundations, literary or charitable. The subject is a very pleasing one, and we should quote with great satisfaction some of the truly edifying instances of zeal and beneficence which embellish this article, if our account were not already too far extended. Among the

services done to society by the religious orders, he insists upon their skill in agriculture; they were the best farmers, the best landlords, and the first to practise many useful arts; the sciences of law and policy were equally obliged to them. He concludes triumphantly with a picture of the depraved morals of the Romans, and conjectures of the state which the world might have fallen into, if it had not been rescued by the influences of a new and purer religion. The fifth volume is taken up by notes and authorities.

If, after going through this singular publication, we ask ourselves what has the author done? what has he proved? it may be answered, he has proved that the Roman Catholic religion, with all its pomps and ceremonies, is wonderfully adapted to amuse the imagination, but he has scarcely aimed at establishing the truth of its doctrines. On the contrary, by shewing the same predilection for the most obsolete and trivial superstitions of the vulgar, which he expresses for the doctrines and rites most essential to it, he makes us suspect that he receives the whole rather as a matter of taste than of belief. He has shown that religious enthusiasm is favourable to the higher kinds of poetry, but it remains to be shewn how far it is friendly to the happiness of life. He has done too much, or too little. For a religious work there is too much of the profane; the nymphs and the graces, and the heroes and heroines of elysium are introduced, as it were, hand in hand with the Virgin Mary and the saints; and we think it impossible that a serious Catholic should not be scandalized by many of his images. On the other hand, if it is a work of criticism, and he is only examining whether Virgil or Dante possessed a mythology the most favourable to poetry, he goes out of his way to defend the doctrinal part. In fact, the strength of the work is in its descriptions. Mr. Chateaubriand is a very weak divine, a tolerable critic, an indifferent naturalist, no philosopher, but a very good painter; his style is rich, but often blemished with hyperbolic images, and exaggerated expressions. Two novels are inserted into the body of the work, *Attala* and *René*; the former was separately published previous to, and as a kind of forerunner of his great work, of which it was announced as a part; it

is written after the manner of *Paul and Virginie*; that is to say, it joins a pathetic story to the description of natural objects, and though it is not equal to the beautiful and simple production of M. de St. Pierre, it has a great deal of merit, but it is of a gloomy cast, and its tendency is rather unfavourable to the doctrines it is meant to recommend. The scene is in North America. Attala is a young Christian Indian, whose mother, a Christian also, by a vow made when her life was in danger, had devoted her to perpetual virginity, in honour of the Virgin Mary. She falls in love with a youth, whom she saves from the torments to which, as a prisoner, he was devoted, and escapes with him into the woods. She there wanders with him through the vast solitudes of those unpeopled regions, and has the strength of mind to resist the feelings of her own heart, and the pleading of her lover, though consumed by the most ardent passion. At length, no longer able to bear the struggle between inclination and apprehended duty, she destroys herself by poison. This catastrophe is not calculated, one should suppose, to make us think well of a religion in which vows are recommended so contrary to the tendencies of our nature. It is true Attala meets, when it is too late, with a humane priest, who tells her that her mother's vow was rash, and that she might have been pardoned, if she had broken it; but it is evident, that had she never met with a Romish priest, and had her mother and herself never heard of Christianity, her misfortune would not have happened. The novel of Attala does, indeed, show the force of religious principle, in bridling the strongest passions of our nature; it shows, therefore, a great power, which may do good or

harm according as it is directed. As to the rest, the scenery is beautiful, and the feelings of passion strongly described. Attala has been extremely popular in Paris. *René*, which is also inserted in this work, is more uniformly gloomy than Attala, and its design is less obvious, for what has the love of René's sister for him to do with Christianity? It is introduced by a chapter on what he calls *le vague des passions*, by which he seems to mean a state in which the mind feels an indistinct tendency to passionate emotion without any specific object. This void of the heart he thinks should be filled up by the *passion* of religion; a very ready way to make gloomy fanatics, to make a Count de Comminges, or perhaps a Ravallac; but active employment, mingled with the innocent pleasures of life, we presume to think, would make better citizens and happier men. On the whole, this work can only be read by an Englishman and a Protestant, as a work of fancy, in which here and there are some touching moral paintings; a sober Catholic will certainly not defend it; a person who professes to believe every thing, to defend every thing, is very near believing nothing; for how can the faith of that man be built on a firm foundation, who seems as loth to part with the lowest popular superstition, with a procession, or a relic, as with the most essential doctrines of his faith; besides, M. Chateaubriand is not aware that when once these mummeries have lost their credit, they are flat and uninteresting even to the common people, all attempt to revive them is vain; the poet may make use of them for some time after the divine has done with them; but even with him, after a little while, *St. Genevieve* and *Notre Dame des Bois*, become as insipid as the Floras and Venuses of antiquity.



## CHAPTER III.

# HISTORY, POLITICS, AND STATISTICS.

THE progress of historical literature is rarely commensurate with that of event. Quotidian incidents, indeed, obtain that rapid, but transient, publication which they require: to diffuse them through space, and not through time, is the most eligible plan of record: speedy notoriety, not lasting celebrity, is their proper destination. But the wars of the barbaric, or the factions of the intellectual leaders of men; the ebb and flow of geographical boundary, or the growth and decay of sects of opinion, can seldom find a worthy annalist during the busy equipoise of conflict; but must usually await the leisure of peace, and the impartial investigation of distance and tranquillity.

It ought not therefore to appear surprising, that of the events which have lately shaken Europe to the center, and meted out the world anew, we should as yet possess so few accounts. Names in the mouths of every one, deeds of admirable enthusiasm and atrocity, have scarcely found a place in the scroll of history. The friend of despotism fears to begin, the friend of liberty to end, the narrative; philosophy blushes at her struggle, and religion at her triumph. One work, however, of excellent execution, has appeared on the subject of the French Revolution; the voluminous annals of M. Bertrand de Moleville. They comprehend a clear, a full, a documented, a well-proportioned account of the domestic movement of the revolution: they display a complete knowledge of the state of Paris, of its parties, of its agitators: the public papers and fragments of oratory warped into the text, are selected with taste: and repressive Tory prejudices keep under the dangerous interest of the narration. The elder Soulavie has published a life of Louis XVI. of which the fifth volume, containing an account of the revolutions of Geneva, alone adds something to the stock of circulating knowledge. The overthrow of the republics of Schwytz, Ury, and Unterwald, has been related with classical sympathy. Mr. Ranken continues his ancient history of France; though an antiquary, he knows how to condense. Sir Robert Wilson has narrated the Ægyptian campaign with the unaffected propriety of a Xenophon, and with a frankness which his country would both defend and applaud.

Next to contiguity of date, contiguity of place constitutes the most powerful source of historic interest: we ought, therefore, previously to have mentioned the Reign of George the Third, by Adolphus; a work much resembling, in the merit and manner of its execution, the annals of M. Bertrand; but it has less flow, animation, and rapidity, more detail, and more reference. Coote's History of the Union with Ireland narrates that cotemporary event, of all others, most cha-

racteristic of the amelioration of human society, the voluntary incorporation of two independent countries, accomplished by the arms of reason alone. Had the republics of Holland and of Switzerland so exchanged a federal for an incorporate union, Batavia and Helvetia might still have retained their independence; because they would have been able to direct to the national defence the whole mass of public force. Turner has treated anew, and illustrated with micrological research, the intrusion of the Anglo-Saxon dynasties. Adams has constructed on a wise plan an epitome of English history, for the use of schools: with him sovereigns are only the mile-posts that measure the road of ages, but useful inventions, celebrated productions and individual merit are the monuments for the traveller to attend to in his progress. Mavor's Greek and Roman History have an analogous destination, and are composed with declamatory elegance. The History of Hindostan has been continued by the indefatigable pen of Mr. Maurice; his vague research and rhetoric colours give a high value to the somewhat rude and indigest mass of his materials. The Asiatic Annual Register will import for some future Maurice the basis of a chronicle less painful to philanthropy, where conquest brings not the knapsack of plunder, but the cornucopia of commerce. To our knowledge of Russia, and to a more equitable estimate of the mischievous reign of Catharine, the Secret Memoirs of Petersburg have much contributed: like the authors of the French Revolution, she planned and left undone every thing desirable.

To our statistical knowledge of the earth Mr. Pinkerton's Geography is a contribution worthy of the country, of the age, and of the prophetic expectations of Gibbon. The research displayed is ubiquitary, the materials are judiciously proportioned, the antiquarian comments are full of originality, and the practical suggestions full of good sense. For the diplomatic estimate of Europe, Mr. Gentz has assisted much; of America, Mr. Henderson, something. The state of San Domingo, Rainsford has described, and the author of *The Crisis* has converted into Topic of Alarm; that of Brazil is portrayed with florid brilliancy by Cunha. Sir Frederic Morton Eden has defended the peace too well for the recommencers of hostile practices. Dallas's Letter to Pulteney sheds amenity on the commercial controversies of the India House: and Thornton's Essay on Paper Credit comprises important information. Collections of State Papers are made as usual: Observations on the Poor, on the Peace, on the General Election, abound; and party-pamphlets, as in Young's time,

“Burn, hiss and bounce, waste paper, stink and die.”

ART. I. *Elements of General History, ancient and modern; to which are added a Table of Chronology, and a comparative View of Ancient and Modern Geography, illustrated by Maps.* By ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER, 2 vols. 8vo.

THE lectures of which this work contains an outline, were delivered for many years in the university of Edinburgh: they respect the philosophy of history, and include a sketch of the leading events which have affected the formation and progress of nations. The plan of the course is thus detailed by the author:

ANN. REV. VOL. I.

“Two opposite methods have been followed in giving academical lectures on the study of history; the one a strict chronological arrangements of events, upon the plan of Turselline's *Epigone*; the other a series of disquisitions on the various heads or titles of public law, and the doctrines of politics; illustrated by examples drawn from ancient and modern history. Objections occur to

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both these methods; the former furnishes only a dry chronicle of events, which nothing connects together but the order of time. The latter is insufficient for the most important purposes of history, the tracing events to their causes, the detection of the springs of human actions, the display of the progress of society, and of the rise and fall of states and empires. Finally, by confining history to the exemplification of the doctrines of politics, we lose its effect as a school of morals.

"In the following lectures, we hold a middle course between these extremes, and endeavour, by remedying the imperfection of each, to unite, if possible, the advantages of both.

"While so much regard is had to chronology, as is necessary for showing the progress of mankind in society, and communicating just ideas of the state of the world in all the different ages to which authentic history extends, we shall, in the delineation of the rise and fall of empires, and their revolutions, pay more attention to the connection of *subject* than that of *time*.

"In this view, we must reject the common method of arranging general history according to epochs or eras.

"When this world is viewed at any period, either of ancient or modern history, we generally observe one nation or empire predominant, to whom all the rest bear, as it were, an under part, and to whose history we find that the principal events in the annals of other nations, may be referred from some natural connection. This predominant empire or state it is proposed to exhibit to view as the principal object, whose history is, therefore, to be more fully delineated, while the rest are only incidentally touched when they come to have a natural connection with the principal.

"The Jewish history, belonging to a different department of academical education, enters not into the plan of these lectures, though we often resort to the sacred writings for detached facts, illustrative of the manners of ancient nations.

"In the ancient world, among the profane nation, the Greeks are the earliest people who make a distinguished figure, and whose history is at the same time authentic.

"The Greeks owed their civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians. The Grecian history is, therefore, properly introduced by a short account of these nations, and of the Assyrians, their rivals, conquered at one time by the Egyptians, and conquerors afterwards of them in their turn.

"The rise of the independant states of Greece, and singular constitution of the two great republics of Sparta and Athens.

"The war of Greece with Persia induces a short account of the preceding periods of the history of that nation, the rise of the Persian monarchy, the nature of its government, manners, and religion.

"The Grecian history is pursued through all the revolutions of the nation, till Greece becomes a province of the Roman empire.

"Political reflections applicable to the history of the states of Greece; progress of the Greeks in the arts; of the Greek poets, historians, philosophers.

"Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention.

"Origin of the Romans. Nature of their government under the kings. Easy substitution of the consular for the regal dignity. Subsequent changes in the constitution. Progress to a democracy. Extension of the Roman arms. Conquest of Italy. Wars with foreign nations.

"The Punic wars open a collateral view to the history of Carthage, and of Sicily.

"Success of the Roman arms in Asia, Macedonia, and Greece. Opulence of the republic from her conquests, and corruption of her manners. The civil wars, and ruin of the commonwealth.

"Particulars which mark the genius and national spirit of the Romans; education, laws, literary character, art of war, public and private manners.

"Rome under the emperors. Artful policy by which the first emperors disguised their absolute authority. Decline of the ambitious character of the Romans. Easy submission to the loss of civil liberty. The military spirit purposely abased by the emperors. The empire divided, becomes a languid body, without internal vigour. The Gothic nations pour down from the north. Italy conquered successively by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, and Lombards. Extinction of the western empire.

"The manners, genius, laws, and government of the Gothic nations, form an important object of inquiry, from their influence on the manners and policy of the modern European kingdoms.

"In the delineation of modern history, the leading objects of attention are more serious; the scene is oftener changed; nations too, which for a while occupy the chief attention, become for a time subordinate, and afterwards re-assume their rank as principal, yet the same plan is pursued as in the department of ancient history. The picture is occupied only by one great object at a time, to which all the rest hold an inferior rank, and are taken notice of only when connected with the principal.

"Upon the fall of the western empire, the Saracens are the first who distinguish themselves by the extension of their conquests, and the splendor of their dominion.

"While the Saracens extend their arms in the east and in Africa, a new empire of the west is formed by Charlemagne. The rise and progress of the monarchy of the Franks. The origin of the feudal system. State of the European manners in the age of Charle-

magne. Government, arts and sciences, literature.

"As collateral objects of attention, we survey the remains of the Roman empire in the east; the conquests and settlements of the Normans; the foundation and progress of the temporal dominion of the church of Rome; the conquest of Spain by the Saracens.

"The conquest of England by the Normans, solicits our attention to the history of Britain. Retrospective view of the British history, from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government in England. Observations on the government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons.

"Collateral view of the state of the continental kingdoms of Europe, during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries. France under the Capetian race of monarchs. Conquests of the Normans in Italy and Sicily. State of the northern kingdoms of Europe. The eastern empire. Empire of Germany. Disputes of supremacy between the popes and the emperors.

"The history of Britain still the principal object of attention. England under the kings of the Norman line, and the first princes of the Plantagenet branch. The conquest of Ireland under Henry II. introduces an anticipated progressive view of the political connection between England and Ireland down to the present time. As we proceed in the delineation of the British history, we note particularly those circumstances which mark the growth of the English constitution.

"At this period all the kingdoms of Europe join in the crusades. A brief account is given of those enterprises. Moral and political effects of the crusades, on the nations of Europe. Origin of chivalry, and rise of romantic fiction.

"Short connected sketch of the state of the European nations after the crusades. Rise of the House of Austria. Decline of the feudal government in France. Establishment of the Swiss republics. Disorders in the popedom. Council of Constance.

"The history of Britain resumed. England under Henry III. and Edward I. The conquest of Wales. The history of Scotland at this period intimately connected with that of England. View of the Scottish history, from Malcolm Canmore to Robert Bruce. State of both kingdoms during the reigns of Edward II. and III. The history of France connected with that of Britain. France itself won by Henry V.

"The state of the east at this period affords the most interesting object of attention. The progress of the Ottoman arms retarded for a while by the conquests of Tamerlane, and of Scanderbeg. The Turks prosecute their victories under Mahomet the Great, to the total extinction of the Constantinopolitan empire. The constitution and policy of the Turkish empire.

"France, in this age, emancipates herself from the feudal servitude, and Spain, from the union of Arragon and Castile, and the fall of the kingdom of the Moors, becomes one monarchy, under Ferdinand and Isabella.

"The history of Britain is resumed. Sketch of the history of England down to the reign of Henry VIII.; of Scotland, during the reigns of the five Jameses. Delineation of the ancient constitution of the Scottish government.

"The end of the fifteenth century is a remarkable æra in the history of Europe. Learning and the sciences underwent at that time a very rapid improvement; and after ages of darkness shone out at once with surprising lustre. A connected view is presented of the progress of literature in Europe, from its revival down to this period. In the same age, the advancement of navigation, and the course to India by the Cape of Good Hope, explored by the Portuguese, affects the commerce of all the European kingdoms.

"The age of Charles V. unites, in one connected view, the affairs of Germany, of Spain, of France, of England, and of Italy. The discovery of the new world, the reformation in Germany and in England, and the splendor of the fine arts under the pontificate of Leo X. render this period one of the most interesting in the annals of mankind.

"The pacification of Europe, by the treaty of Catteau Cambresis, allows us for a while to turn our attention to the state of Asia. A short progressive sketch is given of the history of India, within the Ganges, Persia, China, and Japan.

"Returning to Europe, the attention is directed to the state of the continental kingdoms; the age of Philip II. Spain, the Netherlands, France, and England, present a various and animated picture.

"England, under Elizabeth. The progress of the reformation in Scotland. The distracted reign of Mary Queen of Scots. The history of Britain pursued without interruption down to the revolution, and here closed by a sketch of the progress of the English constitution, and an examination of its nature at this period, when it became fixed and determined.

"The history of the southern continental kingdoms is brought down to the end of the reign of Louis XIV.; of the northern, to the conclusion of the reigns of Charles XII. of Sweden, and of Peter the Great, czar of Muscovy.

"We finish this view of universal history, by a survey of the state of the arts and sciences; and of the progress of literature in Europe, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries."

This plan is then repeated in the more expanded shape of a syllabus, which forms a convenient remembrancer, or chronological list, free from references authorities, of the particulars that it seems most worth while to recollect out of the mass of historical information. The book is less adapted to the learner, than to the adept; it is not a substitute for historical reading; but it is a well-made abstract of what ought to be most impressive, and will resist the oblivion of the leading facts, and favour a judicious estimate of the principal occurrences.

The author tells us, at the end of his plan (p. 16), that he adopts the chronology of Usher; yet in his eleventh chapter he appears to have rejected the opinion of Usher, that the Darius of Herodotus is the Ahasuerus of the book of Esther. The inference seems to be that Usher has not been much consulted; but that Rollin, and the current modern abridgements of the universal history, have supplied the chronology adopted. There was no occasion to prefer Usher; but if he is made the voucher, his theories should have been faithfully given. To this Darius ought to have been ascribed the extinction of the empire of Sardanapalus, or Esarhaddon; but these events are here narrated, as if Sardanapalus had long preceded him!

We are told (p. 58) that the Zend-avesta teaches "a chastened Epicurism." The obvious sense of this expression is, that the Zend-avesta neither teaches the interference of the gods in human affairs, nor the doctrine of a future state; whereas it teaches both. Epicurism, if it means any thing, means the doctrine of those moralists, who place in a refined sensuality the supreme good. The Zend-avesta teaches the pre-existence of the soul, and very many self-denying rites, supposed to be conducive to its future restoration; it also teaches the doctrine of two principles; which is commonly called Manicheism; but which existed long before Manes, and was already received by the Jews at the time of Christ, and probably by his sectators. The book of Job is the earliest work of literature which implies this doctrine.

Xenophon, of all the Greeks the most accomplished character, because he united the bodily and the intellectual, the practical and the speculative, talents, in consummate perfection, is insufficiently noticed (page 101). Greece produced

only individuals; not a system of political stability; not laws, institutions, nations of account: her greatest glory, therefore, is her greatest individual.

In the Roman history the social war is insufficiently narrated; it was a civil war for parliamentary reform, and on many accounts deserves modern contemplation: the excellent patriot Drusus is not even mentioned. Despotism is too readily admitted to have set in with the kingship of the Cesarean dynasty; the deposition of Nero appears to have resulted from his unpopularity in the senate: a parliament which can depose a king is not yet an insignificant body. It deserves notice, though it is a mortifying fact, and has escaped Gibbon, that in the fatal reign of Arcadius and Honorius, the humane, the mild, the benevolent virtues had attained a high reputation, and that Telemachus was sainted for inveighing against gladiatorial sports.

The characteristic difference between ancient and modern nations is this, that in ancient nations every important change results from the interference of great individuals, who impress their views and pursuits on numerous partizans; whereas, in modern nations, every important change results from certain founders of opinions, who, in proportion as they are successful in forming numerous or important sects, find practical realizers of their views. In ancient times, excepting the case of the Christian religion, there is not an instance of a government overthrown by persons who had not themselves any concern in the revolution; but in modern times Luther convulsed Germany; Calvin, France; Knox, Scotland; and of late years Franklin and Paine made revolutions in America; Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Rousseau in France; to say nothing of less considerable instances, almost without any direct interference. The practical men were formerly, the speculative men are now, the agitators of states. This is a natural result of the introduction of printing. It should seem, therefore, that ancient history ought to be brought down to the invention of the printing press; and not to cease with the expiry of the Roman empire, because until that period it is individuals we have to contemplate; and afterwards, sects and parties.

In the account of the Gothic nations



(p. 254), the æra of Odin is glanced at, and he is placed seventy years before the Christian æra. For this date there is no authority whatever. It is a dream of Muller's, incredulously repeated by Gibbon. If Odin had flourished before the Christian æra, Pliny and Tacitus must both have mentioned him in their accounts of Germany; but they are both wholly ignorant of his existence. The pedigrees in the Saxon chronicle, which are very credible, agree to place him between fifty and seventy years before Alaric. This coincides with every historical probability; a great movement was at that time impressed on all the Gothic nations, such as the Mahomet of the north is likely to have occasioned. He may have served in the corps of Varangi, at Constantinople, and there have acquired the art of writing, and those ideas derived from Christian legends, which occasionally appear in the Edda.

In the recital of the original authorities, the date of Quintus Curtius (p. 270) is not discussed; he is probably so very late a writer, that his authority amounts to nothing; at least, he was one of the authors soonest resorted to by the revivers of literature, and almost every book was resumed in the inverse order of its production: first the classics of the declining age, then the fathers, then the Pagans. Men reascended the steps of the temple of literature in the order of their position; such being, no doubt, the natural march of the human mind.

A table of comparative geography, in which the modern names of lands, and their subdivisions, occur on the left, and the ancient names on the right page, terminates the first volume.

Vol. II. In the account of the Gallic nations (p. 11), we are told that the ancient *Germans* had the highest veneration for their priests or druids. We presume the word *Germans* is a misprint for *Gauls*, as the Germans had no druids, and not an extraordinary veneration for their priests, whatever they might have for their prophetesses or witches.

The origin of the feudal system is involved in much obscurity; it will probably be found, like chivalry, rime and romance, and every institution that peculiarizes the heroic age of modern Europe, to have originated among the Cimbri nations. The Goths were savages; but the druidic or rather bardic order,

among the Cimbri, was very literate, not to say learned, and may well have invented and established the feudal legislation.

In the twelfth lecture on the history of Britain, from its earliest period (p. 50), our author boasts that he will not strive to pierce that mist of obscurity which veils the primæval population of the British isles. Surely this incuriosity is neither liberal nor patriotic: doubts have been stated by Mr. Pinkerton, whether the Gothic language that we now use, was first introduced by the Saxons into the island; or whether it was already spoken by the Caledonians and the Belgæ; was it not worth while to collect and state the hostile arguments?

An interesting though a superfluous lecture is consecrated to Bailly's theory of a primæval nation, whence the arts and sciences were all borrowed; there is no occasion for stationing this nation in an unknown land. Babylon was civilized very early, and had great intercourse by the Red Sea with Egypt and the Phenicians; great intercourse with Guzurate, whence the Hindoos may have expanded; and probably some intercourse with China. Why may not astronomy, then, have originated among the Chaldeans? Nineveh was, perhaps, civilized still earlier, and furnished both to Asia minor and to Babylon the rudiments of idolatry and of the arts. Whether the progenitors of the present human race were the remnants of vast Antediluvian nations, or were brought by higher beings from some other planet to stock an uninhabited world, it is still most probable that their original dwelling-place must be sought very near to the mountains of Ararat.

" 1. The striking resemblance in many points of character between the Chinese and ancient Egyptians, has led to the conjecture, either that they were originally the same people, the one being a colony of the other, or that the two nations have had at some remote period such intercourse, either by conquest or in the way of commerce, as to occasion a reciprocal communication of manners, arts, and knowledge of the sciences. M. de Mairan has remarked the following points of similarity. The Egyptians and Chinese had the same permanence of manners, and abhorrence of innovations; they were alike remarkable for the respect entertained by children to their parents; they were equally averse to war; they had the same general but superficial knowledge in

the arts and sciences, without the ability to make great attainments; they both in the most ancient times used hieroglyphics; the Egyptians had a solemn festival, called the *feast of the lights*, the Chinese have the *feast of the lanterns*; the features of the Chinese are said to resemble the ancient Egyptian statues; certain characters engraven on an Egyptian bust of Isis were found to belong to the Chinese language.

"2. M. Bailly has taken a wider range of observation, and has, from a review of the manners, customs, opinions, and attainments of the Indians, Persians, Chinese, Chaldeans, and Egyptians, discovered many circumstances of similarity between all those nations equally remarkable as the foregoing. He has thence formed the singular hypothesis, that the knowledge common to the whole of those nations has been derived from the same original source, namely, a most ancient and highly cultivated people of Asia, of whose memory every trace is now extinct, but who have been the parent instructors of all around them. 'If we find,' says he, 'in the scattered huts of peasants, fragments interspersed of sculptured columns, we conclude for certain that these are not the work of the rude peasants who reared those huts, but that they are the remains of a magnificent building, the work of able architects, though we discover no other traces of the existence of that building, and cannot ascertain its precise situation.'

"3. The sciences and arts of the Chinese have been stationary for 2000 years. The people seem never to have availed themselves of the lights of their ancestors. They are like the inhabitants of a country recently discovered by a polished people, who have taught them some of their arts, and left their instruments among them. The knowledge they possess seems to have been imported, and not of original growth, for it has never been progressive.

"4. The Chaldeans were an enlightened people at the commencement of the Babylonish empire, 2000 years before the Christian era. They were great astronomers, and understood the revolutions of comets, which became known to the moderns only in the sixteenth century. The Chaldeans were probably the remains of this ancient people. The Bramins of India believe in the unity of God and the immortality of the soul, but with these sublime tenets they intermix the most childish absurdities. They derived the former from wise instructors, the latter were the fruit of their own ignorance. The Sanscrit, a most copious and elegant language, and the vehicle of all the Indian knowledge and philosophy, has been a dead tongue for thousands of years, and is intelligible only to a few of those Bramins. It was probably the language of that great ancient people.

"5. The coincidence or similarity of customs concurs to establish the same idea.

The custom of libation was common to the Tartars and Chinese, as well as to the Greeks and Romans. All the Asiatic nations had festivals of the nature of the Roman *Saturnalia*. The tradition of the deluge is diffused among all those nations; the tradition of the giants attacking heaven is equally general. The doctrine of the metempsychosis was common to the Egyptians, Greeks, Indians, Persians, Tartarians, and Chinese. The religion of all these nations is founded on the profound though erroneous doctrine of the two principles, an universal soul pervading all nature, and inert matter on which it acts. A conformity in a true doctrine is no proof of mutual communication or concert; but it is ingeniously remarked, that a conformity in a false doctrine comes very near to such a proof.

"6. The Egyptians, Chaldeans, Indians, Persians, and Chinese, all placed their temples fronting the east, to receive the first rays of the sun. The worship of the sun has been the religion of that ancient people. All the above-mentioned nations had a cycle, or period of sixty years, for regulating their chronology: they all divided the circle into 360 degrees, the zodiac into twelve signs, and the week into seven days; and the Chinese, Indians, and Egyptians designed those days by the names of the planets ranged in the same order. The long measures of the ancient nations had all one common origin.

"7. These singular coincidences, argues M. Bailly, can be accounted for only by three suppositions: 1. That there was a free communication between all those ancient nations; 2. That those circumstances of coincidence are so founded in human nature, that the most unconnected nations could not fail to hit upon them; or 3. That they have been all derived from a common source. He rejects the two former suppositions, as contrary in his opinion to fact, and rests of course upon the last.

"8. The precise situation of this great ancient people M. Bailly does not pretend to fix with certainty, but he offers probable reasons for conjecturing that it was about the 49th or 50th degree of north latitude, in the southern regions of Siberia. Many of the European and Asiatic nations attribute their origin to that quarter, which thence appears to have been extremely populous. Nitre, a production from animal substances, is more abundant there than in any other region. The observations of the rising of the stars collected by Ptolemy, must have been made in a climate where the longest day was sixteen hours, which corresponds to the latitude mentioned. No European nation in that latitude understood astronomy in those early periods. The veneration of the Indians and Chinese for the Lama of Thibet, is a proof that the religion of those nations originated in that quarter.

"9. But does that country exhibit any traces

of having been ever inhabited by a polished people? It is here that the theory of M. Bailly seems to be least supported by proof. He observes, that ancient mines have been discovered in those parts of Siberia, which have been wrought to great extent in a period beyond all record or tradition; that ancient sepulchres have been found, in which there were ornaments of gold of skilful workmanship: but the facts specified are so few as to warrant no positive inference.

"10. This theory is an amusing specimen of the author's ingenuity; but it has not the force to draw our assent to his conclusions. We have noticed it, as specifying many curious facts relative to the manners and attainments of the ancient nations, and as furnishing strong evidence of the common origin of mankind. The nations above-mentioned, though many of them remote from each other, were all connected, as links of a chain, by proximity; whence it is easy to conceive that knowledge should diverge from a centre to a very distant circumference. M. Bailly has given no reasonable grounds for fixing that centre in the position he has assigned it."

To the second volume is appended a very convenient chronological table, and some bad maps.

In the proportion, in the selection of his matter, the author of these Elements

has displayed great judgment: they surpass the analogous work of the Abbé Millot, which was drawn up for the instruction of the Prince of Parma, and which is at present in Europe, the most usual manual of history. We cannot help wishing that the author had every where brought his sketches down to the close of the eighteenth century, which, though true of his chronological, is not of his historical or literary surveys. The birth, the progress, the decay of nations; the prodigious effects of passions and talents; the surprizing variety of laws, manners, customs and opinions; the events which have so often metamorphosed the surface of the globe; in a word, all the objects which history presents to man, have the most intimate connection with his bosom and his business. Ignorant of them, he would be as it were a foreigner in his country, the earth; he would not know mankind, and consequently would want the skill requisite to fill up respectably the station which connects him with his fellow-creatures: for, as Cicero observes, "History is both the torch of information, and the preceptress of conduct: *lux veritatis, magistra vite.*"

ART. II. *The History of the Anglo-Saxons, from their first Appearance above the Elbe, to the Death of Egbert.* By SH. TURNER. 1st and 2d vols. 8vo. pp. about 400 in each vol.

THERE is so much real talent, so much amiable ambition, so much industrious research, in the author of this history, that we criticise unwillingly: but it happens that we disagree with him in many particulars.

The first chapter treats of the origin of the Saxons. To Ptolemy of Alexandria, is ascribed the first mention of them. Herodotus, in Thalia and elsewhere, mentions Sakai as residing near the Caspian Sea; and as these people are included in the Scythian or Gothic swarm, and proceed continually westwards with the Massagetai, or Visigoths, of whom they seem to be a subdivision; it is highly probable that these Sakai are the original Saxons. In this case there is a vast mass of ancient history about them before Ptolemy. They waged war with Cyrus; they plundered in Syria the temples of Anaitis; and were probably a part of the army, whose defeat at Hamonah Ezekiel commemorates.

We are told (page 2) that our laws, our government, our language, display our Cimbric ancestors in every part. Nations must be classed, while they are roving tribes, by their languages. That of the Saxons is a Gothic dialect. That of the Cimbri is Welsh. But instead of distinguishing between these nations, our author confounds them entirely: and actually talks of our Cimbric ancestors, who are the Welsh, when he means the Saxons. The earliest wave of population, which flowed out of Asia into Europe, was the Gaelic. Accordingly the descendants of those who spoke that tongue inhabit the westmost points; having been pressed by the next, or Cimbric, wave, into the extreme situations. Thirdly comes the Gothic wave, of which the Saxons form a part. Each of these waves of people overflow in turn the whole middle zone of Europe. The Cimbri once occupied the Danish peninsula, which was denominated from them among the ancients; but it is now

wholly occupied by Goths. Mr. Turner seems to think it allowable to call those Goths, Cimbri, who inhabited the Cimbric Chersonesus; which is like calling those French, English, who now garrison Flushing.

At page 6, our author enquires concerning Magog and Gomer. He should have disdained the topic, or have gone to the bottom of the enquiry. Michaelis has shown that the tenth chapter of Genesis contains geography in the form of genealogy, which is, as we know from Ferishta, a very usual form in the east. Michaelis has been assisted by Schloetzer in rendering it probable that Magog and Gomer are the tribes of Massagetai and Kimmerioi, or Visigoths and Cimbri; and consequently that at whatever period this geographical document originated, probably under Darius Hystaspes, these two tribes, the progenitors of our Saxon and Welsh population, were already contiguous but distinct inhabitants of Japhet (Natalia, or Europe?). To the leading authorities of weight and sense, not to a micrological catalogue of credulous and forgotten antiquaries, whom it is at most allowable for an epic poet to lean on or consult, the historian now-a-days ought to refer his reader: there is surely a want of discrimination in the profuse reference of our author: he appeals to Macpherson for the early history of Britain, when he should appeal to Pinkerton.

We hear at page 20 of the Slavonic instead of the Slavonic language: the *c*, however usual, is as impertinent a superfluity as the first *r* when we write Tartar for Tatar. At page 22, the etymology of Saxon is attempted with doubtful success: and the enquiry is omitted why certain Saxons are called Angles or Anglo-Saxons. Angle means a fishing-hook, whence the verb *to angle*. Probably those Saxons, who had settled along the rivers, became remarkable by their skill and passion for angling, and were therefore called the Angler-Saxons. It is remarkable that Wilfrid, a Saxon bishop, who converted many pagan British to Christianity, is described by Beda (lib. iv. c. 14.) as having taught them to fish; before his time they could only catch eels. They wanted loaves, and he remedied their famine by multiplying their supply of fish.

Mr. Turner does not agitate the very difficult question stated by Mr. Pinker-

ton, whether the Belgæ were a Cimbric, or a Gothic tribe. The victories of Hengist are judiciously curtailed to a mere colonization of the isle of Thanet; but it seems impossible to account for the national diffusion of a Gothic dialect, without either supposing with Mr. Pinkerton (a supposal thwarted by much testimony) that the Belgæ were Goths; or that the Caledonian, the Pikish, and other tribes, who first settled in the north, have, in fact, supplied the mass of inland English population. Some anecdotes might have been gleaned from Procopius, which we have not observed in our author's collection.

At page 194, the superstitions of druidism are in some degree investigated; but the very curious question is not attempted whether the Druids were Monotheists, or Polytheists. All ancient testimony, that of Cæsar decisively, makes them Polytheists; all the domestic interior testimony, derived from the Welsh bards, makes them Monotheists. Can Cæsar have confounded the idolatry of the Gaelic, with the monotheism of the Cimbric nations; and have attributed to the Druids those rites and opinions which they were gradually superseding?

The fifth, a very interesting chapter, concerns Arthur. It might have deserved notice, that the still extant superstition, of thirteen persons in company being an unlucky number, originates in the romance of Sir Tristan. There were thirteen seats to the round table in honour of the thirteen apostles; but the chair of Judas it was deemed unlucky to occupy. In the note concerning the fairy Morgana, we miss what is said of her in the romance of Sir Huon of Bourdeaux. We will quote it. "King Oberon seeing that a great strife was likely to arise between the two princes (Arthur and Huon) said that he would be a judge between them. He told Arthur, that if he spoke further against Huon's becoming king of fairy-land, he would transform him for thirty years into a merman (the antithetic word to mermaid, *luiton en mer* in the original); but that if he were wise, he would be reconciled to Huon. Arthur answered nothing. Then the fairy Morgana, and Transelina, kneeled down before the king, and begged him to take pity of his brother Arthur, and to pardon his fault. When Morgana had spoken, King Ar-

thurs also kneeled and said: 'Sire, I crave pardon if I have withstood your will.' 'Arthur,' said King Oberon, 'I pardon you on your sister's account, else I would have shown you the great power of my fairyism, which I hand over henceforth to Sir Huon of Bourdeaux, who is the mortal I love best.' Huon humbly thanked the noble King Oberon." There is in this passage a something prophetic: Sir Huon is become, in consequence of Wieland's poem, the most eminent of all the heroes of fairyland: What British hand shall wrest away the sceptre in favour of Arthur, and call him from his tomb to reign again?

As so copious a discussion of the fabulous history of Arthur has been admitted; surely it would have been equally in its place to give a minute account of the heathenism of the Saxons, of the mythological notions and rites introduced by the sons of Odin. The pedigrees in the Saxon chronicle all ascend to one or other of the divinities in the Edda. Is this the resource of a skald, whose ignorance pierces no deeper into the night of antiquity, who does not, like a Hebrew scribe, think fourteen generations essential to a pedigree; or, like a Welsh bard, remember back his hero's descent from some antagonist of Julius Cæsar; or is it the real genealogy of the conquerors of Britain? Antient testimony does not oppose the placing of Odin about the time of Constantine; as if paganism, to avenge her defeats in the south, had created and inspired a hero-prophet in the north. The religion of a nation constitutes so important a feature of its manners, that it is hardly excusable to have passed over so heedlessly that of the Saxons. Its leading features are by no means well understood. The old Edda describes one sort of system, the new Edda another; Verstegan, in his decayed intelligence, from sources which it is not easy to discover, but which supply very probable accounts, describes quite a third set of idols and divinities. The long duration of heathenism in England, has not been sufficiently noticed by antiquaries: it maintained its ground much longer than the monkish historians are willing to allow. Under Edward the Confessor, that great temple of Thor was first consecrated to Saint Peter, which is now called Westminster Abbey. Harold II.

appears evidently to have been supported by a heathen party; and to have fallen before William the Norman for the same reason as Maxentius before Constantine.

The laws of Ina deserved, in our opinion, an extended analysis: the state of jurisprudence is an important criterion of the public civilization: yet we are only told (p. 309) that such laws exist. The life of Ina is very remarkable; such was his love of letters and religion, that he voluntarily resigned a Saxon sovereignty to dwell privately at Rome, then the metropolis of literature and art, of refinement, magnificence, and luxury. The Rome-scot, or Peter-pence, which he imposed on his subjects, seems to have been an imitation of a sort of tribute to their idol-deities in use among the Gothic nations, which on their conversion was commuted for a similar tribute to some Christian saint, whereby they became partakers of the truce of God (*treugas Dei*), and were not to be troubled in person or property by those of the same faith. (See Conring de orig. Germ. l. p. 349.) The liturgic baptismal promise "to renounce the devil and all his works," preserves a part of the very formula in use, when these heathens undertook to transfer their allegiance from Hertha to the Virgin, from Thor to Peter, or from Frea to Magdalena. It was customary among the heathens, after dinner, to toast the immortal memory of their gods; first of Odin, then of Thor, and other Asas, and at length, of the goddess whose veiled car is supposed to have concealed the emblems worshipped in the east, under the name of the Lingam. Of this practice the Christian missionaries did not attempt the abolition; but they directed (says Reysler Antiq. Septentrion. p. 359.), that the first cup should be emptied to the Father, the second to Jesus Christ, the third to the Holy Spirit, and the fourth to the Virgin Mary. Reysler has ably pleaded the claim of the Saxons (p. 233.) to the construction of Stone-henge: the various controversies respecting this monument, deserved some critical animadversion. More should have been said of the early excellence of the Saxons in navigation: Claudian has

—Ne littore tuto  
Prospicerem dubiis venturum Saxona ventis.



They could sail so near the wind as to surprise the Mediterranean navigators.

The second volume is executed in a superior manner to the first; yet an adequate use has not been made of those voluminous antiquarian collections which, at the expence of the curious and patriotic Suhm, have been printed in Denmark, and which comprehends many Sagas that illustrate British history, and many documents that throw light on the manners, literature, and legislation, of all the Gothic nations. Every successive investigation tends more and more to show, that, from the Cimbric nations, the Goths have had to learn every thing: that navigation, heraldry, the architecture we call Gothic, chivalry, rime, romance, writing itself, were learned in the two Armoricas of the Phenicians, and thence distributed eastward among the northern savages.

Of Ragnar Lodbrog our author thus speaks.

"We may concede to the historical traditions of the north, that Ragnar Lodbrog pirated, with success, on various parts of Europe, on the British Islands, on Sweden, Norway, and the coasts round the Baltic.\* We may admit, that he appears to have been one of those men whose life becomes a polar star to his contemporaries, and that his activity and genius were fitted to give celebrity to bloodshed, and dignity to plunder. "Full fifty times" his lance may have announced the distant enterprise. But it would be an unjust aggrandisement of his fame, to attribute to him all the horrors which northern piracy poured upon Europe in the first part of the ninth century. It is indeed a coincidence with his life, that till he lived, few and rare were the aggressions of the seaking and the Vikings, beyond the northern Hellespont.† He may have given to the storm of depredation a new direction; but when he had once lifted up his spear, which his Quida truly calls, "Dire devastation's harbinger;" when he had once crossed new oceans, and thrown the beam of glory round his course, adventurers swarmed from every coast, eager to track his way. New heroes

appeared every year, and the seas were burdened with ever succeeding fleets of ruthless savages, greedy of pillage, and ferocious in destruction.

"It was the lot of Ragnar to have a numerous posterity,‡ and all his passions were plentifully infused into his children. He educated them to the sceptre of the ocean, and so eager and indiscriminating was their emulation of his fame, that they dared to wield it even in rebellion to his will.§ But in general they were content to move as planets obedient to his influence, and subordinate to his orbit. The young eaglets followed their father, or their battle-tutors, to banquet on the miseries of society, till age and experience, in the horrid toil, had given them the ability of acting for themselves. Thus in Ireland and Wales, Ivar flushed his sword;|| Hvitserk in Austria; Agner and others in England; and Biorn in France and Sweden.

"Sometimes the falcon and the wolf descended upon them, and their mother had the pang to mourn, which they gave to hundreds; but the Danish wife could rival the ferocity of the Spartan. Aslauga prompted them to the contest,¶ and disdained to enshrine their memory by her sensibility. It was then as heroic and as laudable to be unnatural, as, in our frenzied days, it has been proclaimed to be philosophical.

"Whatever depredations Ragnar committed on the Anglo-Saxons, we cannot from their annals ascertain, because, though they mention many invasions, they omit to notice the commander. But the Frankish chronicles have commemorated two incursions of France, one by Biorn Ironside, the son of Ragnar, in 843; the other by Ragnar himself, in 845.

"In 843, Biorn was sent out with Hastings as his military tutor, to commence his piratical education.

"They entered the Loire in June, and assaulted Nantz; the walls were scaled or beaten down. A contemporary endangered by the aggression states, that the bishop, the clergy, monks, and inhabitants, fled into the largest church in the city. The Pagans beat in the windows, and at last forced the doors, and then rushed in upon the helpless multitude. They slaughtered till they were weary; the few who survived, were dragged

\* We may refer to Saxo, l. 9, p. 169, 177, with Stephanus's notes; to the Icelandic fragment, in 2 Langb. 270, 280, to the Ragnar Saga, and to Torfeus, in his Series Dan. and in his Hist. Norveg. for the particular transactions of Ragnar. Johannes Magnus, and Locenius, also mention his history.

† The Baltic is called by some the Heitellespont. Thus: Hevelius, in his observation of the eclipse of the sun taken at Dantzic, 1649, says, *desit itaque Hellespontum versus a puncto sc. zenith, circa 55, gradum et ab ecliptica circa 27, Dedic. to his Selenographia.* The use of this word has, I think, sometimes misled northern authors to carry some of their heroes towards the Euxine, to Homer's Hellespont.

‡ According to Saxo, he had ten sons by his three wives, p. 169, 170, 172. The Ragnar Saga, ap. Torfeus, 346, 347, gives their mothers differently from Saxo.

§ See the Icelandic fragment, 2 Langb. 273.

|| Annals of Ulster, p. 64.

¶ See her exhortations, 2 Langb. 275.

to their ships. The writer describes what he had seen; the infants still hanging on the breasts of their dead mothers, and the altars flowing with human blood.

"With a just indignation, he remarks on the intestine quarrels of the kings, whose perverse ambition exposed them to such calamities. Laden with every spoil, and with the unfortunate captives, they sailed down the Loire, and seized the island near it; there they quarrelled, and fought about their booty.\*

"Two years afterwards an invasion of France occurred, which may be ascribed to Ragnar Lodbrog. The commander of the Northmen is declared to have been Ragnar,† and as Lodbrog was peculiarly active at this period, it seems reasonable to consider him as the invader.‡ He reached Paris, and entered it on the 27th of March. His fleet was composed of 120 ships.

"Aimonus has transmitted to us a detail of this invasion; he says, while the kingdom of the Franks was divided into many parties, the Northmen invaded it; they began by ravaging the isles of the sea, but experiencing no resistance, they entered the Seine; they attacked Rouen, and finding the chiefs of the country slow to fight, they became so emboldened, that they left their ships, and spread themselves over the country.

"Invited onward by the general terror, they had the hardihood to sail up the river, plundering and slaughtering all the way. At last they reached Paris at easter; the next day they quitted their ships, and found the city deserted by the inhabitants; they destroyed the monastery of St. Germain; a great present from the king dissuaded them from further ravages.§

"It was an English prince who at last avenged the world on Ragnar; in an ill-omened hour avenged it, for dire was the retaliation which ensued.

"In addition to Aslauga's counsel, Ragnar constructed two ships of a size which the North had never beheld before; he filled

them with soldiers, and sailed along the Scottish coast to England, which he selected to be the theatre of his exertions.||

"The vessels, too large for the ignorant navigation of that period, were shipwrecked on the English shore; but Ragnar never calculated danger; and, when battle called, never held council with his prudence. Though thrown on the coast of enemies, without means of return, he moved forward as soon as he got to the shore, to plunder and ravage, as if disdaining to recollect, that his small band would soon be confronted by a nation's array.

"Ella, at that time, commanded in the throne of Deira, and, with the force of his kingdom, marched up to the fearless Vikingr; a fierce, though unequal, conflict ensued. It was a Danish maxim never to refuse the combat, even with the most superior foe. Ragnar, clothed in the garments which he had received from his beloved Aslauga at their parting, four times pierced the ranks of Ella; his friends fell one by one around him, and he at last was taken prisoner alive.

"But Ella knew not the rights of the unfortunate, nor the duties of a conqueror. He obeyed the impulse of barbarian resentment, and doomed his illustrious prisoner to perish with lingering pain in a dungeon, stung by venomous snakes.¶

"Ragnar contemplated his fate without a groan of sorrow; his undaunted soul breathed its last energies in prospects of revenge, and cheered the agonizing hour by the hopes of his superstition.\*\* If the Quida has preserved the true expression of his feelings, the moment of his death was signalized by a laugh of defiance.

"So perished Ragnar Lodbrog;†† but as his life had disturbed the world, his death became prolific of calamity to England. His sons, the children of Aslauga, heard of his fate with feelings the most indignant; but their filial sorrow consisted not of tears and groans, because their rugged minds despised

\* *Fragm. Hist. Brit. Armor.* ap Bouquet, T. 7, p. 46 This fragment, says its editor, gives the origin and cause of the celebrated discord which separated the church of Dole from Tours for 300 years. The chronicles which mention Biorn's expeditions are numerous. The collection of authorities in Pontoppidan's *Gesta Danorum*, may be referred to on this subject.

† *Ragneri dux Northmannorum venit cum classe sua et usque Parisiis accessit ac in vigilia S. Pasche id est V. Kal. Ap. eandem urbem intravit.* Chron. Fontenel. Bouquet, 7, 41. The *Chronicon Vezeliacense*, names him Raynerius, ib. 271. The author of the *Miracles of Richarius*, styles him Rainerius, ib. 361; and Aimonus has Ragenarius, ib. 350. These variations of orthography are very common at this period.

‡ Petrus Claus affirms this; 1 *Langb.* 109. And others favour the idea.

§ Aimonus *Meraul.* S. Germ. ap. Du Chesne, v. ii, 653, 657. The *Annales Bertin.*

|| 2 *Langb.* 227. Torfeus, *Hist. Norv.*

¶ 2 *Langb.* 277. Saxo has been thought to place Ella in Ireland, but whoever reads the pages 176, 177, carefully, will see that he speaks of England. The Icelandic authors unanimously station him in Northumbria. This fact ascertains the time of Ragnar's death, for Ella usurped the Northumbrian crown in 862, and perished 867; therefore between these years Ragnar must have expired.

\*\* See the last stanzas of the *Quida*.

†† The English chroniclers acknowledge that Lodbrog was killed in England, but so imperfectly was the Northumbrian history known to them, that for the true history of Ragnar's fate, they substitute two contradictory tales. See *Matt. West.* 314, 316, and *Bromton* 802.

these as imbecility. Their grief obeyed his command, and assumed the shape of the most desperate revenge. Their predatory depredations, the transient hostilities of a sea-king, were laid aside; all former habits, all present projects, were forgotten. Retaliation the most unbounded was determined on; and as their father's activity had made every shore resound with his deeds, on their communication of his fate, and their purposes of punishment, a mighty torrent of vindictive fury was collected.\* Federated bands of warriors demanding the atoning battle, and inflamed with fierce and determined hatred against the king who had destroyed their favourite hero, assembled from every region: Jutes, Swedes, Norwegians, Danes, Frisians, and other nations; all the fury, and all the valour of the North were assembled for the expedition.† Eight kings and twenty jarls, the children, the relations, and the associates of Ragnar commanded it;‡ and when the army of revenge was sufficiently amassed, it quitted the Baltic, and arrived safe on the East-Anglian coast."

Where was the dungeon situate in which Ragnar Lodbrog perished? One account says in Norwich castle.

This history is not formed to perish. The greatest service which can be rendered to it in its present state, is to accumulate criticisms in detail, which may

suggest, to the laborious author, the topics and the authorities of future investigation. His acquaintance with the northern languages appears to us rather immediate than direct: and of the later writers about septentrional antiquities, he seems not to have heard. Even Moser's history of Osnaburg, which was dedicated to the Duke of York, in 1780, has not been examined. He has used with meritorious novelty, the discoveries of the Welsh antiquaries: but he attributes an antiquity to the productions lately printed, which it may be difficult to establish. His style is splendid, and like a bright light held between the eye and an object, it often intercepts the observation of what it is intended to display: it withdraws attention from the narrative by occasional coruscations of wit, and frequent iridescences of fancy. In this respect it resembles the style of Gibbon, but without rivaling his impressive precision, or condensation of thought. It is very pleasing to the ear, when read aloud.

We look forward with much curiosity to the third volume, and trust that a new edition will insert whatever is yet wanting in a contribution so very interesting to our national antiquities.

**ART. III.** *The History of England, from the Accession of George III. to the Conclusion of Peace in the Year 1783.* By JOHN ADOLPHUS, Esq. F. S. A. 3 vols. 8vo. pp. about 600 in each vol.

**MABLY**, in his Theory of History-writing, has observed, that, whatever be the period or subject chosen, the annalist should endeavour to detect the leading current, the main drift of the incidents, and then imbue himself with that particular form of bias or prejudice, which tends to value highest, and to be most interested about the chief business of his history. Let a zeal for democracy animate the describer of Athens; let a solicitude for territorial aggrandizement be held important by the historian of Rome. The annalist of the popes should have at heart the diffusion and magnificence of religion; the biographer of the Medici should take an exclusive delight in the progress of literature and art.

Where unity of purpose is wanting, either in national or individual pursuits, the interest excited by them is feeble; the prospect diverges into indistinctness; the motive of all the business and bustle is forgotten, and the heroes of an historical drama separate into a band of players.

In the life and conduct of George the Third it seems difficult, at first glance, to detect the ruling passion or binding principle of his actions. One sees, it is true, much to praise. He sets an example of the household virtues, which has given a sort of fashion to the conjugal affections; and thus has preserved and increased domestic happiness among innumerable families of the empire. He

\* 2 Langb. 278, Saxo 176, Matt. Westm. 316, Bromton 803.

† Alured. Beverl. 92, Huntingdon 347, Simeon Dun. 13, Eth. Riev. 353.

‡ Regibus 8, videlicet Bacsq, Haldene, Inquar; Ubbæ, Guthrums, Oskitel, Amund et Eowls, ac plusquam 20 comitibus et variis armorum generibus instructus Alur. Rev. 93. Simeon adds to his kings, Sidroc cum alio ejusdem nominis duce, Osberno quoque et Frena, necnon Haraldø adducti, p. 14.

displays great frugality, which in a prince, who is hourly called upon to give, yet has only the property of his subjects to bestow, is a most difficult and meritorious quality; a frugality too, the parent of order and economy among the imitative higher ranks of landed and commercial opulence, and thus a source of regular gain and punctual payment to a vast mass of industry. But in studying the royal statesmanship, the political interference of majesty with the public concerns of the country, one is apt to see much to blame; one is often at a loss for a satisfactory defence, or even a natural explanation. Our author has imperceptibly found it in an analogous bent of mind. He too is a sectator of church and king politics; he too has a disinterested love of the cause of toryism. There is thus all that adaptation, which Mahly recommends, between the movement of the history and the spirit of the historian.

In the second chapter the retinal of Lord Bute, in preference to the great Pitt, as leading minister, is by our author approved (p. 46 and 47); and at page 231 he says of the same Pitt, that his speeches do honour to his abilities as an orator, but not to his wisdom as a politician. Surely the drift of Mr. Pitt's speech on American affairs in 1766 was to propose the introduction of representatives of the American provinces into the British senate; for he attacks the borough representation as a thing to be amputated; he recommends an increase of provincial representation; he advises the unequivocal assertion of British sovereignty and supremacy over America; and yet he maintains that taxation ought never to be inflicted on the unrepresented. These different proposals, made on that critical occasion, evidently point to the reception of American representatives in a British parliament; a measure so wise that the proposal was long after renewed by Adam Smith in the fourth book and seventh chapter of his *Wealth of Nations*; and even to this day continues the only plan of reconciliation, which ever had a chance of being permanently efficacious. The following account of one portion of the ministerial life of Lord Chatham may produce elucidations from other quarters:

"The opposition to Lord Chatham's ministry was not unexpected. The estrange-

ment of Lord Temple deprived him of many adherents, and a formidable coalition of parties was formed against him. Anxious to break this combination, he made overtures to the Duke of Bedford. In a conference at Bath, he stated the principal measures which he intended to pursue, to maintain the inviolate observance of the peace, to avoid continental connections and subsidies, and to observe a rigid economy. The Duke said these were his own measures, and declared his resolution to support them, whether his friends were in or out of office. The topic of America was carefully avoided by both parties.

"This interview being understood by the Duke, as well as the Minister, as merely preparatory to another, the Bedford party took little share in the early debates of the session: yet the opposition encountered by Lord Chatham, formed a striking contrast to the constant approbation which awaited the measures of his last administration, and he felt this change with great sensibility. He found it necessary to gain new friends, and enfeeble his opponents; but his endeavours failed of success. The harsh manner in which he dismissed Lord Edgumbe from the appointment of treasurer of the household, with a view to gratify the Duke of Newcastle by bestowing it on Sir John Shelly, the Duke's near relation, disgusted many respectable members of administration. The Duke of Portland, the Earls of Besborough and Scarborough, and Lord Monson, withdrew their support; and Sir Charles Saunders, Sir William Meredith, and Admiral Keppel, resigned their places at the board of admiralty.

"To counterbalance this defection, Lord Chatham renewed his overtures to the Duke of Bedford, and, as an introductory measure, offered the situation of first lord of the admiralty to Lord Gower, who instantly repaired to Woodburn for the purpose of consulting the Duke. During his absence Lord Chatham made a different arrangement. The place of first lord of the admiralty was given to Sir Edward Hawke; the other vacant seats at the board were filled by Mr. Jenkinson and Sir Piercy Brett; and Lord Hillsborough and Lord Le Despencer were appointed joint postmasters. On his arrival in town, the Duke of Bedford held a conference with the minister: he required places for several of his friends, but was mortified with the information that no offices were reserved, and even that which had been offered to Lord Gower was disposed of.

"This whole transaction is involved in impenetrable mystery: the conduct of Lord Chatham indicates embarrassment and precipitation. Although these appointments served to fill up the vacancies, and complete the numbers of administration, no addition of strength was acquired: the adherents of the Duke of Bedford were disgusted, and

those who accepted offices were not conciliated. Lord Chatham was in a similar situation to that of Lord Bute at the close of his administration; the creator of a cabinet who neither loved nor respected him, opposed by a numerous, able, and active party, divested of popularity, and sustained only by the king.

"These circumstances, so new, and so insupportable to his ardent and commanding spirit, produced violent effects on his constitution. The gout tormented him incessantly, and the agitation of his mind, no less than his corporeal sufferings, impelled him to frequent change of residence. From London he went to Bath; dissatisfied with Bath, he attempted to return to London, but was detained by his disorder at Marlborough; he next retired to Hampstead, but soon disliked that situation, and repurchased his former residence at Hayes. His mind was agitated by passions inimical to his repose, and his spirits were occasionally depressed almost to despondency. He was unable to attend public business; and the other members of the cabinet, considering his health irreparably injured, projected new arrangements, and adopted measures not only without consulting him, but in direct opposition to his known opinions. Such was the situation to which that great minister was reduced, who had recently declared in the cabinet his resolution not to sanction measures which he was not allowed to guide. Such were the consequences of forming, what Burke afterwards, with no less wit than truth, described as, "a checkered and speckled administration; a piece of joinery, so crossly indented and whimsically dovetailed; a cabinet so variously inlaid, here a bit of black stone, and there a bit of white; patriots and courtiers; king's friends and republicans; whigs and Tories; treacherous friends and open enemies; that it was indeed a very curious show, but utterly unsafe to touch, and unsure to stand on." The same author pursuing the subject, has observed, "when he had executed his plan, he had not an inch of ground to stand upon; when he had accomplished his scheme of administration he was no longer a minister."

"The want of union in the cabinet was evident in many of the proceedings in parliament. When the chancellor of the exchequer proposed the land tax in the committee, he stated it at four shillings in the pound: "A sum," he added, "necessary for one year longer, to give room for the most brilliant operation of finance ever seen in England; to ensure to us dignity abroad, stability at home, and enable us to enter with advantage into any future war." The proposition was resisted by the country gentlemen, who contended for the reduction of the land tax, according to the usual practice in time of peace, to three shillings in the pound, and derided the mighty consequences which

were promised to result from the additional shilling, as it would produce only five hundred thousand pounds. Mr. Charles Townsend not having prepared his friends to support his proposition, the new adherents of ministry declared that the land tax ought to be perpetuated at four shillings in the pound. This opinion was combated with much asperity, and treated as a breach of faith. An amendment, changing the supply from four to three shillings, was moved by Mr. Grenville, and carried by a majority of eighteen. Thus the chancellor of the exchequer was in a minority on a question of finance: an extraordinary indication of weakness in the cabinet.

"The disunion of the ministry was no less perceptible in the affairs of the East India Company, which, in pursuance of the intimation to the directors, early occupied the attention of parliament; their charters, treaties with the country powers, letters, and correspondence with their servants in India; the state of their revenues in Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, and all other places, were ordered to be laid before the house; together with an account of all expences incurred by government on the company's behalf. Violent debates ensued, and a petition being presented from the company, the order for printing the private correspondence was discharged. A question of so much extent as the concerns of the East India Company, introduced the discussion of many relative and collateral topics; and, among others, a doubt was suggested concerning the right of the company to the territories acquired in India. The agitation of this question produced many animated speeches; the interference of the house of commons was strongly deprecated; it was urged that the difficulty might be resolved in the courts below, and that house was not, by the constitution, the interpreter of laws, or the decider of legal rights.

"The chancellor of the exchequer declared his disinclination to try the question in the house of commons, and recommended an amicable agreement with the company. A large party of the proprietors, though strenuous in maintaining their claim to those possessions during the remaining term of their charter, were rather disposed by a reasonable composition to prevent litigations, and prepared proposals for an adjustment of the dispute. When this scheme was agreed to by the directors, and presented to the ministry, their want of mutual cordiality occasioned new embarrassments: after the proposals had been delivered to several members of administration in succession, they all declined taking any part in the negotiation out of the house; and a petition was presented to parliament, containing two sets of proposals for a temporary agreement during three years."



In the history of the year 1774, which decided the enterprise of hostilities against the Americans, our author pauses to characterise the leading men who took a part in the domestic political warfare. We shall transcribe not all but several of the more successful portraits.

"The **EARL OF SHELburne** possessed ready powers of argumentation, applied himself to the commercial and political relations of Great Britain, and was well versed in foreign affairs. He was first lord of trade during the Duke of Bedford's administration in 1768, and, under the auspices of Lord Chatham, by whom he was held in high estimation, filled the office of secretary of state.

"The **EARL OF CAMDEN** was the principal law lord in opposition, and his exertions were of the utmost importance. He was a member of the house of commons from the year 1754 till December 1761, when he was appointed chief justice of the common pleas. In that court he presided with dignity, firmness, and impartiality; his popularity was established by the memorable questions relative to Wilkes, and considerably augmented by his opposition to the American war. His legislative information was recommended by a nervous and persuasive eloquence. He was personally attached to Lord Chatham, to whom he was indebted for his advancement, and during whose administration he was elevated to the dignity of lord chancellor.

"The **DUKES OF DEVONSHIRE** and **PORTLAND** seldom addressed the house; the former often compensated for silence by a few words of singular force and neatness; they joined in the important protests, and assisted the party with all the weight of their connection and personal influence; and were both highly respected by the public for independence and integrity.

"The lower house exhibited an unusual assemblage of abilities on both sides.

"**MR. JENKINSON**, subsequently Lord Hawkesbury, and Earl of Liverpool, first attracted public notice by a treatise on the conduct of the government of Great Britain, in respect to neutral nations; he was versed in the constitution of the kingdom, applied himself to commercial and political questions, and spoke with correctness and precision. He sat in two preceding parliaments, and his merits were acknowledged by various ministers. In 1766, during Lord Chatham's administration, he was appointed a lord of the admiralty; and in 1772, joint vice-treasurer of Ireland.

"The principal members of the robe who supported administration, besides **SIR FLETCHER NORTON**, the speaker, were **Thurlow** and **Wedderburne**.

"**THURLOW** was nervous, impressive, and majestic, and delivered the resolute dic-

tates of a superior intellect, without soliciting applause. From him truth appeared above the aid of art; and the judgment was summoned to yield without an appeal to the intervention of fancy.

"**WEDDERBURN** was acute, perspicuous, elegant, and persuasive; he alternately essayed the force of reason, and the charms of eloquence; sometimes attacking the judgment with refined argument, at other times appealing to the fancy with the powers of wit, and graces of elocution.

"The most distinguished lawyers in opposition were **Sergeant Glynn** and **Dunning**. **GLYNN** became member for Middlesex, in consequence of his exertions in behalf of Wilkes, and to the same cause may be attributed his attaining the recordership of London in 1772. He was not a frequent speaker, but generally engaged in popular questions, and delivered his sentiments with considerable eloquence and decisive boldness. His health was already much impaired, and an early death deprived his party of his support.

"**DUNNING** had long enjoyed a high reputation at the bar, and filled the office of solicitor-general. He united a perfect knowledge of the law with a liberal view of politics. The meanness of his figure, the ungracefulness of his action, and monotony of his voice, were all lost in the rapidity of his conceptions, the fluency of his words, the flashes of his wit, and the subtlety of his arguments.

"**SIR GEORGE SAVILLE**, who, in the present and two preceding parliaments, represented the county of York, was respected for the soundness of his understanding, the firmness of his principles, and the integrity of his motives. Possessed of a large fortune, and never having accepted any official situation, he was not supposed to be influenced by views of ambition; his opposition was constant and vigorous, and he was considered at the head of the country gentlemen in the minority.

"**COLONEL BARRE** joined to a practical acquaintance with affairs, a bold and nervous eloquence. He reasoned or ridiculed; rolled the deep-toned thunder of patriotic denunciation, or uttered sallies of sarcastic animadversion, with equal readiness and equal effect.

"**MR. BURKE** came into parliament under the immediate auspices of the Marquis of Rockingham, to whom he was introduced merely by the reputation of those learned and admirable publications, which at an early period fixed his fame on an enviable eminence. He was Lord Rockingham's confidential political adviser; and on his judgment and address the proceedings of the anti-ministerial party in a great measure depended. Burke enjoyed the rare advantage of being equally eloquent in speech and in writing; and the Irish accent and manner,

which he never lost, were forgotten in the variety of his excellencies. He possessed great taste, learning, general knowledge, an intimate acquaintance with the laws of nations, and a sagacity which penetrated into the political nature of man; and confidently deduced, from visible causes, those effects, which to a less intuitive mind seemed remote and problematical. At his first entrance into the senate he established a high reputation, which, in all the vicissitudes of a laborious life, he never relinquished. His oratory was of the highest class; and if he appeared on some occasions to give the rein to his fancy, to the prejudice of his judgment, it may be confidently asserted, that no man who spoke so much, and on so many important topics, compensated for a few faults with such a number and variety of beauties. If Burke wandered, the elegance of the digression, and the ingenuity with which it was reconciled to, and connected with, the main subject, repaid the momentary impatience of the auditor. If occasionally he seemed to trifle, or descend below his proper level, he regained his accustomed position with such elastic vigour, and atoned for his temporary aberration with such a splendid profusion of rhetorical beauties, that the most captious felt ashamed to censure, and the most fastidious were abundantly satisfied. To him all nature and all science tendered tributary stores; in this inexhaustible opulence he consulted rather his own resources than the mere wants of the subject, and scattered the treasures of his intellect with unrestrained prodigality: his fervid mind assailed the topic of discussion in every possible direction, and he seemed at last to desist, not because he was exhausted, but because the object of investigation could not afford a point on which to fix a new illustration. To a poetical ardour of imagination, Burke joined a warmth of temper which occasionally transported him beyond the bounds of discretion; but even this frailty had no considerable effect on his argumentation. If he was warm, his reasoning was not less cogent; and although the indignant sensations of the moment sometimes produced expressions which appeared inconsistent with prudence, and derogatory to his high reputation; still the correctness of his images, the happy application of his wit, and the force of his railery, obliterated the recollection of his defects, and left on the mind no other sensations than those of exquisite gratification. In detailing general principles it was extremely fortunate: they always seemed appropriate to his subject, not introduced to cover a defect in the texture of his chief argument, but generated from a natural combination of expansive knowledge, and specific investigation. From him nothing appeared trite, nothing inelegant or unfurnished; his faults as an orator arose from the excess of his excellencies; he reasoned after the hearer was convinced; he

illustrated when the topic was perfectly luminous; he urged fresh grounds of defense when acquittal was already secure; and persevered in accumulating motives of censure, when the indignation of his audience had already attained its highest pitch.

"At the period of which we are treating, the reputation of Burke was in its zenith, and his exertions were sufficient to influence in a considerable degree the politics of the times; but great and admired as they were, the effect they produced was not to be compared with that which resulted from the efforts of the honourable Charles James Fox, second son of Lord Holland.

"Fox displayed at Eton and at Oxford an ardent attachment to classical literature, and gave presage of his future genius by unwearied application to Cicero and Demosthenes, and by preferring the Athenian to the Roman orator. Even in the earliest periods of life, and during all the vicissitudes of pleasure and dissipation, he was indefatigable in the exercise of his argumentative faculty. The indulgent partiality of his father supplied abundant means of gratifying inclinations natural to a youth of warm passions, totally exempt from restraint, and his great talents were shrouded from the view of those who could not discern them through the veil of unbounded dissipation. He obtained a seat in parliament before the period of legal maturity, and was, in 1770, appointed a lord of the admiralty; but his support, though marked with all the ardour of his temper, and energy of his genius, was not yet deemed essential to the cause of government; he had more than once participated in the unpopularity of administration, without the credit of sharing the direction of their measures. In 1772, he resigned his situation at the admiralty with marks of disgust, and was then expected to join the ranks of opposition. The difference was, however, accommodated, and he soon afterwards received a seat at the treasury board, from which he was dismissed in March 1774, with circumstances which occasioned the most lively indignation. To the period of his quitting the side of the minister, Mr. Fox was considered by some as a man for whose political errors, and levity of conduct, youth and inexperience afforded charitable excuses; but he soon discovered powers for regular debate, which neither his friends had hoped, nor his enemies dreaded. The force of Mr. Fox's oratory cannot be adequately described, and can be felt only by those who have heard him on important occasions. His speeches were luminous without the appearance of concerted arrangement; his mind seemed by its masterly force to have compressed, reduced, and disposed the whole subject, with a confident superiority, to systematic rule; the torrent of his eloquence increased in force as the subject expanded; the vehemence of his manner was always

supported by expressions of correspondent energy; and the decisive terms in which he delivered his opinions, by precluding the possibility of evasion; impressed a full conviction of his sincerity, and gained regard even from the most inveterate opponent. The distinguishing characteristic of his arguments was profoundness; his general aim was the establishment of some grand principle, to which all the other parts of his speech were subservient; and his genius for reply was singularly happy. He not only combated the principal reasonings of his adversaries, but, extending a generous protection to his own partisans, rescued their speeches from ridicule or misrepresentation. The boldest conceptions, and most decided principles uttered by him, did not appear gigantic; he seldom employed exaggerated or tumid phraseology; and in the greatest warmth of political contest, few expressions escaped him which can be cited to the disadvantage of his character as a gentleman. Rhetorical embellishments, though frequently found in his harangues, did not seem the produce of laborious cultivation, but spontaneous effusions. Superior to art, Fox seemed to illustrate rules which, perhaps, he had not in contemplation; and the bold originality of his thoughts and expressions would rather entitle him to be considered the founder of a new style of eloquence, than a servile adherent to any established practice. Burke, studious and indefatigable, from his continually augmenting stores, poured knowledge into the mind of Fox: but in debate their manners were widely dissimilar: Fox depended on his natural and daily improving genius for augmentation; Burke on those beauties which his taste and learning enabled him to collect and dispose with so much grace and facility; his speeches were listened to with admiration as elegant pleadings; but Fox was always elevated above his subject, and by energy of manner, and impetuosity of oratory, staggered the impartial, animated his adherents, and threw uneasiness, alarm, and astonishment, into the minds of his opponents.

"Such were the principal men to whom the discussion of the grand question relative to the rights and authority of Great Britain over her colonies was committed; who by their conduct as ministers, or their exertions in support of, and opposition to the measures of government, regulated the progress of this important contest."

Popular zeal and interference, even when misdirected, is a symptom of vigor and energy in nations; those opinions and proceedings which tend to repress its ebullitions, are symptoms of senility and exhaustion: from the eruptive fever of democratic effervescence, countries recover by slight and temperate affusions of concession; but from the

passive sullenness of irritable despair there is no convalescence. We lament, therefore, when historians take amiss such stirrings and commotions of the people as display their solicitude about the commonwealth, and their anxiety for its good conduct, as in the following passage:

"During the Christmas recess, a public meeting of the freeholders of Yorkshire, voted a petition to the house of commons, representing the circumstances of the war, the accumulation of taxes, and the rapid decline of trade, manufactures, and rents; although rigid frugality was become indispensably necessary, many individuals enjoy sinecure places, or efficient offices with exorbitant emoluments, and pensions unmerited by public services, whence the crown had acquired a great unconstitutional influence, portending destruction to the liberties of the country. The true and legitimate end of government, was not the emolument of any individual, but the welfare of the community; and as the national purse was peculiarly entrusted to the house of commons, it would be injurious to the rights and property of the people, and derogatory from the honour and dignity of parliament, to grant any additional sum of public money beyond the existing taxes, until effectual measures were taken for inquiring into, and correcting the gross abuses in the expenditure of public money, reducing all exorbitant emoluments, rescinding and abolishing all sinecure places, and unmerited pensions, and appropriating the produce to the necessities of the state.

"A PERMANENT committee of sixty-one individuals was appointed to carry on the necessary correspondence for effectually promoting the object of the petition, and to prepare a plan of association on legal and constitutional grounds, and support a laudable reform, and other measures conducing to restore the freedom of parliament.

"This example was followed by many other counties and cities throughout the kingdom; public meetings were convened by advertisement; violent harangues were made against the proceedings and persons of the administration, corresponding committees were appointed, and the transactions were only marked by some slight shades of variation in the degrees of violence.

"The city of London, though somewhat late, proceeded with equal ardour; their vote, besides establishing a corresponding committee, ordered the publication of their resolves in all the public papers. To those acquainted with the mode of managing such transactions, it is well known, that the names of multitudes may be easily obtained to petitions, and that the overbearing proceedings usual at public meetings, will prevent the attendance of almost all but those who assemble for the purpose of carrying

particular measures by means of abusive declamation and clamour, or of giving the colour of general approbation to certain measures and resolutions. In some counties, particularly Sussex and Hertfordshire, protests were signed by a great majority of the most respectable of the nobility and landed interest, in direct contradiction to the resolutions of the county meetings. In many other places, counter-meetings were held, counter-petitions framed, and protests subscribed; but the system, combination, and popularity of the associators, seemed to prevail, every endeavour having been used to turn into ridicule the exertions of their opponents."

The second Rockingham administration has obtained the unqualified applause of Burke, no doubt because he prompted its conduct and its measures. Surely it is not entitled to uninterrupted admiration. 1. Granting the concessions to Ireland to have been such as the times required, it must be admitted, as Mr. Flood then observed, that more would be requisite to insure a permanent attachment: all concessions too should, if possible, have tended to remove internal sources of dissatisfaction (such would have been the increase of Catholic privileges), without tending, as these concessions surely did, to relax the bonds of international union. 2. The expulsion of contractors from the house of commons, and the disqualification of revenue officers from voting, both tended, it is true, somewhat to abridge the influence of the crown, and still more to deprive the members of the late administration of a considerable influence of gratitude and habitual co-operation. But why should it be held infamous or punishable to make contracts with the state? Are all the bankers who compete for a loan, or all the country gentlemen who compete for the raising of regiments, or all the ministers of the crown, to be excluded from seats in parliament? Yet to what else does the principle tend? The crown is not necessarily the public enemy; and to derive support and emolument from the sale of labour or commodities to the executive power, is not an employment to be treated as criminal in any state, nor is it at all incompatible with legislative skill. That an ex-minister should retain, both in and out of parliament, a considerable weight of adherence, is a powerful defence against the violent,

sudden, unqualified, and indecorous inversion of public policy. 3. The expunction of the resolution respecting the Middlesex election is probably meritorious: if the votes of the people qualify a man to sit in parliament whom a majority of the house of commons has expelled, the people do thence possess some defence for the public advocating of opinions, even when obnoxious to the majority of the house. This, in the case of the long parliament, would have been of value to the crown; in the case of the first septennial parliament of 1716, of value to the people. 4. The disfranchisement of the borough of Cricklade, without indemnity or voluntary surrender, is a precedent of much danger. If, indeed, the principle had been laid down, that the right of representation, when abused by accepting bribes, is to be transferred to some other equally or more populous place, the security of liberty would not have been affected; but the precedent of Cricklade might, in bad times, be applied to authorize the disfranchisement of Nottingham. 5. Mr. Pitt's motion for parliamentary reform, or rather for a committee to inquire into, and report on, the state of the representation, was rejected in the house of commons by a majority of 161 to 141. This treacherous rejection prepared that state of the public mind of which Mr. Burke complains in so bitter terms; it transferred the hopes of the reformers from the Rockingham party to the individual Pitt: it proved that the rebellious, democratic, and almost republican declamation, which that whole party had usually employed, was never intended for a rule of conduct: and thus the implied condition of the adherence of their supporters was on their part broken. The reformers did right to desert; they could but be betrayed again. 6. The motion of Sawbridge to shorten the duration of parliament; and that of Lord Mahon to prevent non-resident voters from being conveyed at the expence of the candidate, were both rejected; so that all sorts of representative innovation in a popular direction were alike resisted. 6. A bill for economical reform was passed: it was disappointingly inefficient in its very construction; and practical convenience has since disannulled several of its most prominent suppressions. Our historian nar-



rates no other characteristic measures of this administration; his narrative terminates with the peace of 1783.

This work is executed in a very meritorious manner: the matter is industriously collected from the various accessible sources of information; what remains unexplicable in the conduct of public men is not solved by conjecture, but abandoned to doubt; the arrangement is natural: the relative extent of narration assigned to different events is wisely proportioned; the detail is not excessive: the style, if somewhat flat and heavy, is unaffected and perspicuous. The prejudices of a moderate Tory pervade the sparingly scattered critical remarks: these prejudices are become those of a vast majority of Englishmen: the

hero of the history has not lived in vain for the cause of his heart. Public men are the educators of societies; if those talents and that eloquence which is employed in a specific direction, be alone suffered to attain the domineering situations of life, the public mind will eventually be formed by such promoted opinion. From the beginning of the present reign to this moment, the progress of toryism has been perpetually sensible. Every successive controversy between the people and the court has been waged by the former with diminished insolence, and won by the latter with increased decisiveness: nor though the influence of the crown has increased, and is increasing, does it seem the general desire that it should be diminished.

ART. IV. *A New History of Great Britain, from the Invasion of Julius Cesar to the present Time: on a Plan nearly similar to that of Dr. Henry.* By the Rev. J. ADAMS, A. M. 8vo. pp. 484.

THIS is a convenient and interesting abridgement of the annals of England on the plan of Dr. Henry: a much larger proportion of the work being allotted to the history of manners, inventions, literature, and individuals not distinguished in the political line, than is usual in such books.

But although a great deal of curious antiquarian and biographical information is thus communicated to the young reader, it would have been possible to make a more judicious selection both of facts and opinions. In speaking of the poetic talents of Alfred, the author very properly quotes some nearly cotemporary Runic poetry, (page 92) which runs thus: "I know a song of such virtue, that were I caught in a storm, I can hush the winds, and render the air perfectly calm." But not content with the quotation, our author gravely adds to this very passage the following remark, or corollary: "Such is the power of poetry accompanied with music." Are school-boys to be taught such superstitious opinions, as that a ballad-singer can really make the winds and the sea obey him?

In those chapters consecrated to the enumeration of celebrated men, there is a want of all sense of proportion and relative value. The insignificant butterflies of literature are made as important

as its eagles. We will transcribe a page or two.

"Thomas Gray, L.L.B. an eminent poet, who died in 1771, after making the tour of France and Italy with Mr. Horace Walpole, residing chiefly at Cambridge, where he was appointed Professor of Modern History. He was, perhaps, the most learned man in Europe, being equally acquainted with the elegant and profound parts of science. His *Elegy in a Country Church-yard* abounds with images which find a mirror in every mind, and with sentiments to which every bosom returns an echo. After the death of Cibber, Mr. Gray had the honour of refusing the laurel, which was bestowed on Mr. Whitehead.

"Dr. Gregory, an eminent Physician of Edinburgh, died in 1773. He wrote with great ability in the line of his profession, but his moral writings are those by which he is best known. These are, "A Comparative View of the State of Man, and other Animals;" and "A Father's Legacy to his Daughters."

"Lord Chesterfield, an eminent statesman, and elegant writer, was a particular favourite of George II. who made him high steward of the household, and afterwards lord lieutenant of Ireland. In 1768 he lost his son, which, with his own infirmities, rendered the remainder of his life very unpleasant. *Infidelity* could not support him in the time of trial, and he sunk into a state of wretched despondency. His celebrated *Letters to his Son* display a brilliancy of talent, and much knowledge of the world, but shew him to be



destitute of principle, and defective in judgment. With his lordship the art of pleasing is every thing. But let young people ever remember, that a man of polished manners, and mere external accomplishments, without a good heart and virtuous conduct, is no better than a painted sepulchre. He died in 1773.

"Lord Lyttleton, an ingenious and good man, distinguished himself in parliament as one of the warmest opponents of Sir Robert Walpole. In 1737, he became secretary to the Prince of Wales, who, being driven from St. James's, kept a separate court, and openly counterbalanced the opposition. When Sir Robert Walpole retired, Lyttleton was made one of the lords of the treasury. In 1747, he published his *Observations on the Conversion of St. Paul*; a treatise to which infidelity has never been able to fabricate a specious answer. His last literary work was the History of Henry II. which does honour to his judgment and candour. His lordship married Miss Lucy Fortescue of Devonshire, with whom he lived in the highest degree of connubial felicity. But human pleasures are short. She died in child-bed about five years afterwards, when, after bewailing her loss for some time, he was content to seek happiness by a second marriage. But the experiment was unsuccessful. He died the death of a Christian in 1773; of which event his physician gave a very affecting and instructive account. 'Dr. said he, 'you shall be my confessor. When I first set out in the world, attempts were made to shake my belief in Christianity; I saw difficulties which staggered me; but I kept my mind open to conviction. The evidences and doctrines of it, studied with attention, made me a most firm believer of the Christian religion. I have made it the rule of my life, and it is the ground of my future hopes, I have erred and sinned, but have repented, and never indulged any vicious habits.' When the symptoms of death came on, he gave his dying benediction to all around him, saying, 'Be good, be virtuous, you must come to this.'

"Dr. Goldsmith, a pleasing poet and historian, travelled over the greater part of the

continent, enjoying the scenes of nature, and studying the human passions. He subsisted chiefly by a little skill in music, which made him acceptable to the peasantry; but he often met with a kind reception at the religious houses, where his genius and learning were much esteemed. On his return to London, he rose by degrees into fame, from his poems, plays, and other writings. He might have acquired a competency, had he not been too generous, and otherwise lavish of his money, which constantly kept him poor. He died in 1774. His *Vicar of Wakefield*, *Traveller*, and *Deserted Village*, have great merit, and will always be admired.

"Dr. Hawkesworth, author of the *Advertiser*, an excellent periodical publication, was bred to the business of a watch-maker. Archbishop Herring was so well pleased with this work, that he conferred on him the degree of LL.D. He was employed to compile an account of the discoveries made in the South Seas, for which he received the enormous sum of 6000l. He then became an East-India director, and died in 1775.

"David Hume, Esq. a profound and sagacious historian, died in 1776. His History of England is the best extant. In his other writings he often loses himself in the mazes of scepticism. The young and unexperienced, therefore, ought not to enter the labyrinth, lest they should not so easily find their way out."

From these specimens, the reader will easily infer, that Mr. Adams has omitted no opportunity of inculcating upon the youthful mind, sentiments of piety and probity, and a warm attachment to the Christian religion, yet as appears to us, he is too apt to estimate the stature of intellect by the measure of faith, an error, which, however natural, may be attended with prejudicial effects, on the literary taste and attainments of his pupils: for in literature, as in the arts, all is lost labour, which is not consecrated to the study or imitation of the great masters.

ART. V. *The History of the Rebellion in the Year 1745.* By JOHN HOME, Esq. 4to. pp. 400.

THE author of this history carried arms in the year 1745. He served with the king's troops, and was taken prisoner at the battle of Falkirk. During his captivity he was an eye-witness to several memorable events, which he committed to writing while the facts were yet recent. He has since been

careful to procure authentic information of what he did not see, visiting the fields of memorable battles, and the scenes of remarkable occurrences, conversing sedulously with the living actors in these events, and industriously collecting such manuscript and printed documents, as opportunity betrayed or

displayed to his research. He now offers to the public, the result of a patient enquiry in the form of a history of the rebellion.

It is introduced by a curious account of the manners of the highlanders, already well characterized in a chapter of Dalrymple's *Memoirs*, but drawn here with some additional traits. A plan for attaching them to government, by the distribution of military patronage among their chiefs, had been laid before Sir Robert Walpole, before the commencement of the Spanish war in 1739. It was approved by him; but opposed, we will not say by the national bigotry of the cabinet, but by a timid deference for those outcries, to which it was supposed the national bigotry of the English would listen. The exclusion from those natural chances for advancement and distinctions, which ought to be the birth-right of every subject of the same constitution, produced in the highlands the very effects, which in our own times they have produced among the catholics of Ireland. It brought on first a disaffection to the civil constitution, to them at least not a beneficent one; and next, a disposition to combine and conspire against it. In the year 1740, seven of the most zealous Jacobites offered to venture their lives and fortunes in restoring the family of Stuart, if the French would undertake to land a body of troops to assist them. A French emissary was dispatched to Edinburgh. A pernicious foreign faction was embodied there under the name of a concert of gentlemen. It was planned that Marshal Saxe, accompanied by the Pretender's eldest son, Charles Edward Stuart, should land as near London as possible; while a diversion should be made by the highlanders, assisted with a few troops and many arms. There was much appearance of sincerity in the conduct of this attempt. Charles Stuart came to Dunkirk, in March 1744, and troops were really embarked; but a storm from the east was the pretext on the cause of laying aside the expedition. He then retired to Graveline; but immediately became suspicious that he was to derive no efficacious assistance from the court of France. His conversations began to turn on going to Scotland, without an army: at length he resolved to do so. Among some Irish merchants he purchased a privateer, the *Doutelle*,

and raised a loan of 3,800*l*. Two thousand muskets and six hundred swords were put on board this skiff, and Charles embarked in it at Nantes, his rights and his fortunes; it carried only sixteen guns, but was a swift sailer. The French ministers gave him for convoy the *Elizabeth*, an old sixty-gun ship. In the channel they were met by the *Lyon*, an English man of war, which fought, disabled, and drove back the *Elizabeth*. The *Doutelle* took advantage of the combat to proceed, and landed the prince and his seven heroes on *Erisca*; Stuart, Tullibardine, Sheridan, Macdonald, Strickland, Kelly, *Æneas*, and Buchanan. These were to acquire the crown of England: it was Troy after the retreat of the Greeks, besieged by a wooden horse.

Charles staid all night on the island of *Erisca*, and dispatched messengers to the main land, to convene the neighbouring chieftains of his party. The next morning he received them on board. *Boisdale*, *Clanronald*, *Moidart*, came, examined his resources, blamed his rashness, and advised him to return; refusing in such circumstances to arm in his behalf. A young highlander, *Ranald Moidart*, was of the party. When he heard his chief and brother refuse to take arms with the prince, his colour went and came, his eyes sparkled, he shifted his place, and grasped his sword. Charles observed his demeanor, and turning briskly toward him, called out, "Will not you assist me?" "I will," said *Ranald*; "though no other man in the highlands should draw a sword, I am ready." The two *Macdonalds* caught his ardor, and gave their pledge. Charles then determined to land; he went ashore with his company, and resided on a farm at *Boradale*.

*Cameron of Lochell*, the correspondent of the old Pretender, and the head of the Jacobite interest in Scotland, was now sent for. On his way to *Boradale*, he called on his brother, mentioned the landing of Charles, and his unprovided condition, and declared his own determination to make no effort under auspices so discouraging. "Then, brother, write your determination," said *Fassefern*, "and go home again: if the prince once sets his eyes upon you, he will make you do as he pleases." So it proved. *Cameron* determined in the first interview to risk a revolt.

An affray near Fort William, with Captain Scott, who commanded a small English garrison there, was the first act of hostility; but it was rather accidental than premeditated: yet as some English and no highlanders were killed, it operated to encourage the latter: it operated also to draw the attention of government to the movements of the highlanders, which became every day more remarkable, in proportion as the secret spread that Charles was landed, and in the midst of them. Sir John Cope was ordered to march against the rebels. They prepared to give him battle in the dangerous pass of Corryarrack; when he perceived all the disadvantages of his position, he changed his road of march, and had the appearance of flying before them. The rebels soon after took possession of Perth.

The consternation of Edinburgh, the busy preparations for its defence, the retreat of the dragoons, the resignation of the volunteers, the meetings of magistrates, the deputations of revolutionists, and the final determination of the metropolis to surrender, form the truly interesting subjects of the fourth chapter. Mr. Home apologizes for their minuteness; but who is not curious to learn in what manner the symptoms of such great revolutions declare themselves? How impotent is the zeal of office, and the formality of police, against the sweeping tide of inactive opinion, which disarmed the one, and installed the other army, by the mere ostentation of timidity and the affected personation of apprehension. The triumphal entry into Edinburgh is thus described:

"About ten o'clock the main body of the rebels marched by Duddingston (to avoid being fired upon by the castle) entered the King's Park, and halted in the hollow between the hills, under the peak called Arthur's Seat. By and by Charles came down to the Duke's Walk, accompanied by the highland chiefs, and other commanders of his army.

"The Park was full of people (amongst whom was the author of this history) all of them impatient to see this extraordinary person. The figure and presence of Charles Stuart were not ill suited to his lofty pretensions. He was in the prime of youth, tall, and handsome, of a fair complexion; he had a light coloured periwig with his own hair combed over the front: he wore the highland dress, that is a tarian short coat without the plaid, a blue bonnet on his

head; and on his breast the star of the order of St. Andrew. Charles stood some time in the park to show himself to the people; and then, though he was very near the palace, mounted his horse, either to render himself more conspicuous, or because he rode well, and looked graceful on horseback.

"The Jacobites were charmed with his appearance: they compared him to Robert the Bruce, whom he resembled (they said) in his figure as in his fortune. The whigs looked upon him with other eyes. They acknowledged that he was a goodly person; but they observed, that even in that triumphant hour, when he was about to enter the palace of his fathers, the air of his countenance was languid and melancholy: that he looked like a gentleman and a man of fashion, but not like a hero or a conqueror. Hence they formed their conclusions that the enterprize was above the pitch of his mind; and that his heart was not great enough for the sphere in which he moved. When Charles came to the palace, he dismounted, and walked along the piazza, towards the apartment of the Duke of Hamilton. When he was near the door, which stood open to receive him, a gentleman stepped out of the crowd, drew his sword, and raising his arm aloft, walked up stairs before Charles. The person who enlisted himself in this manner, was James Hepburn of Keith, whose name will be mentioned again more than once; he had been engaged when a very young man in the rebellion of the year 1715, and from that time (learned and intelligent as he was) had continued a Jacobite. But he had compounded the spirit of jacobitism with another spirit; for he disclaimed the hereditary indefeasible right of kings, and condemned the government of James the Second; but he also condemned the union between England and Scotland, as injurious, and humiliating to his country; saying (to use his own words) that the union had made a Scotch gentleman of small fortune nobody, and that he would die a thousand times rather than submit to it.

"Wrapped up in these notions, he kept himself for thirty years in constant readiness to take arms, and was the first person who joined Charles at Edinburgh; idolized by the Jacobites, and beloved by some of the best whigs, who regretted that this accomplished gentleman, the model of ancient simplicity, manliness and honour, should sacrifice himself to a visionary idea of the independence of Scotland.

"The highlanders, when they had entered the town in the morning, had secured the heralds and pursuivants: at mid-day they surrounded the cross with a body of armed men, and obliged the herald to proclaim King James, to read the commission of regency, and the declaration, dated at Rome, in December 1743, with a manifesto

in the name of Charles Prince Regent, dated at Paris, 16th of May 1745. An immense multitude witnessed this ceremony, which was performed at noon.

"The populace of a great city, who huzza for any thing that brings them together, huzzed: and a number of ladies from the windows strained their voices with acclamation, and their arms with waving white handkerchiefs in honour of the day.

"These demonstrations of joy amongst people of condition, were chiefly confined to one sex: few gentlemen were to be seen in the streets, or in the windows; and even amongst the inferior people, many shewed their dislike by a stubborn silence."

Too much time seems to have been lost at Edinburgh. The possession of the Scotch metropolis was not to be enjoyed yet; but to be employed as a mean of further acquisition. It was unskilfully used; for the rebels who entered Edinburgh about two thousand strong, who had meanwhile won the very encouraging victory of Preston, and who had now the means of communication and taxation throughout Scotland, began their march to the southward with only six thousand men.

At length the historian approaches that enigmatical part of this chivalrous romantic enterprize, in which the hero and his army after advancing to Derby, turn about and march back. The only chance was to push for London: it would not have succeeded; but it was something to be defeated in the centre of his kingdom, and to fall, like the younger Cyrus, for pursuing too courageously a throne. To return was to take up with a life of exile and insignificance, to sacrifice his friends ungratefully to hopelessness and persecution, and to sink himself into the puppet and scare-crow of the ministers of France. This turning point of the story is thus told:

"When Charles left Edinburgh, it was not known by what road he purposed to enter England. Part of his army moving in different divisions by Peebles and Moffat, pointed towards the west; but one division, consisting of several highland regiments and the horse guards, commanded by Charles himself, marched to Kelso, which is the road either to Newcastle or Carlisle. At Kelso they halted one day, and nobody knew what was to be their route, till Charles, with his division, took the Jedburgh road, which leads to Carlisle, and shewed that he intended to advance by the west of England.

"On the 8th of November, the van of

the highland army crossed the river Esk, and was quartered at a place that night in Cumberland, called Reddings. Next day all the divisions of the army joined, and invested the city of Carlisle, which in former times had been a place of some strength; but the fortifications had been long neglected: there were no regular troops in the city, and only one company of invalids in the castle. The garrison consisted of those inhabitants who had taken arms, and some country people whom the gentlemen in the neighbourhood had sent to help the inhabitants to defend their walls.

"Before the rebel army broke ground, intelligence came that General Wade with his army had marched from Newcastle to raise the siege.

"Charles and his officers immediately resolved to advance with the best part of their army to Brampton, and watch General Wade's motions, that if he should advance towards Carlisle, they might give him battle upon the hilly ground between Newcastle and Carlisle. Charles leaving one or two low country regiments before Carlisle, marched his troops to Brampton, and kept them there for several days; but being informed that General Wade had not moved from Newcastle, he sent the Duke of Perth with several regiments of foot, and some troops of horse to besiege Carlisle. On the 13th, the Duke of Perth with the forces under his command, arrived at Carlisle, and the trenches were opened that night between the English and Scots gate. The besieged kept a constant fire both of cannon and small arms, but at five o'clock in the evening of the 14th, they hung out a white flag, and desired to capitulate for the city; but the Duke of Perth, who was in the trenches, refused, unless the castle of Carlisle was included in the capitulation. The mayor then requested a cessation of arms till next day, which was granted, and the city and castle of Carlisle surrendered on the 15th of November.

"That very day General Wade with his army left Newcastle, and had got as far as Hexham, in his way to Carlisle, on the 17th, when he received certain information that the city had surrendered to the rebels, upon which he marched his troops back to Newcastle.

"The rebel army after the surrender of Carlisle remained there several days, and dissension prevailed among them. The Duke of Perth, who was a Roman catholic, as eldest lieutenant-general, had commanded the army during the siege of Carlisle, and signed the capitulation. The army murmured at this: and Lord George Murray resigned his commission as lieutenant-general, acquainting Charles that he would serve as a volunteer.

"The Duke of Perth, informed of the state of affairs, waited upon Charles, and re-

signed his commission of lieutenant-general, assuring him at the same time, that he would serve at the head of the regiment which he himself had raised. Lord George Murray resumed his commission, and henceforth, as the only lieutenant-general, commanded the army. A day or two after this transaction, a council of war was called, in which various proposals were made and taken under consideration. It was proposed to march to Newcastle, and bring General Wade's army to an action: it was proposed to march directly to London by the Lancashire road: it was proposed to do quite the contrary, and return to Scotland, as there was not the least appearance of an invasion from France, or an insurrection in England. Charles declared his adherence to the resolution taken at Edinburgh, of marching directly to London at all hazards, and desired Lord George Murray to give his opinion of the different proposals.

"Lord George Murray spoke at some length, compared the advantages and disadvantages of each of the proposals, and concluded, that if his royal highness chose to make a trial of what could be done by marching to the southward, he was persuaded that his army, small as it was, would follow him: Charles said he would venture it. It was a venture.

"Before Charles set his foot on English ground, all the infantry of the British troops in Flanders, had arrived in England; two battalions excepted; and these troops, with the Dutch auxiliaries, and the new raised regiments, formed three armies, each of them superior in number to the rebel army.

"One army, commanded by General Wade, covered Newcastle. Another army advancing towards Lancashire, was commanded at first by General Ligonier, and afterwards by his royal highness the Duke of Cumberland. Besides these two armies, a number of old regiments, both horse and foot, that had served abroad, were quartered at Finchley, Enfield, and other villages near London, ready in case of need, to form a third army, which was to have been commanded by the King and the Earl of Stair.

"According to the resolution of the council of war, the rebel army began their march to the southward, leaving 150 men of the low country regiments to garrison the castle of Carlisle. The rebels marched in two divisions. The first division, consisting of six regiments of foot, and the first troop of horse guards, was commanded by Lord George Murray, and marched to Penrith on the 21st of November. The second division, which was called the main body, consisting of the highland regiments, followed them next day, under the command of Charles; and coming to Penrith, occupied the quarters which the van had left. In the rear of this division were the cannon, guarded by the Duke of Perth's regiment:

the second troop of horse guards, with the rest of the horse, marched, some of them in the front, and some of them in the rear of the main body. In this manner they advanced by Penrith, Shap, Kendal, Lancaster, and Garstang, to Preston, where the whole army joined on the 27th; next day they marched to Wigan, and quartered there and in the neighbouring villages. On the 29th, they marched on to Manchester, where they halted till the 31st. At Manchester several gentlemen, and about 200 or 300 of the common people joined the rebel army: these were the only Englishmen (a few individuals excepted) who joined Charles in his march through the country of England: they were not attached to any of the Scots regiments, though some of the low country regiments needed recruits very much, but formed a separate body, which was called the Manchester regiment, and commanded by Colonel Francis Townley, a gentleman of a good family in Lancashire, and a Roman catholic.

"From Manchester, the rebel army marched on to Macclesfield: from Macclesfield the two divisions advanced by different roads, the one by Congleton, the other straight on to Leek, and from Leek by Ashburn to Derby, where both divisions arrived on the 4th of December.

"When Charles and his army were at Derby, they were rather nearer London than the Duke of Cumberland's army, divisions of which lay at Litchfield, Coventry, Stafford, and Newcastle under Line. It seemed to be the intention of the rebels to avoid an action with the Duke's army, and push on to London; but they took another course; for after halting a day or two at Derby, where it is said that more than one council of war was held, they resolved, after much debate and contention, to return to Ashburn, and march northward, till they should meet the other army coming from Scotland, which was supposed to be not inferior to the army at Derby. The person who proposed a retreat was Lord George Murray, who said they had advanced so far expecting an invasion from France, or an insurrection in England, neither of which had happened, and that it would be an excess of temerity to advance any further against three armies collected to oppose them, each of which was greatly superior in number to the highland army. When Lord George argued in this manner, he offered, that in case the retreat was agreed to, he would command the rear guard. Another, and a very different account of this matter is to be found in the appendix. Both accounts agree in one circumstance, which is, that Charles was extremely averse to the retreat, and so much offended when it was resolved to return to Ashburn, that he behaved for some time as if he no longer thought himself commander of the army. In the march for-



ward he had always been first up in the morning, had the men in motion before break of day, and usually marched on foot with them: but in the retreat, though the rest of the army were on their march, and the rear could not move without him, he made them wait a long time; and when he came out, mounted his horse, rode straight on, and got to his quarters with the van."

As this incident disperses all the in-

terest which one had in the hero, the rest of the history is perused with little care. But it is narrated with perspicuity, with detail and with research; and with an absence of bias prejudice or party opinion of rare example.

A head of Charles Edward engraved from a bust made at Paris; and an appendix of documents and curious vouchers, complete the work.

ART. VI. *History of the Union of the Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, with an Introductory Survey of Hibernian Affairs; traced from the Times of Celtic Colonization.* By CHARLES COOTE, LL. D. 8vo. pp. 530.

THE difference of strength and stability between federal and incorporate unions is so very great, that it is astonishing any small states possessing the power of coalition, should have continued voluntarily in a state of separation. The chance for governors of education and talent increases as the proportion of rich populousness in the territory out of which they can be chosen. The chance for liberty increases, the more numerous the independent population. The chance for national independence, for resisting the invasive encroachments of contiguous potentates, increases with the size of the dominion to be defended. The power of executing public works of importance increases with the stretch of taxable habitation. So that every sort of social advantage is more easily had in a large than in a small community.

If the Ionians had wisely used the opportunity they seem to have once possessed, of consolidating the cities of Naxos under the sway of deputies, whom these colonists thought it worth while to assemble for the purposes of offering sacrifices to the gods of sea and land, to the Neptune and Diana of their new country, they would probably have asserted a complete independence both of the Lydian and Persian power. If the European Greeks had vested in the Amphictyonic council the paramount sovereignty, those parish quarrels and feuds of Spartans and Athenians, and Thebans and Corinthians, might have been prevented; and the courage of Sparta, the talent of Athens, the probity of Thebes, and the luxury of Corinth, have been made to co-operate in the extension and embellishment of a Greek republic, the eventual mistress of the fertility of Sicily, and of the maritime strength of Rhodes, the successful antagonist of Philip, and, perhaps, the competitor of Rome.

In our own times, if the Hollanders had abolished their provincial legislatures, and abided collectively by the will of a single central representative body, that fatal party-division, which in certain provinces decided for the Stadtholder, in other provinces for the city-magistrates, would, in the first instance, have been determined wholly the one way or the other. Now the independence and the liberty of Holland could both have been preserved, either on the hypothesis of a strengthened stadtholderate, or on the hypothesis of an oligarchy of city-magistrates, being entrusted with the executive power. It was the locality of victory, which occasioned each party to look round for foreign alliance, and, consequently, for foreign dependence. If the Switzers had courageously dissolved those self-elected corporations at Berne and elsewhere, and had thrown the prerogatives of sovereignty into the hands of a comprehensive deputation, as their historian Müller had recommended, there would not have been two parties of friends of the magistrate and friends of liberty, but all would have flocked to the standard of independence, and have prepared a second charnel-house full of the bones of Frenchmen.

If when Sir William Petty long since proposed a consolidation of the English and Irish parliaments, there had been ministers willing to listen to the strong arguments of his reason and the stronger testimony of ages, that wish for independence which has motivated the conduct of the discontented Irish during the last thirty years, would probably not have originated. Had the cause of the Catholics found earlier advocates in the British senate, we should sooner have unlearned that *conscientious* policy, as it is called, which fears more the frowning

of a bishop than the bleeding of a nation: which has occasioned whatever of jacobinism has appeared in these islands, and has assimilated to the Alvas of history men once worthy to have earned a nobler fame. At length, however, the union is effected, and we trust it will be the means of conferring on both countries the blessings of toleration, so long the fruitless prayer of Dissenter, Jew and Catholic.

This very interesting history of the Union begins with an introductory sketch of the history of Ireland from the earliest times. It proceeds to notice the motives for a strict union, the proceedings of the united Irishmen, the proposal made for a legislative union, and the pamphlets published on the subject.

The second chapter relates the king's recommendation of an improvement of the connexion between Ireland and Britain; the debates of the Irish peers; and the success of the anti-unionists in the House of Commons.

The third chapter contains a summary of the debates in the British parliament, on the subject of an union; and the eight resolutions prepared by Mr. Pitt.

The fourth chapter is a summary of a debate on a motion from Mr. Sheridan, proposing a substitute for a legislative union.

The fifth chapter relates the proceedings in Ireland, and the rejection of Lord Corry's motion for an address against the union.

The sixth chapter comprehends deliberations of the British House of Lords.

From these debates we shall extract the Marquis of Lansdowne's speech: it displays that entire love of liberty, and that complete superiority to all factions or party-prejudice against good things from a bad quarter, which has signalized his admirable political life.

"The Marquis of LANSDOWNE then harangued the peers in favour of an union. He first took notice of the manner in which Ireland had long been governed, and animadverted on the irregular and injudicious conduct of its rulers. He enumerated the most remarkable events of Hibernian history from the year 1767; and in this survey he dwelt upon the case of Lord Edward Fitzgerald, whose posthumous attainder he reprobated as an act of flagrant tyranny. From the late prevalence of disorder and calamity, he was confident that such a government could not much longer subsist. The evils of the country required a speedy remedy; and an union promised a more efficacious one than

any other measure which could be devised. It was at all times desirable, but was at present indispensable. The danger to which the British dominions were exposed rendered such a step necessary, to obviate irreparable mischief, or prevent total ruin.

"He then adverted to the proceedings of the year 1782, not from an opinion of any close connexion between that topic and the subject now under discussion, but because frequent reference had been made to that settlement in the debates of both parliaments. Its authors, he said, had no idea of effecting a legislative union; nor did they by any means declare against such a scheme. The present plan could not be said to grow out of the former; nor could the adjustment of that time be properly considered as a bar to any future proceeding.

"Pointing out the chief requisites of an union, he mentioned in the first place, the necessity of consolidating the armies of the two countries; for, unless there should be such an union of the military establishments as might afford an opportunity of saying with truth, that there was only one army, it might be said, with regard to the affairs of the British empire, 'Chaos is come again.' The navy also should be one, furnished by the united zeal of the whole community; for it would resemble patch-work, if one part of the empire should supply a ship and a half, another a quarter, and a third a different quota. There should, at the same time, be only one system of law. Commerce was the next system to be considered; and this ought to be on an equal footing in both countries. The concerns of finance ought also to be assimilated; and, in short, the union, to be effective, ought to be substantial and complete. Some might say, that most of these points were already gained; but, as they were in danger of being lost by the jealousy of the two nations, he wished to render them permanent by an union.

"That part of the plan which provided for the addition of one hundred members to the British House of Commons did not meet with his full approbation: but, if the majority should see no danger in it, he would not object to it, though he was sorry that it seemed to make as little impression upon some politicians as if it related only to so many flies.

"There was one point, he added, which merited consideration: it was, whether the Irish were well or ill disposed to an union. He apprehended that ministers had an insufficient knowledge of the state of the public mind when they brought forward the measure. It was their duty to seek information; and, by behaving with frankness and sincerity, they might easily obtain it. There ought to be no *trickery*, no intrigue, in their proceedings; let them gain their point by manly and honourable dealing, not procure success by corruption, or enforce acquiescence by terror.

"It would be prudent, he thought, to calm the irritation of the Catholics by a full assent to their demands. Their emancipation could not be withheld without greater danger than could arise from the grant of it. There was no reason to dread the religion of any body of men: the progress of irreligion was one of the present causes of alarm. 'The question (said he) is not what religion you shall have, but whether you shall be permitted to have any. It is not whether this or that religion shall be destroyed, but whether all religion shall be extinguished. In this state of affairs, every good man is called upon to join the standard of Jesus Christ; or, whatever may be the prevailing religion, all ought to unite against the intrusion of those who have no religion, and who are enemies to every species of it.'

"He added, that the present was an awful period, and that the contest was serious and alarming. If wisdom should not interpose, a rupture might arise between the rich and the poor, calamitous to both parties, but more particularly to the latter. The greatest prudence and the most vigilant caution were necessary to secure the British empire amidst the convulsions of neighbouring states. It was his earnest wish that Great Britain and Ireland might stand like two rocks in the sea, unmoved by storms, and that the inhabitants of both islands might form the most cordial and complete union for the preservation of property, law, order, morality, and religion."

The seventh chapter contains a renewal of debate in the British and Irish House of Commons, and suspension of the scheme.

In the eighth chapter are the opinions and proceedings of the people in both kingdoms.

The ninth chapter relates the debates of the Irish House of Commons on this subject in 1800;

The tenth chapter, deliberations in the Irish House of Peers;

The eleventh chapter, the progress of the scheme in the Irish House of Commons;

And the twelfth chapter, discussion of the articles of union in the Parliament of Great Britain.

The thirteenth chapter treats of the adjustment of the election of the representatives of Ireland and prorogation of the two parliaments.

The fourteenth chapter is devoted to remarks on the general principle and particular articles of the union.

The latter part of this chapter will give an exact idea of our author's style and line of opinion.

"Of the chief articles of this union the author's unbiassed opinion remains to be given. The three first require no comment, as they necessarily spring from the nature of an incorporative coalition between kingdoms governed by parliaments and by the same head.

"The fourth article is particularly important; and its provisions are liable to great dispute. The number of deputed peers we do not think sufficient, with a view to the dignity or comparative magnitude of Ireland, or to the whole amount of her peerage. Fifty would not have been too large a proportion for the representatives of her nobility in a parliament comprehending the whole body of English peers. The election for life merits approbation in one respect, as it is calculated to render the nominated peers more independent of the crown: but it is objectionable on the ground of its great diminution of the chance of appointment to the generality of the nobles, who will thus more acutely feel the degradation inflicted by this part of the scheme. It is, indeed, a striking instance of inequality in the arrangements, that so many of the peers of one country are in a manner disfranchised, while, in England, not an individual nobleman loses a single privilege. This disparity might have been avoided by the addition of all the Irish peers to the British house of lords; but, as such a provision would have immoderately increased the number of the assembly, it might have been expedient, and in a relative point of view not unjust, to subject some of the peers of England to a similar degradation. The clause respecting the eligibility of the Hibernian peers to a seat in the house of commons, we do not disapprove, as it affords some compensation for the encroachment on their hereditary rights, without exciting any serious dread of a confusion of rank.

"The stipulated number of Irish members of the house of commons, we consider as more fairly adjusted than that of the peers; but we should have been better pleased with the arrangement, if fewer placemen had been allowed; and if, while the less considerable boroughs of Ireland were disfranchised, the British representation had felt the benefit of a moderate reform, not founded on romantic theories of perfection, but regulated by the true spirit of our constitution.

"The influence of the crown, which may at present be deemed exorbitant, will perhaps be increased by the transfer of Irish representatives to this country. The greater part of the number will probably, as it has happened in the case of Scotland, promote the views of the court: but the added weight, we think, will not make any material difference in the complexion of the parliament, or in the general mode of administration.

"As the ecclesiastical article merely provides for an incorporation of two establishments, which were founded on the same

basis both of doctrine and discipline, it would not claim any observations, if its probable effects on the state of the majority of the inhabitants of Ireland did not entitle it to some notice. The Catholics of that country, if they had obtained a full grant of their demands from a separate parliament, might have so far augmented their power as to alarm the zealous Protestants; but, under the imperial legislature, their progress will not arouse any fear or jealousy, as the great superiority of their religious adversaries in the united kingdom will effectually preclude the success of any violent efforts to which their eagerness may impel them. Their claims have excited some dissension in the cabinet; and a great personage, from conscientious motives, is disposed to resist those pretensions in which his benignity of character might otherwise acquiesce. But, if the two houses of parliament should be inclined to favour them, the royal opposition may be expected to subside.

"The commercial stipulations are more favourable to Ireland than to Great Britain: but a liberal community will not refuse to encourage a less flourishing neighbour, in consideration of a close union between the nations.

"The regulations of finance are recommended by a fair adjustment of proportional contribution. The Irish have no reason to complain of being subjected to an immoderate share of the burthens of the empire; and the former debts of the two countries being deemed separate concerns, they will not feel the very injurious effects of the enormous magnitude of the debt of Britain.

"The plan, upon the whole, justly claims our approbation: but the means by which it was carried into effect, were not equally

meritorious. It is the opinion of politicians, that the end will justify the means; but this is not an axiom of strict morality. The best cause may derive a tincture of disgrace from the irregular or dishonourable conduct of its promoters.

"The grand political effects of the union will be the invigoration of the general government, and the increase of imperial energy. The civil and social consequences of the measure will appear in the mutual participation of wealth, and the comforts of life; the extinction or the decline of animosity and rivalry; the advancement of humanisation among the rude Irish, and the promotion of peace and order; and we may venture to predict, that it will establish the prosperity of this great empire on a firm basis, which will defy the assaults both of foreign and internal enemies, and which nothing but the silent attacks, or the treacherous progress of abuse and corruption, will be able to shake."

We have seldom read a piece of history so singular and so amusing. To imagine the enterprize required instruction, talent, political speculation. The whole progress of the object is confined to means worthy of its rational nature. A debate in this senate, in that senate, a war of pamphlets, a string of resolutions, such are the incidents of the successive campaigns. At length the mass of interferers are convinced that the thing is reasonable, practicable, desirable; one objecter withdraws, another and another; at last Great Britain is found to have accomplished a voluntary conquest of an additional quarter of territory.

ART. VII. *The Reply of the Right Reverend Doctor CAULFIELD, Roman Catholic Bishop, and of the Roman Catholic Clergy of Wexford, to the Misrepresentations of Sir RICHARD MUSGRAVE, Bart. with a Preface and Appendix, 8vo. pp. 67.*

"The unprovoked aggression," says our author, "of a titled libeller,

"Has drawn forth the following statements. They are given as mere pieces of evidence, without comment or decoration. They are given in the language in which they were delivered; an apology for style will easily be admitted, from the men whose humble and laborious obscurity Sir Richard Musgrave has thought fit to violate. It is alone the sacred sense of character which could induce them to appear before the public. The candid observer will perceive this corroboration of their veracity. If one-tenth part of what is asserted by Sir Richard Musgrave were founded in fact, the parties would not at this day be alive to refute his calumnies. Whoever has witnessed the spirit of party, and the ardor for prosecutions, which

prevail in certain places, will readily assent to this assertion. Who, for example, in the least degree acquainted with the temper of the county of Wexford, can believe, that Doctor Caulfield would remain to this day unarraigned and undicted, if there were any shadow of proof to support the atrocious charge of having given his benediction to an armed body of insurgents?

"It was for some time the opinion of very judicious persons, that this fruit of Sir Richard Musgrave's corrupt and perverse diligence was not worthy to be noticed. He appears on the face of his work to be the depraved tool of an interested faction. There is not in Ireland a candid man of any religion, who does not see through the views and artifices of this party; and the labour is lost, when you attempt to make an impression on the prepossessed and the uncandid.

It was recommended to leave this publication under the disgraceful censure to which a nobleman of sound judgment, and by his situation perfectly conversant with the facts, our late excellent viceroy, deemed it entitled. Unabashed by that reproof, the zealots of the party continue their activity. The silence of contempt with them is acquiescence. The *British Critic*, for Sep. 1800, covering the partial panegyrist with the solemnity of a judicial decision, tells us gravely, that 'time has ventilated the facts' of this publication. The guides of public opinion adopt a falsification of our history, which a school-boy might correct. Insurrections were rather more frequent in Ireland before, than since the reformation. At every period there have been wars of property, such as those which, to our own days, subsisted between the back settlements of America and the native Indians. The *British Critic* cannot alledge ignorance on this subject. It is but a few months since these writers reviewed a reply to Doctor Duigenan, in which the connection of religion with the civil wars of Ireland were discussed at large, and the negative of this present doctrine was satisfactorily established. The following pages will determine how far it was justifiable to authenticate to the British public, whatever assertions Sir Richard Musgrave, in a strain of flippant scurrility, has thought proper to advance. They may talk of loyalty, as their fellows of France did of tenderness and humanity; but those, and those alone, are jacobins, who endeavour for their private ends, to disorganize the state, and to put the government at variance with its subjects; those are the rank and real jacobins, whose trade it is to excite turbulence in the people, which they may be retained to repress! and to inspire terrors and alarms into the persons entrusted with authority, under a tolerably well-founded hope that they may draw advantage from the prevalence of such apprehensions. Little, indeed, is the *British Critic* acquainted with the actual state of Ireland, if he hesitates to believe that 1250\* persons are not readily to be found within this island, who answer this description.

"Has the *British Critic* never heard of the burning of London, by a mob of Protestants, rallied under Protestant banners, and without any other pretence, except zeal for that religion? There were no whippings, or burning of houses; no expulsion of fami-

lies, or shooting of suspected persons, to irritate the Protestant association. This matter is not brought up by way of recrimination, but as a familiar instance to point out to those gentlemen the error of the conclusions they adopt, and of the doctrines they disseminate. It is rather more reasonable to impute the excesses of the Protestant association to the church of England, than the furies of the Wexford rabble to the Roman Catholics of Ireland. Of all the insurrections that took place in Ireland, in 1798, the name of religion was only used in Wexford, and there it is easy to prove that the combination was accidental. In many parts of Ireland there are one hundred, in others twenty, in others ten, Catholics to a Protestant. In all such places the latter have remained unmolested. How does this fact consist with the charge of the *British Critic*, 'that the designs of Catholics went entirely to the massacre and destruction of every Protestant in Ireland?'

To this introductory account of the author's object, succeed sixty closely printed pages of historical anecdotes, relative to the late rebellion in Ireland, full of names of persons and places, affidavits, and other corroborating indications, all of which are so many flat contradictions of the statements of the anti-jacobin historian. It is to be hoped that some temperate inhabitant of that much injured country will write another complete history of the causes and consequences of the troubles, to which posterity may look back with some confidence in its veracity. Against the detestable sin of religious intolerance, since the rebellion of the Netherlands, no lecture so impressive has been published, as was lately written in the blood of Ireland. The Alvas, who brought on these horrors, are said to be penitent; but those men ought not to intrude into official situations, who want the foresight, or the humanity, or the courage, to prevent such nationally disgraceful calamities. Still to withhold the Catholic emancipation, is to become accessory to these atrocious deeds; but it is not atonement to be just, too late.

ART. VIII. *The Naval History of the late War; compiled from authentic Documents, By WILLIAM STEWART ROSE. Volume the first, 8vo. pp. 320.*

THIS work is what the French would call *Memoires pour servir à l'histoire de la guerre*: it is not in itself a circumstantial and elaborate history; here is no phi-

losophical or political investigation of causes and consequence, but a plain unornamented narrative of facts. Mr. Rose has himself appreciated his work

\* The number of copies Sir Richard Musgrave boasts to have disposed of.



fairly and justly: "my labours," says he, "aspire to little more than furnishing the public with an arrangement of authentic documents: I shall be contented to supply materials for some future historian, and leave a rough outline, hoping that some other hand will supply the distribution of light and shade, and the splendour of colouring."

A man who undertakes to write the history of a war for the instruction of posterity, and the perusal of surrounding nations, should, it is obvious, divest himself of all prejudice in favour of either party: he is not an advocate pleading in behalf of his client, endeavouring to confound evidence, and decoy a jury, but he stands in the situation of one who reports proceedings in a court of law; he is to note down whatever passes in court, without partiality.

But can it be expected, when a man's feelings are most warmly excited; when his indignation is roused at the audacity and ferociousness, or his honest resentment called forth at the treachery of an enemy; when the honour of his nation is to be vindicated and her interests consulted; can it be expected at that moment, that an Englishman should coolly compose a history of the war between A. and B. without once suffering himself to recollect that A. is England, and B. is France? It is not to be expected: and so highly do we venerate, so warmly would we encourage those generous patriotic feelings which have nerved the arm of our warriors in the field of battle, that although we must perform the painful duty of pointing out one or two instances in which Mr. Rose has palliated measures of this country which we cannot consider as justifiable, and where he has used terms of unfair severity towards the enemy, yet do we admire the general spirit and temper with which his work is written. We thank him for vindicating the suspected conduct of the brave lord Howe in the Channel; and for rescuing from obloquy other naval officers who had not, in every instance, pleased the querulous politicians of the counting-house or the club-room.

In the first chapter Mr. Rose has given a very ample and a very distinct detail of all the operations, military as

well as naval, which took place at Toulon, in 1793, under the command of lord Hood.\* When the noble admiral appeared in the Mediterranean, "the assurances he gave of the friendly views of Great Britain, won the confidence of the disaffected cities, and the force he brought with him invigorated the spirit of resistance." Lord Hood negotiated with the Toulonese, and took possession of the town in the name of Louis XVII. conditionally, that the ships and forts should be restored on the conclusion of peace. Without entering upon the question which has been so often and unavailingly agitated, whether, by the law of nations, it was right on the part of lord Hood, to avail himself of the disaffection of the constitutional party in France, in order to take possession of one of her towns, requiring, at the same time, of its inhabitants, the acknowledgment of a prince whom the nation disclaimed; without debating whether this was or was not an unjustifiable interference with the internal government of that country, we must at least contend, that what is fair for one party is fair for the other. Mr. Rose is certainly disposed to vindicate the capture of Toulon as perfectly legitimate and defensible; but when the French fleet, in the year 1796, arrived in Bantry Bay, this daring adventure he calls, "an insult on our coasts." Now really we do not see how historical justice can award a sentence of reproach to this expedition, and a sentence of reward to the other. But let us return to Toulon.

One of the leading articles in lord Hood's treaty with the mal-contents, royalists, call them what you will, of Toulon, was, that the ships and forts should be restored on the conclusion of peace. After it had been decided in a council of war, that the town was no longer tenable, but must be abandoned on the morrow, a determination was adopted, without opposition, to destroy all the French ships in dock, and all the naval stores. The direction of this desperate enterprise was volunteered by sir Sidney Smith, who had lately joined the fleet, and who proceeded at night to the arsenal, to execute lord Hood's orders. We will not unnecessarily shock the feelings of our readers, by describing

\* A plan of the harbour and road of Toulon, and another of the situation of its basins, store-houses, and magazines, are annexed, in order to illustrate the narrative.

to them the scene of horror and desolation which attended the punctual execution of these orders; we will not picture to their imagination the terror, confusion, and dismay, which such a conflagration, rising in the darkness and dead stillness of night, must spread around; nor will we attempt to exhibit the overwhelming astonishment and appalling fear, which the accidental explosion, at different times, of two powder vessels, threatening the whole detachment with destruction, must have produced. The extent of the havoc among the shipping is ascertained: Mr. Rose informs us, that in addition to three ships of the line and twelve frigates and sloops, brought away by the English, one frigate by the Sardinians, and two sloops by the Spaniards and Neapolitans, nine ships of the line were destroyed by sir Sidney Smith's detachment; two frigates, used as powder magazines, were blown up by the Spaniards; one frigate ashore was burnt by the Sardinians, and two corvettes by the English: four seventy-four gun ships had been sent away with the Jacobinical seamen into French ports in the Atlantic.

Amongst some general reflections which Mr. Rose makes on the transactions at Toulon, he says, "many have seen nothing in his (lord Hood's) proclamation to the inhabitants, but a cruel and illusive offer, which brought misery and destruction on those to whom it promised protection: *some have even joined the chorus of French declaimers*, and stigmatised the burning the ships as a positive violation of faith."

We are not of the number who would make the noble admiral bear on his devoted shoulders the accumulated miseries, the agonizing sufferings, which the capture of this town eventually brought upon the royalists. It is, indeed, true, that there was a division among the sections at Toulon, respecting the negotiation; that the Jacobin party there was yet numerous\* and powerful; and that lord Hood must have been aware of the dreadfully disastrous consequences which would inevitably ensue, should any unfavourable vicissitude of war compel him to evacuate the town, and leave the royalists a prey to the enraged

republicans. These weighty considerations, doubtless, had their proper influence on his mind, before his decision was formed; and although "the sweeping and implacable vengeance" of the Jacobins was wreaked on the head of the royalists, the noble admiral, with that humanity which is ever allied to true bravery, extended all his protection to these unfortunate and most wretched fugitives.

But why this indecorous, and even abusive language, against those who consider the destruction of the French ships as a direct violation of the treaty which lord Hood ratified with the Toulonese sections, and as a sacrifice of the faith to the interests of this country? Is that article observed or is it not—was the destruction of the French ships consistent with that article or was it not, which stated, that when peace should be established, the ships and ports should be restored in the same condition as when delivered into the custody of the English? The plain unsophisticated answer to these home questions is no. But, says Mr. Rose, the insertion of the word *forts* clearly proves, that this article was formed on the supposition of the allied forces being able to maintain the place against their enemies. Can any thing be so frivolous! are contingencies set down for nothing in calculating the issue of military operations? Was the enemy, in the present instance, so contemptible in point of number or of spirit? Could it be imagined, on any rational consideration, that France should suffer her arsenal, her stores, and her fleets, together with the best port in the Mediterranean, to remain quietly in the hands of the English, without making one effort to regain them? On the contrary, should it not have been looked upon as a certainty, that she would exert all her energies, rouse all her vigour, to drive us from so important a possession? But upon whatever "supposition" the noble admiral acceded to this article, when once ratified, it ought to have been observed holy and inviolate: consequences, of whatever intrinsic importance, are nothing in comparison with the preservation of national integrity, national faith, and national honour. Mr. Rose ought to

\* When the town was beginning to be evacuated, December 18, 1793, the inhabitants (of the Jacobin party) fired, from the windows of their houses, on the allied troops.

have reflected, that the article which was acceded to on one *supposition* by lord Hood, was probably acceded to by the Toulonese on another. They *supposed* that the admiral would have considered himself bound by the article which he sanctioned by his signature; and we may be allowed to *suppose*, that had they not placed this confidence in British faith, the noble admiral would not have had so easy admission into the territories of the republic. The faith of a nation, like the chastity of a woman, is sullied by being exposed to the breath even of suspicion.

We had intended to have enlarged on another subject concerning which we are so unfortunate as to differ from the respectable writer of this work: we refer to the conduct of the British minister, lord Harvey, at the court of Leghorn. If the grand duke shuffled and temporised with us, it was through fear: he entered into the coalition against France in opposition to his inclination, in opposition to the advice of his own ministers, and, as he supposed, in opposition to his interests: accordingly he withdrew from the coalition on the first oppor-

tunity. The high tone of remonstrance in which he was addressed by lord Harvey, is said to have been extremely unbecoming, and such as an independent prince would not have submitted to, had he been in a situation to resent it.

We have taken the liberty to express our sentiments without reserve on these subjects, because we are anxious to guard Mr. Rose against any unintentional misrepresentations. If our conduct has in any respect been unjustifiable, let us acknowledge it, and not accumulate wrongs by an obstinate defence of them. The British army has had occasional reverses: the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong. But our navy has been uniformly triumphant: wherever Britain has unfurled her sails and waved her flag, there victory has presided: the laurels so abundantly twined round the brows of our sailors, have now yielded place to the olive wreath. May its verdure be lasting!

The present volume carries the naval history down to the appearance of the French fleet off the coast of Ireland.

ART. IX. *History of the Rise and Progress of the Naval Power of England, interspersed with various important Notices relative to the French Marine; to which are added, Observations on the principal Articles of the Navigation Act. Illustrated by a variety of interesting Notes. Translated from an original Work in French. By THOMAS EVANSON WHITE. 8vo. pp. 416.*

WHO the author of this work is, Mr. White, probably for a very obvious reason, has not informed us: the edition from which the present translation is made was printed at Yverdun, a town of considerable note in Switzerland, so long ago, as appears by the *imprimatur*, as the year 1782. The author, whoever he is, was a pure royalist; so much so indeed, that although he appears to feel for freedom, and in some points of view to be the advocate for national independence, yet the translator felt it proper to omit some of his animadversions upon one of the most important events in the history of Great Britain, namely the revolution of 1688, a revolution, as it is here justly observed, proceeding entirely upon constitutional principles and effected by constitutional means.

Although a royalist, however, he is nevertheless a Frenchman; and a Frenchman of the old school as well as of the new; under the Bourbons as well as un-

der the Consulate, has *l'esprit de sa nation* in his bosom: he loses no opportunity to extol and magnify the resources of his country, the vigour of her arms, and the justness of her cause. In the present instance, however, this partiality is not carried to any unpardonable excess; we are not guiltless of it ourselves, and should forgive it in others.

— hanc veniam petimus damusque vicissim.

We have less to do with the opinion of an historian, moreover, than with the authenticity of his facts: and here there does not appear to be any just ground for suspicion. For the truth of every statement references are given to English and French writers of established reputation; and the translator, wherever he has detected any casual inaccuracy of detail, or any partiality of representation, has inserted from respectable authorities, some note to correct the one and to counteract the other.



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The work commences at the earliest period of British history of which any authentic documents are extant and is brought down to the American war. It is distributed into four books: the first carries us to the loss of Calais in the reign of Mary. So early as the reign of Offa, who is said to have disputed the empire of the seas with Charlemagne, the English must have possessed a naval force of some consideration when compared with that of surrounding nations; it was augmented by the Great Alfred, and still more by Edgar, who arrogated the lofty and offensive title of "Emperor and Lord of all the Kings of the Ocean, and of all the Nations which it surrounds!" That the insular situation of this country should in very early times have impressed the inhabitants with a sense of the importance of a maritime superiority is very probable, but we must not infer from the assumption of these high sounding titles, that half a dozen of our frigates as they are now manned and gunned, would not have sunk their whole fleet. In fact their vessels were little or not at all better than canoes, the largest of them hardly containing fifty men.

Edward I. published an edict, in which he charges his officers "especially to retain and maintain the sovereignty which the kings of England his ancestors, exclusively possessed in the said sea of England," &c. When Philippe le Bel appointed an *admiral* in the "sea of England," the English monarch resented the insult, and demanded justice. The Genoese, Catalans, Germans, Zealanders, Frieslanders, Danes, and Norwegians, were appointed arbiters. The decision was in favour of the English monarch, the arbiters declaring that his predecessors had at all times been sovereigns of the sea in question, on which the kings of France could not rightfully have any *admiral*, but simply a *master* or *chef du flotte*. "The original of this act," says our author, "ought to be highly prized by national vanity, and, next to the great charter, should be preserved with care and veneration. Nevertheless it is not to be found among the archives in the Tower of London;\* whence some learned men,† in the last century, affirmed,

it was taken in order to be translated, published, and commented upon; an honour which so rare a piece divides with many others, neither more authentic, nor less useful!"

In the reign of Richard II. we find the first use of a fire-ship: a vessel was prepared full of pitch and carrying linen bags impregnated with sulphur for the purpose of setting fire to the French fleet, which, however, in consequence of a tempest escaped the calamity. Artillery seems to have been brought into use at about the same period by Charles VI. of France, and obtained for him some considerable advantages.

Under Edward IV. the English marine was in a state of deplorable weakness; indeed from its origin until the reign of Henry VII. it was ever fluctuating according to the character of the monarch and the circumstances of the kingdom. To Henry VII. is attributed the honour of having laid the foundation of the naval power of his country, by turning the attention of his subjects to their native riches, the wool, which at this time was exclusively manufactured by the Flemings, who purchased it at a very low price. "He annihilated the source of their wealth," says our author, "by prohibiting an exportation which was highly prejudicial to his own subjects. Edward III. had projected a similar regulation, but being pressed by the calls of ambition, he violated his own edicts, by which it was rendered useless. Having received, as a free gift from the laity, the moiety of their wool, and the whole of that of the clergy, he sold to foreigners, through the agency of the earls of Northampton and Suffolk, 10,000 packs for the sum of 400,000 livres sterling."

"Henry made his people sensible of their true interests on this occasion; he forthwith brought over Flemish artificers, who instructed them to prepare the wool. He afterwards established manufactures; but did not prohibit the exportation of this precious commodity, until after he had taken those preliminary steps, and secured, by treaty, to his subjects, the exclusive privileges of their island. The Levant trade was first opened to them under his reign, but it was not carried on with success, until the period of

\* M. de Briquigny was unable to discover this piece in the strict search he made at the Tower, by order of the French government. Long before him, the laborious Rymer appears not to have had more success, or to have rejected it, as a fictitious document.

† Borroughs, Lex Merc. p. 8. Core, Inst. p. 142. Selden Mare. Claus. &c.

the revolt in the low countries; whence, the Flemish manufacturers, apprehensive of the impending calamities, emigrated in great numbers, into different parts of England, and, in effect, re-peopled the towns of Norwich, Colchester, Maidstone, Sandwich, and Southampton, which were then almost deserted.\*

The English marine did not improve much under the reign of Henry VIII. He was flattered with the idea of possessing a navy, and built several ships of extraordinary size; but of these, as they were chiefly calculated for parade, some were incapable of being launched, and others lay rotting in the ports, perfectly useless. So little advantage did this capricious monarch derive from the opportunity which the foundation of his predecessor afforded him for the establishment of a naval force, that when he declared war against France, he found himself under the necessity of hiring vessels at Hamburgh, Lubeck, Dantzic, and Genoa.

Under the reign of Edward VI. the marine of England was considerably improved: the fisheries were encouraged, and the obstacles removed which prevented the English from reaping the great advantages which those of Newfoundland presented.

The marriage of Mary with Philip II. of Spain was advantageous to this country, in a commercial as well as in a maritime view: in order to forward the projects of her husband against France, the queen, at her own expence, fitted out a fleet of 140 sail. The English landed in Brétagne and captured Conquet: they were driven back, however, with loss; Calais was besieged by the Duke of Guise, and surrendered to the French.

This brings us to the *second* book, commencing with the reign of Elizabeth and proceeding to the death of the first Charles. During the long and auspicious reign of this princess, her attention was never diverted from the system which she at first adopted of extending the naval power of her country: that power continued progressively increasing from the first to the last year of her reign. Her ports were filled with shipping, her seamen were excellent, and her admirals were alike renowned and dreaded for their gallantry and skill, "Nothing farther remained than the

creation of a royal navy, to accomplish which, arsenals were constructed, magazines provided, and naval stores collected. A resolution so advantageous appropriated to Elizabeth the titles of restorer of the maritime glory of the nation, and queen of the northern seas."

"However," says our historian, "we should not judge of the English marine at that period, by what we see it at present; the comparison would be neither rational nor just. The number, the size, and force of shipping are always proportionate to the extension of commerce, the progress of nautical science, and the powers or exertions of the state. At the death of ELIZABETH, her marine consisted of forty-two vessels, none of which, properly speaking, were of the line; two of these were of 1000 tons, and three of 900, each mounting forty guns; three others of 800 tons, mounted thirty guns each, and the remainder from 700 to 40 tons, would not have been able to resist some of our frigates, or even a corvette.† In the treaty of alliance, which this princess concluded at Brussels, on the 7th of January 1578, with the Dutch, the latter engaged to furnish her with forty vessels, of which the least should be of 40 tons, which sufficiently proves that the maritime strength of the European nations, was then but very inconsiderable."

The discomfiture of the Spanish Armada, although produced, in a great measure, by the adversity of winds and waves, and by the disobedience of orders on the part of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, in concurrence with the gallantry of the English, nevertheless formed an epoch in the naval history of this country of high importance and distinction. The names of Howard, Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher were proclaimed by the loud voice of cannon and heard with applause. Elizabeth was big with projects of retaliation, she immediately augmented her sea-forces and sent out several squadrons commanded by very able officers; the plunder of Cadiz by the earl of Essex was severely felt by Philip.

James assumed the "empire of the seas," and offended at the pretensions of the Dutch to maritime equality, fitted out in the year 1604, a squadron, in order to render his flag respected; the instructions to his commander, Sir William Monson, were to exact the salute to the flag, and to maintain the rights which the English monarch claimed, particularly that of the herring-fisheries. James,

\* Thuan. III. t. I. xl. x. p. 63.

† A sort of light built sloop or cutter.

however, added nothing of consequence to the naval power of England: during his whole reign he built but nine vessels, the crews of which were from 150 to 300 men each.

The unfortunate Charles endeavoured to compensate for the negligence of his father: he gave orders for the building of eighteen ships, of which four were remarkable for their large size, although the crews allotted to each did not exceed 250 men. The attempts which this monarch made upon the French coast, impressed upon the government of France, whose naval strength was at this period particularly reduced, the necessity of establishing a marine. Cardinal Richelieu, being appointed superintendent of sea affairs, "soon perceived the full extent of the resources of his country, and the rank which she was entitled to hold among the maritime powers of Europe, by her natural advantages, her geographical situation, and the favourable situation of her ports. This great minister ordered timber to be collected from all parts of the kingdom, magazines to be formed and vessels purchased; he had several ships built, among which was *La Couronne*, 120 feet in the keel and pierced for 72 guns. This vessel astonished the seamen of that day, who regarded it as the greatest effort of the art."

The *third* book commences with Cromwell and goes down to the death of William III. The rivalry of the Dutch and English, under the usurpation of Cromwell, for the empire of the sea, produced, perhaps, in both countries some of the best admirals and the best sailors that the world ever saw. Who could have opposed Van Tromp, de Witt and Ruiter, but Deane, and Blake, and Monk?

The death of Van Tromp in his last engagement with Monk, broke the courage of the Dutch, and seemed to prostrate all their strength: they were totally defeated, and the peace which ensued was dictated in the loftiest terms by Cromwell, who stipulated that neither the Prince of Orange nor any of his descendants should be invested with the dignity of the stadtholderate. He also obtained by a sort of tacit assent, the right of searching all Dutch trading vessels: the high-spirited admirals who had fought their battles with such stubborn bravery, in vain remonstrated against the infamy and disgrace which this article would bring upon their heads.

Cromwell framed the famous *act of navigation*, prohibiting all nations from importing into England in their bottoms, any commodity which was not the growth or manufacture of their own country. As the Dutch were the general carriers of Europe, Cromwell justly conceived that this act, which was passed under pretence of providing for the interests of commerce, would be a blow which must affect them with great severity. The usurper, however, on account of his war with Spain, which obliged him to allow the English merchants, as before, the use of Dutch bottoms, was unable to enforce the provisions of his own act. When Charles the second ascended the throne, not having the same urgent necessity for forbearance, he issued orders for immediately carrying the bill into effect.

The navigation act has called forth from the author of these pages some "observations" on its operation, which are placed at the end of the narrative. The principal articles are distinctly discussed with ability and candour. Our historian is of opinion, although the navigation act was not the immediate cause of the American revolution, that it unquestionably paved the way for it. Surely the chain of circumstances does not reach so far back; whatever restrictions the navigation acts laid upon the colonies in the first instance, as some of the most offensive were entirely removed, and as others—from inability, perhaps, on the part of the mother country—were very feebly enforced, the Americans must have been too little harassed by its operation to have deemed it an object of resentment.

Charles II. felt as much resentment against the Dutch as Cromwell could do; and his ambition to humble them by sea was at once kept alive by the animosity which he bore them for personal indignities, and by a natural attachment to naval affairs. "This prince not only augmented the number of his vessels, but endeavoured to render the sea service more respectable by inducing the English nobility to enter into it. He created his brother, the Duke of York, lord high admiral, and had one of his own sons entered as a common sailor on board a ship of war; finally to compensate the sea-officers for the scantiness of their appointments he granted them certain perquisites and allotted them an increased share of prize-money."

The 'tug of war' was never more obstinate than in the engagements between Charles and the Dutch: the highest gallantry was displayed on both sides, and as "none but the brave deserves the fair," fortune cast her coquettish and deceitful smiles on both the combatants. In one of these engagements, where the English were defeated with considerable loss, chain-shot was for the first time used: a deadly invention, it was supposed, of the pensionary De Witt. After various struggles, successful to one party but always destructive to both, a treaty was concluded at Breda, by which the honours of the flag were once more ceded to the English. The French monarch, however, (Louis XIV.) contemplated the ruin of the Dutch, and notwithstanding the unpopularity of the measure in England, he found no great difficulty in prevailing on Charles to assist in the completion of his mighty projects. War was renewed, but when the Orange party acquired their ascendancy, and the De Witts were massacred in the city of Amsterdam, the rivalry terminated between the English and the Dutch: the latter had no longer any one to inspire them with courage; they sued for peace, consenting in the most unqualified manner, that the honours of the flag should be paid to all the vessels of Charles, throughout the whole extent of the *four seas* which surround the British isles, that is to say, from Cape Finisterre to the central point of Staten-island, on the coast of Norway.

From this time the naval power of the Dutch declined, and the rivalry was transferred from Holland to France, who, during the continuance of the war, impolitically as it should seem, protracted by Charles, became experienced in naval tactics. During the minority of Louis XIV. France can scarcely be said to have possessed a marine: the lofty genius of Colbert saw the defect, and with astonishing celerity he remedied it. Ship-builders were invited from Holland: mast-makers and anchor-smiths arrived from Sweden; rope-twisters, sail-makers, &c. from Riga, Hamburg, and Dantzic; arsenals were built and vessels constructed in every port, and in the year 1667, the Duc de Beaufort had the command of a fleet at Brest, consisting of fifty ships of war. After a time, however, France declined in her maritime exertions, and the battle of La

Hogue decided the ascendancy in favour of England: William, however, by this mighty victory, which blasted for ever the hopes of the expatriated James, by no means destroyed the naval force of France, for in the following year she fitted out a fleet of seventy-one ships of the line, besides twenty-one vessels, under the command of Maréchal Tourville. At the conclusion of the chapter we find a remark which, it seems, has not been made for the first time during the war which has now happily terminated. Believing that the marine of England exists only by its finances, which are created by national commerce alone, the author gives a hint to his countrymen, that, "the principal object of the enemies of England should always be to fall upon its commerce: to attack it partially would only prolong the war: not to attack it at all would be to leave that state in full possession of all her resources and render the contest eternal."

Chapter the *fourth* commences with the state of the English marine at the death of William III. and goes down to the period of the American revolution. William left the marine in a flourishing state: it consisted of 282 vessels, of which 130 were ships of the line, from the first to the fourth rates inclusive; to arm these completely, 10,469 pieces of cannon were required, together with 61,119 seamen and marines.

During the early part of the reign of Queen Anne, the English sustained considerable losses at sea: in the dreadful storm of the 26th of November 1703, they lost 13 ships of war and more than 1500 seamen. Sir Cloudesley Shovel, on his return to England with a part of the Mediterranean fleet, struck upon the rocks of Scilly: his own ship was lost and every soul on board, exceeding 900 men, perished: the Eagle of 70 and the Romney of 50 guns shared the same fate. Rear-admiral Edwards was moreover defeated in an engagement with the squadron of Duguay-Trouin: of five English vessels three were taken, one was blown up, and the fifth escaped. Notwithstanding these numerous losses, however, England possessed at the end of the year 1707, a marine consisting of 109 ships of the line, including fourth-rates; 66 sixth and fifth rates, and 88 other vessels of inferior sizes. Among the first description of vessels were several three-deckers, the strongest and most

expacious that had been constructed in Europe.

The marine of Spain had been reduced to a state almost of annihilation: Cardinal Alberoni, the Spanish minister, endeavoured to re-establish it, and under the pretence of sending assistance to the Venetians, who were then at war with the Turks, he fitted out a considerable armament, the real object of which was the conquest of Sardinia, which he intended should be followed by the subjugation of Naples and Sicily. George the first, who had now succeeded to the crown of England, immediately entered into the quadruple alliance and dispatched a powerful fleet into the Mediterranean, under Admiral Byng, in order to arrest the progress of the Spaniards. The fleets met, and the victory which the English obtained was as decisive as any in the annals of the navy. The letter which Captain Walton (who had been detached in pursuit of Rear-admiral de Mari) wrote to the admiral after his encounter, is a curious morceau: "Sir, we have taken and destroyed all the Spanish ships and vessels which were upon the coast; the number as per margin. I am, &c. G. Walton."

"Philippe V. disgusted with an unsuccessful war, and undeceived as to the chimerical projects of his minister, determined at length, to dismiss him: he then, after concluding a peace, acceded to the quadruple alliance. In the course of this war, England had, at least, destroyed the rising navy of Spain; and perceiving, also, that the marine of France was, at the same time, in a very low state, she took advantage of so favourable a conjuncture, and, in fact, gave law to the maritime powers of the north. The fleets under the command of Norris and Wager, being sent into the Baltic sea, caused the British flag to be amply respected in that quarter."

The relations of peace and amity, were not long preserved between Great Britain and Spain: the latter had reason to expect the restitution of Gibraltar, which had been taken in the preceding war. Finding herself deceived in the hopes which had been given her, she besieged it. The English sent out squadrons to relieve the fortress, and the differences between the two powers were terminated by the treaty of Vienna.

George II. now succeeded to the throne of these realms, and the pacific disposition of Sir Robert Walpole, for a long time thwarted the projects

of the English merchants who, provoked that the illicit trade which many of them pursued on the coasts of Mexico and Terra-firma, was interrupted by the guarda-costas which were ordered to cruise in those parts, were very desirous to renew the war. The celebrated *convention*, however, or *treaty of the Pardo*, regulating the pretensions of the two crowns, with relation to the trade and navigation in America and Europe, and of Florida and Carolina, which was concluded by the British minister with Spain, this convention the former was compelled to violate, and war was once more declared against Spain. The capture of Porto Bello by Admiral Vernon, with only six ships of war, induced the admiral to attempt Carthagena: this enterprise miscarried, and might perhaps bring to his recollection the appropriate motto *ver non semper floret*. The tide of fortune for a short time seemed to set in favour of the Spaniards, who being joined by the French fleet became masters of the Mediterranean. The French marine had been much neglected by Cardinal Fleuri, but was so renovated by the spirit, activity, and judgment of M. le Comte de Maurepas, that France was enabled to send several squadrons to sea, and caused her flag to be respected. "M. le Marquis de Roquefeuille, while cruising in the channel, obliged all the vessels of his Britannic majesty that he fell in with, to render first the honours of the salute to him; and while he remained on that station, the English did not attempt to send out any reinforcements to the fleet of Admiral Matthews in the Mediterranean."

War was soon afterwards proclaimed between France and England: several naval battles were fought with various success, till both parties, tired and harassed, signed the definitive treaty of peace, which produced so much subsequent discussion, at Aix-la-Chapelle, on the 7th of October 1748. The condition of the French and English navies at this period, presents a remarkable contrast. We have already extended this article to so considerable a length, that we have no room for particulars; suffice it to say, that the naval force of France was in a state of disgraceful weakness, while that of England was in a flourishing condition: her arsenals were full of ammunition and stores, her dockyards were well supplied with timber,



and activity was apparent in all her ports.

Thus circumstanced, the English stood on very advantageous ground at the commencement of the ensuing war: the losses which the French merchants sustained were enormous.

"These losses, before the end of the year 1757, amounted to 510 ships, fitted out from the principal ports, for the colonies, without counting the coasting vessels, great and small, and those employed in the Newfoundland fishery. The insurances, which at first, were carried so high as forty-five or fifty per cent. totally ceased. It was thought necessary, in order to avert a general ruin, and save the French islands from famine, to admit neutral vessels into their ports; but the evil progressively increased; every thing remained in a fatal inaction; no more vessels were fitted out: industry languished, the very hope of recovering again from such distresses at length vanished: and, to crown all, the state of the royal navy was such, as to leave no room for the merchants to expect any protection therefrom."

The marine of France revived, however, under M. de Machault, comptroller general, who was made minister of the marine department, and the engagement between M. de la Galissoniere and Admiral Byng, terminated in favour of the former. On this occasion we are happy to find our French author doing justice to the bravery of that unhappy admiral, to whose high honour, intrepidity and judgment, an impartial and disinterested posterity pays a willing but too tardy homage.

The loss of Louisbourg was a fatal blow to the French marine: this, however, was but the beginning of evils. "From that period, it seemed as if France only fitted out ships of war for England; her squadrons blocked up all the harbours of France, and cut off all communication with them; no French ship got ready to sail, but, in some measure, clandestinely; those few vessels which did escape falling into the hands of the

enemy, were chiefly indebted for it to some favourable circumstance in the weather."

Mr. Pitt, for the second time at the head of affairs, was determined upon preventing the re-establishment of the French marine; and the character of this illustrious statesman, may well be drawn with an angry pencil by a patriot Frenchman.

About two years after his present majesty ascended the throne, the preliminaries of peace were signed at Fontainebleau. France had lost in the course of the war thirty-seven sail of the line and fifty-six frigates: and Spain, who came forward to assist her, lost two of her richest colonies, the Havannah and Manilla, in a single campaign, together with fourteen ships of the line, sunk, burnt, or taken, and four frigates!

With a few remarks on the acquisition of Canada, on the tendency of this acquisition to separate from us our American colonies, and on the importance of those colonies to the English marine, this fourth and last chapter concludes.

After the ample notice which we have taken of its contents, little remains to be said on the general merits of the work: the political reflections which are interspersed do credit to the acuteness of the author's understanding and the extent of his knowledge. On many occasions he takes the opportunity to bestow ample praise on the judgment, perseverance, and activity of the English, to which in conjunction with their valour, he ascribes their maritime superiority. As he draws nearer to modern times, the difference in his style of narrative is not only perceptible but obvious: his subject warms him, and the honour of his nation is upheld with more pertinacity and defended with more animation.

The appendix consists of a number of illustrations, containing official documents, many of them of considerable interest and importance.

**ART. X.** *Naval Chronology; or an historical Summary of naval and maritime Events, from the Time of the Romans to the Treaty of Peace 1802, with an Appendix.* By ISAAC SCHOMBERG, Esq. Captain in the Royal Navy. 8vo. 5 vols.

"IT often happens," says Captain Schomberg, in his introductory preface, "that men who are bred to the naval and military profession, when unemployed in the service of their country, find them-

selves at a loss for some occupation to fill up the great vacuum resulting from the want of those professional and active pursuits to which they have been so much accustomed." As a little relax-

ation, therefore, from the fatigues of service, and a light amusement for his "leisure moments," the captain has employed himself in the compilation of this work, which covers a superficies of two thousand seven hundred and twenty-eight closely-printed octavo pages!

Although one cannot but smile at the idea of collecting and arranging materials for a work of this magnitude in the interval of "leisure moments," we are far from intending to derogate from the great merit which so useful an employment of his time confers on the author of this work. Every nautical man will experience the benefit of a chronological abridgment of the naval history of his country, informing him of the times of invention and introduction of many mathematical and nautical instruments, charts, &c.; and every man, whether nautical or not, will be gratified with occasionally perusing an account of the glorious and gallant achievements of his ancestors and his contemporaries on the ocean which surrounds him.

Captain Schomberg has commenced his work at a very early period of antiquity: so early a period as that in which the Britons were exposed to the frequent and vexatious incursions of their neighbours: "perpetually harassed and insulted, *they were roused to the exertion of national spirit*, and they began to discover the natural strength of their situation, and how much, by the establishment of a *powerful marine*, they would be preserved," &c. &c. What a parade about nothing! what a tempest in a tea-cup! But the historian of Hercules must not forget the snakes which he strangled in his cradle. Indeed we must say that the history of the rise and progress of the navy of England till the time of the protectorate, is here narrated in a very meagre and uninteresting manner: \* a few insulated facts are stated, but neither causes nor consequences are considered. The work is altogether a mere chronology; a book for reference not for reading: the author enters into no political, no commercial, no philosophical speculations; all that he professes to give, from the very title of his book, is a simple register of naval occurrences. On its accuracy alone, then, must its merit

depend, and the numerous state papers which are given at large, and public documents of every description, leave, we presume, no room to question its claim to estimation on the score of authenticity. The events which took place in the famous Dutch wars, and the occurrences of the two last, are detailed with great circumstantiality, and so far as we are able to judge, with equal accuracy. The French account of an engagement is sometimes placed beside that of the English for the purpose of affording a comparison of the two.

The original plan, it seems, was to have comprised the work in three volumes, and to have terminated the narrative with the conclusion of the year 1800; but the prospect of peace and the signing its preliminary articles, encouraged the author to bring it up to that period. "This," he continues, "with the many heroic exploits, which have been performed during the last war, are so deserving of record, that I should have considered myself very remiss in not giving them that place in history which they so justly merit, and which is due to the names and characters of those gallant men who have borne so active and conspicuous a part in adding immortal honours to the British navy."

"By extending the work to two more volumes, I have also been able to introduce many useful state papers, together with the opinion and judgment of Sir William Scott, in many interesting prize causes in the court of admiralty, particularly that on the right of search of neutrals by the belligerent powers."

"The appendix is given in two separate volumes, in order the more readily to refer to any particular occurrence. It contains the state of the royal navy of Great Britain, its various successes and losses, with a comparative view of those of other powers; a list of fleets, squadrons, lines of battle; an account of the different offices in the naval departments, with the names of those noblemen and gentlemen who have served in each; a list of the admirals and post captains who have borne commissions in the royal navy, with an account of any important service they have performed, besides other useful information

\* Mr. Evanson White has translated from the French, a History of the Rise and Progress of the Naval Power of England, (vide page 288,) in which the author has taken a more enlarged view of the subject.

"Some events having been obtained since the work went to the press, and others more accurately stated, they are

subjoined in a supplement at the end of each volume."

ART. XI. *The History of France, civil and military, ecclesiastical, political, literary, commercial, &c. from the Time of its Conquest by Clovis, A. D. 486. By the Rev. ALEX. RANKEN, one of the Ministers of Glasgow. Vol. 2d. from the Death of Charlemagne, A. D. 814, to the Accession of Hugh Capet, A. D. 987. 8vo. pp. 352.*

THIS history of France is conducted on the plan of Dr. Henry's History of England: a much larger portion of the work being filled with an account of the state of laws, literature, learning, and individual merit, than in other histories, which are usually drawn up, as if church and king were the only significant parts of political society. This second volume extends from the death of Charlemagne, in 814, to the accession of Hugh Capet, in 987: a period less interesting than the preceding, where the characters of Charles Martel and of Charlemagne, deserve to arrest attention. Indeed the internal annals of France are remarkably insipid from this period to the introduction of protestantism, when the nation began to separate into those great parties, whose competition is still felt throughout Europe.

In the first chapter is treated the history of France, civil and military, during the period which this volume embraces.

In the second chapter, the history of religion and the church. Both these are well known.

In the third chapter, the history of civil government is separately narrated. This is an eminently useful subdivision: the governors of the next age are formed by the historians of the last; and it is by drawing attention to the minutest ameliorations of the civil condition of the subject, that a spirit of humane and liberal legislation may most efficiently be introduced. Let us hear Mr. Ranken on this topic.

"The lowest ranks of men continued in a state of servitude, as we have formerly described them,\* in the period which preceded the death of Charlemagne, subject to the authority, and almost entirely to the caprice and power of their masters. Without their consent they could not change their situation nor condition; they could

not move from one place of residence to another; they could not marry; they could not engage in any law suit, nor be admitted to holy orders. But during the period which forms the subject of this book, several causes, which had begun indeed before to operate, contributed to their emancipation and improvement.

"*Causes of emancipation* The mild and generous spirit of Christianity, in proportion as it was diffused over society, softened the tempers of men, and, in this respect, disposed them to condescension and kindness. Servitude seemed inconsistent with the faith of men's original equality, with their common privileges as Christians in their present state, and with their common hope of immortality and heavenly bliss, and particularly with the general principles of the moral law, so often inculcated, and so beautifully illustrated and exemplified in the gospel, 'Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself.'

"The spirit of this law of laws, entered into the laws of the state, some of which appear as a commentary on its benevolent principle. 'It behoves every one,' it is said in one of the capitularies of Lewis and Lothaire, 'to treat his inferiors with gentleness and compassion, in exacting labour, in levying debts, and in imposing fines: all ought to consider one another as brethren: all have one God and Father, to whom they can with equal confidence address themselves, saying, *Our Father who art in heaven:* all have access to one baptism, &c.†

"Animated by this spirit, it appeared a becoming expression of gratitude to heaven, in consequence of any prosperous event, of recovery from sickness, of marriage, or of child birth; or a suitable act of devotion under affliction, or under the apprehension of death, to emancipate a number of slaves proportioned to the extent of the person's property, or to the fervor of his piety.‡

"The increase of superstition increased the emancipation of slaves. If any of them took a monastic vow, or obtained admission to holy orders, they were, of course, reckoned thenceforth free. This practice, however, became too frequent to be tolerated: the church was in danger of being crowded

\* Book 1. chap. iii. vol. 1.

† Capitul. lib. ii. c. 41. in the collection of Ansegise.

‡ Marculf Form. lib. i. 3. and ii. 32—34. Formulæ Vetem. viii. 13. Though these Formulæ were drawn in the eighth century, yet they were intended, and actually served, as copies for the following ages. Mabillon. de Re Diplom.

with this baser sort of clergy; and we find many prohibitions of it in the laws both of church and state.

"The general persuasion, that the end of the world was approaching, induced many to emancipate their slaves, as well as generally to relinquish their earthly pursuits and property. By sacrificing all to the church and to humanity, they hoped, and in this hope they were encouraged by the clergy, that they should be more acceptable to God, and more ripe for heaven.

"Multitudes of men in this manner acquired personal liberty; yet so little did they value real freedom, that they generally remained, at least during life, attached from habit to their masters and usual situations; or they submitted anew, in order to secure subsistence and protection, to some church, monastery, or wealthy baron.

"No just idea was then entertained of civil liberty, of the security arising from the wise and constant administration of just and good laws, nor of the power of the common people acting with union as one body to counteract the power of the aristocracy, oppressive equally of them and of royalty.

"*Freedmen and freeborn.* Slaves and freedmen were generally the labourers and artists of the country. The freeborn, and such as were ambitious of losing the memory of their former rank, after they were emancipated became soldiers. For this end they attached themselves to some baron of experience and fame in military affairs, capable both of protecting them, and of leading them to war. From him they received their cottage, their little farm, or requisite provision; and him they served in matters of husbandry, or attended him as soldiers to the field of battle. Their immediate superior might be a sub-vassal; that is, one holding a comparatively small farm, or fief, of a more extensive barony; or he might be an independent or allodial proprietor.

"*Allodial proprietors.* An allodial proprietor, as was formerly stated, whether his territory was great or small, held his lands, not of an individual, either lord or king, but of the nation, and to the nation only owed allegiance and military service. He was liable to be called out, not when the king's humour, or private affairs, or resentments, but when the great interests of the kingdom required. If his property, however, was small and exposed, it became necessary, for the sake of protection, either to form an alliance with other allodial proprietors, or to submit to the vassalage of some feudal lord. As an ally, he continued independent, excepting in the articles expressly agreed on; but as a vassal, he be-

came bound to homage and service, and generally to the subordination of the feudal law.

"*Circumstances unfavourable to them.*

The very independence of allodists contributed to depress them. Proud of their peculiar rank and antiquity (for they generally traced the tenure of their lands to the gift of some ancient general assembly of the nation, and there were not now very many tenures of this kind to boast of), they were disposed rather to hold in contempt beneficiary and feudal tenures, as an inferior kind. The least insinuation or appearance of this spirit, naturally excited jealousy, and provoked resentment. As others could exact from them no service, so neither had they reason so expect from others favour and protection. They were even jealous of any claims being made on them, or of any thing granted as a favour being construed into a right. Distant and reserved, they mingled not easily with the partisans, either of one side or another, around them. Scattered as they were over the country, it was almost impossible for them to form, or, for any length of time, to maintain among themselves an extensive confederacy. Necessity thus obliged them to sacrifice pride to prudence, to become the men or vassals of those who, though their tenure was of a more recent date, or of an inferior sort, were, from the circumstances of the times, and their more extensive territory, able to afford them protection and security.

"*Church lands.* The tenures of church lands were, like others, of different kinds. If allodial, either by original gift of the nation, or by subsequent deed of conveyance, then they were in circumstances similar to those which we have just now described; and, for the sake of security, generally preferred some feudal connection. When under feudal subordination, then they were liable, as in other cases of the same kind, to homage and service. This homage and service, however, was not always required of the bishop, nor abbot, personally; nay, they were often prohibited from personal military service, which was more generally rendered by their *avoués*, *vidames*, or *commissaries*. Hincmar complains of the military services to which he and the other clergy were liable.\*

"*Peerage, or Peers of France.* Very different opinions having been entertained, and many dissertations written, concerning the time when, and the manner in which the order and institution of the peers of France arose, this may be the most proper place to observe, that they seem to have their origin in the remotest antiquity, or in the most

\* "Cum Domino nostro rege, in hoste, ex omni regno suo collecti, contra Bretones, & Northmannos illis conjunctos, sicut & ceteri, confratres, ac sacerdotes nostri, secundum nostrarum regionum gravem consuetudinem. Cum hominibus commissis mihi ecclesie pertracturus sum." Hincmari Epistol. ad Nicol. I.

ordinary ideas, and familiar customs, of human nature and society. We naturally assimilate together things of the same kind, and place in the same rank men of like talents, property, and power. This assimilation and equality the Latins expressed by the word  *pares* , which, in the progress of the Roman and French language, was readily formed into  *pairs*  (peers). In this sense we meet with the word so commonly, both in the Latin classics, and in the French authors of the ninth, tenth, and preceding centuries, that quotations seem unnecessary. Till a much later period, when a selection was made of twelve, to whom peculiar privileges were assigned, the word  *pares*  uniformly denoted men of the same rank in church and state, in a civil and military capacity. All the king's vassals, for example, whether small or great, who held their lands immediately of the crown, were peers: so were allodial proprietors, till the progress of the feudal system depressed them beneath their proper rank; and so were churchmen of the same order. The same duties were incumbent on each of the same rank; and to each of the same rank peculiar privileges belonged. Thus we find Suger, the abbot of St. Dennis, in the following century, addressed in a letter by his brethren of that community, as his peers.\* The capitularies describe the king's vassals, whom he might summon to arms against the common enemy, by the same name.† And Count Odo, or Eudes, speaking‡ of counts in their civil capacity as judges, says, addressing Robert the king as his lord, that he had been assured, that it was not competent for him (Eudes) to be tried, but in the presence of an assembly of his peers."

It will be perceived, that a sound and wholesome spirit of criticism pervades this important department; and that the travels of this author's research are as extensive as the estimate of his commentary is judicious.

The fourth chapter is consecrated to the history of literature, which is thus introduced.

"The exertions of Charlemagne in behalf of learning, the schools which he instituted over the empire, and the encouragement which he vouchsafed to learned men, not only checked its decline, but sowed the seeds which, by a slow and almost imperceptible growth, through a long and unfavourable season, came at last to maturity. His son

shewed the best disposition to maintain and promote the institutions of his father. The capitularies of the assemblies which he held, frequently recommended and enjoined due attention to cathedral, and something like parochial schools.§ The things taught in most of them, indeed, were frivolous; but in a few of them, according to the qualifications and views of the bishop and teacher, they were more solid and useful. Church music and recitation were the favourite and most general subjects of attention in them. Schools were attached also to the monasteries, for the purpose both of teaching the youth belonging to them, and other scholars unconnected with them. Inconveniences having arisen from the promiscuous meeting of these two different classes in the same school, the council of Aix-la-Chapelle, A. D. 817, prohibited extra scholars. This occasioned them to be separated, and to be taught in different rooms, so that they might have no intercourse. The same masters, however, presided in both, and generally taught them the same things. Some of the masters were the most able and learned men of the times, as Alcuin, Raban, Maur, Lupus, Candidus, Milen, &c.; and their diligence and success appeared in the comparative eminence of their scholars in the succeeding ages.||

"Some of these institutions were destined for children so young as seven years. They were taught by curates. *They began them with learning the psalter, probably to repeat rather than to read it*: though many learned undoubtedly to read also; otherwise they could not have been prepared for the higher branches of education, and for becoming, as they did, teachers and authors themselves. Some of the dignitaries of the church, as Dado, bishop of Verdun, and Everache, bishop of Liege, disdained not to spend a considerable part of their time in overseeing these schools, and in teaching the children to understand the subjects which they repeated and read.¶

"*Academies.* Superior to these elementary schools, were the academies annexed to monasteries and cathedral churches, for the young clergy; and three academies were instituted in the kingdom, besides the academy of the palace, which was ambulatory, for the nobility. The nobility were generally negligent of education; yet there were in every age some exceptions, as many of them both exemplified the dignity and excellence of learning, and dared to reprove the neglect of it. King Lewis the Transmarine having

\* "Domino suo Sugorio beati Dionysii reverendo abbati, pares, & tota Belvacensis communia, salutem," &c. Apud Duchesne, vol. iv. p. 519.

† Quicumque ex his qui beneficium principis habent parem suum contra hostes communes in exercitum," &c. Capitul. lib. iii. 71, 72.

‡ "Nec sibi competere dicebat, ut me ad tale iudicium exhiberet, sine conventionem parium suorum." Fulberti Episcopi Carnot. Epist. 42. Duchesne, vol. iv. p. 187.

§ Capitul. lib. ii. 5.

|| Hist. Liter. de la France, tom. vi. 10, 29.

¶ Ibid.



pointed his finger in derision against Foulque, the good count of Anjou, who was one of the most learned men of the age, the latter perceived it; and, knowing the cause of it to be a contempt of learning, wrote the king a rude but severe reproof. "Know, Sire, that an unlettered king is a crowned ass."\*

"These various schools and academies were generally well endowed; and though some of the teachers of those whose funds were declining, or originally poor, accepted fees, yet it was thought illiberal and unfavourable to learning. They were called mercenary, and said to set a price on their lessons. The more they became a subject of attention, the richer were their endowments; but being generally annexed to a church or monastery, and the funds of most of them being undistinguished and confounded together, suffered or prospered with these greater institutions, on which they seemed entirely to depend.

"Besides the elementary parts of education, as reading, &c. writing, arithmetic; the fine arts, as music and poetry; and the liberal arts or sciences, as grammar, rhetoric, &c. were taught in them.

"*Writing.* The art of writing was carried to great perfection. It was the only means, before the invention of printing, for either making or multiplying books. It was one of the great occupations of the monks, to which we are indebted for the preservation of many of the works of the ancients, to write copies of them for their own use, for the use of the monastery, or for sale. They studied writing, not only as an useful, but as an ornamental art: they adorned their sacred books especially, with peculiar beauty: they wrote them, as we see in the examples which yet remain, with ink of different colours, gold, azure, purple, &c. they were interspersed with miniatures: they were covered with silver, ivory, and precious stones.†

"*Arithmetic.* Arithmetic was very imperfectly taught. Some knowledge was necessary to calculate the festivals of the church; but it was easily acquired by the clergy. It was more necessary, and to a greater extent, for the purposes of astronomy, which, however, very few attempted.

"Gerbert, monk of Aurillac, archbishop of Rheims, and afterwards Pope Sylvester II. a man of great research, was by far the most profound geometrician of these times. He taught land-measure, the measure of heights and distances, and gauging.‡

"He had not only read the writings of the ancients on geometry and astronomy, but he had obtained considerable information from the Arabs. He describes the sphere as round, and its circumference as

divided into sixty equal parts; which again he subdivided into twelve. He divides it again, in the contrary direction, into five zones. To find the polar star, he proposes to fix seven tubes in a hemisphere, so that it shall be seen through each by simply turning it round. If you still doubt, point one of them to it immovably; and if the star shall be seen through the tube so fixed the whole night, it is certainly the polar star. The position of each of the tubes will mark the circles of the several zones.§

"He not only calculated, but mechanically represented, the motions of the heavenly bodies. Such a philosopher, in those times, was reckoned a magician, and was sometimes consulted by the ignorant and superstitious, about future events and other mysteries; but he was also exposed sometimes to danger, when the people happened to be animated by a spirit of intolerance and zeal against those whom they suspected to be familiar with the devil."

In the history of the arts, which fills the fifth subdivision, a more unfavourable idea is given of the state of civilization, than we can wholly reconcile with probability, as far as the useful and necessary arts are concerned; and a more favourable idea than we had preconceived, of the state of the luxurious and recondite arts. The account of commerce might have been enriched with many anecdotes from Fischer's admirable history, especially from the eighteenth chapter. The Jews were ordered to pay a tenth, the Christians an eleventh of their earnings, to the church. It should seem from Procopius (*De bello Gothico* l. 3, c. 13,) that the first gold money struck out of Rome, was by the kings of France. A monkish poet praises Charlemagne for intending a canal.

*Si fieret tantus fossa tellure paratus  
Alvens inductos ambos dum tangeret amnes  
Gurgitibus posset puppes ut ferre natantes  
In Rhenum de Danubio celer efficeretur  
Et facilis cursus.*

Some lists of prices under Lewis the Strange exist: a lined great coat cost twenty shillings, a coat ten shillings, a pelisse thirty shillings.

The concluding subdivision treats of the language and customs, which might conveniently have been included under the same head as the literature. We

\* Hist. Litar. de la France, tom. vi. p. 21.

† Ibid. tom. iv. p. 282.

‡ Ibid. p. 582.

§ Mabillon, *Vetera Analacta*, p. 102. edit. Paris. 1723.

trust, or rather we hope, this instructive writer will proceed in his meritorious task, and find the public curiosity com-

mensurate with his exertions for its gratification.

ART. XII. *Annals of the French Revolution, or a chronological Account of its principal Events; with a variety of Anecdotes and Characters hitherto unpublished.* By BERTRAND DE MOLEVILLE, Minister of State. Translated by R. C. DALLAS, Esq. Part second and last. vols. 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. 8vo.

MR. BERTRAND DE MOLEVILLE, the author of these memoirs, was applied to on the 25th of September, 1791, in the king of France's name, by M. de Montmorin, to accept the office of minister of the marine: he thus states the consequent negotiation.

"I entreated M. de Montmorin, as the greatest proof of friendship he could give me, to do all in his power to prevail upon his majesty to think of some other person. 'I shall give your answer to the king,' said he, 'but I have no idea that I shall succeed in diverting him from his intention of appointing you; he has set his mind upon it more than you imagine, and I even foretell that you will receive a letter from himself on the subject. Consider upon it.'

"When I returned home, I reflected very seriously on the different reasons that ought to guide me in a determination the most important of my life, for it might endanger, not only my fortune and quiet, but my reputation, my personal safety, and the safety of my family.

"These ideas might have had a full effect upon me, had I not considered, that as I was not personally known to the king, and could not hope for some time to obtain his entire confidence, I should imprudently expose myself, by accepting the place of a minister, to the shame of neither doing any good, nor preventing any ill in the administration, to a responsibility in the eyes of the public for the errors I had to combat, and to a retreat attended only with regret, for having sacrificed my peace and my reputation uselessly to the king and the state; the final result, therefore, of my reflections was, a firm resolution to decline an appointment in the ministry.

"Two days after, the king wrote me a letter with his own hand, in which his majesty enforced what he had said by M. de Montmorin, and concluded with the following expression: 'In a word, I am confident that your services will be very useful to me and to the state: I know your attachment to me, and I expect that you will, on the present occasion, give me this proof of your zeal and obedience.'

"In my reply to this letter, I persevered in declining a part in the administration, pleading an additional motive, on which I principally dwelt; and that was the preju-

dice, unjust, doubtless, but still great, which existed against all the old intendants of the provinces, and from which, whatever were my conduct, I should be suspected of being an enemy to the new system.

"The king, after reading my letter, said to M. de Montmorin, who had delivered it to him, 'But ask M. Bertrand, then, where I am to look for ministers, if persons who profess, as he does, to be attached to me, deny me their services, and desert me?' I was extremely affected with this piercing reproach; the very idea that the king could think me capable of deserting him, instantly made all my objections vanish, and I was completely converted by M. de Montmorin's assurances, that I might rely on his majesty's confidence, that in a few days there were to be great changes in the council, and that I should be very well satisfied with the new ministers. I thought that at this violent crisis, when the lives of the royal family themselves might be exposed to the greatest danger, a faithful and courageous servant might be more useful to the king, than an able minister of the marine, and, being conscious of a fidelity that would not suffer me to fail in courage, I devoted myself to his service. I requested M. de Montmorin to inform his majesty that I was at his command, and only begged that he would grant me a short audience before he made my appointment public.

"Let those who have censured me for accepting an office in the administration under the new constitution, those who can have suspected me of ambitious views, or of the slightest connexion with the party of the constitutionalists, consider what my situation was; let them examine, without prejudice, what my conduct has been, let them weigh my motives, and then let him who really thinks himself more purely a royalist than I, throw the first stone at me."

From this extract the attentive reader will be able to estimate the point of view which pervades the observations of M. Bertrand: it is that of a prejudiced royalist, but a respectable man; somewhat vain, and somewhat disappointed; whose character with mildness, or rather temper, had weight, or rather consequence; whose means of information were peculiar and great, whose subsequent investigation has been laborious,

and who narrates with dilate diffusion, but with perspicuity and accuracy: a little peevishness may be excused to his adversity.

Of such a narrator the very hostility is not oppressive; he supplies the documents of apology to the victims of his censure, and dismisses with reproof, without consigning to disgrace. An instance is the notice of Fayette's resignation.

"On the same day M. de la Fayette took his leave of the national guards by a long letter which was inserted in all the public papers. This last act of the generalship of the hero of the two worlds, is a disgusting mixture of sensible advice and revolutionary pathos, which it is hardly possible to read with patience: the nature of it may be seen in the first and last sentence, the only ones I shall cite.

"Just as the constituent National Assembly has laid down its powers, and the functions of its members are at an end, I also am at the conclusion of the engagements into which I entered, when placed by the wishes of the nation at the head of the citizens who were the first to devote themselves to the recovery and preservation of liberty. I promised the capital, which gave the happy signal for it, there to keep the sacred standard of the revolution raised, which the public opinion had confided to me."

"Gentlemen, in laying down the command at this painful moment of our separation, my heart, penetrated with the profoundest sensibility, acknowledges more than ever the immense obligations which bind it to you. Accept the wishes of the most affectionate of friends for the general prosperity, and for the individual happiness of every one of you; and may the remembrance of him frequently arise in your minds, and particularly mix with the oath which unites us all, to live free, or to die!"

"On the 11th of October, every company of the sixty battalions composing the national guard, deputed one of its members to the Hotel-de-Ville, in order to take M. de la Fayette's letter into consideration, and settle the answer to be given to it. At this meeting it was resolved, 1st. That an answer should be returned, expressing to the general the army's affection and regret: 2dly. That as an acknowledgement for his wise and honourable conduct in the command since the revolution, he should be presented with a sword with a gold hilt, on which there should be engraved the following inscription: *To La Fayette, from the grateful Parisian army, the 3d year of liberty*: 3dly. That a petition should be presented to the national assembly, praying them to take into consideration the sacrifices of every kind that had been made by M. de la Fayette,

and to grant him a compensation for them.

"The enthusiasm and love still in reality preserved by M. de la Fayette for the revolution, the constitution, the national guard, &c. &c. were very worthy of all these rewards."

Who does not read the account of this dignified retirement with opposite emotions to those of the historian?

To the eloquence of Isnard, which surpasses that of Mirabeau, or any other French orator, M. Bertrand is not unjust; but on what grounds he charges Brissot with venality, he omits to state: had he called Brissot a sanguinary fanatic, one would have understood the charge with the regular grains of allowance; but when a man lives and dies unexpensive, poor and consistent, venality is a very incredible accusation: that he was paid for writing, or wrote for pay, and, consequently, that his pen, in a certain sense, was venal, may be averred; but surely he never employed it, unless for the party of his heart: and it tended to protect his independence, that he had industry enough to subsist by his pen.

Volume VI. In speaking of Brissot's report (p. 190) against a supposed Austrian committee which met in Paris, and to which Mess. Montmorin and Bertrand are in that report said to have belonged; M. Bertrand affects to be wholly at a loss for the meaning of the terms; and observes, that every act which was *not in the sense of the revolution*, might be attributed to that pretended committee, on the plan of the denunciation. This is very true; but is it the whole truth? From the moment the king determined to accept a jacobin administration, there existed a secret disposition about the court to thwart and dispopularize these ministers. The king, desirous of keeping within the letter of the constitution, both from a sense of duty and of safety, lent himself as the royal puppet of the jacobins, and was affixed with the ductility of seal-wax to their decrees. But the queen avowedly encouraged those persons who were most disposed to rescue the royal family from this state of insignificance: she was an Austrian: her leading adherents could consequently be called the *Austrian committee*. Far be it from us to insinuate, that the queen's party conducted themselves exceptionably, still less traitor-

ously; but that such a description of persons existed, and held meetings, is surely undeniable. Nor can it surprize any one, that their opinions should give umbrage, or their tendencies of conduct, alarm, to such a faction as the Brissotine, or Girondist. It is observable, that in May 1792, in the denunciation of the Austrian committee, Brissot imputes it to them as a crime, that they were hostile to an alliance with England and with Prussia; which is an indirect proof that Brissot's party were friendly to an alliance with England.

M. Bertrand admits (p. 200), that, after he was out of office as minister, he himself deputed, with the king's concurrence, M. Mallet-du-Pan, to the emperor, and the king of Prussia, to give instructions, &c. about the manifesto, by which it might be proper, that the invasion of France should be preceded.

The nineteenth chapter begins with the following remarkable paragraph.

"It was about this time (June 1792) that M. de Lally Tollendal, who had become an English subject, returned to France with the hope of serving the unfortunate Louis XVI. He informed me that the basis of the plan which had been entered into by himself and his friend was, to set the king at full liberty, to crush the jacobins, to render his majesty the mediator between France and the rest of Europe, and between the French and the French; then to reform the constitution, limit the popular power by means of the people themselves, and ensure to Louis XVI. the happiness he so much desired, of uniting the liberty of the nation with the prerogative of the monarch.

"Though I admired the plan, I doubted the means proposed for affecting it, when I heard that it depended on M. de la Fayette, who M. de Lally endeavoured to convince me was both willing and able to put it in execution: the project, however, was afterwards put into my hands by M. Malouet, and transmitted by me to the king."

Of this project we hear again.

"M. de la Fayette, however, seems not to have been quite discouraged by the ill success of his embassy; for on the 10th of July, M. de Lally came again to me with an air of triumph, and putting a paper into my hands, he said, 'read what I am authorized to transmit to the king, and remain afterwards incredulous if you can.' It was a long letter written by M. de la Fayette from his army, in which he drew a plan (ready, as he said, for execution) to open the way to the king through his enemies, and to establish him in safety either at Compeigne, or in the north

part of France, surrounded by his constitutional guards, and by his faithful army. All this was to be done constitutionally.

"I transmitted this letter to the king, who, notwithstanding his distrust of M. de la Fayette was considerably abated, could never believe that he had it in his power to accomplish the restoration of the monarchy, like another Monk; and, besides, he deemed the plan now proposed but feebly calculated for that purpose. His majesty therefore sent me an obliging, but a negative answer, to deliver to M. de Lally, to be by him transmitted to M. de la Fayette. It was in these words:

"Let him know that I am sensible of his attachment, in proposing to incur so much danger; but it would be imprudent to put so many springs in motion at once. The best way he can serve me, is to continue to make himself a terror to the factious, by ably performing his duty as a general."

Its effects on the ultimate safety of this courageous constitutionalist are thus narrated.

"The enemies of M. de la Fayette, powerfully reinforced by their coalition with Dumourier's partizans, became doubly inveterate against him; and although his conduct had been fully justified by the report of the commission of the twelve, they did not despair of obtaining against him a decree of impeachment, for which the most insolent petitions were daily presented at the bar of the assembly. This miserable farce, so often played by the jacobins, was too well known and too much worn out to produce of itself a decisive effect; recourse was therefore had to other manœuvres. The principal members of the Gironde party being one day together at the house of their worthy friend the Abbé Gobel, the constitutional Bishop of Paris, with Mareschal Luckner, egged him on to speak a great deal—it was after dinner—and pretended that he had owned to them that M. de la Fayette had proposed to him to march their armies to Paris. The next day one of them (*La Source*) denounced this avowal to the assembly in the debate on the report of the commission of the twelve relative to M. de la Fayette. 'In short, it is a fact,' said he; 'I scarcely dared to write it, the very letters I formed seemed all blood. The bandage must now fall from the eyes of every candid man who yet remains, what I myself was, the dupe of the most odious of traitors, the admirer of the vilest of men. Will you be able to refrain from shuddering with horror? *La Fayette* attempted to march the troops towards Paris, and to engage the noble Luckner, who was not to be seduced, to join in that act of villainy and high treason. The proposal was made to Luckner through M. Bureau de Pusy. I here appeal to the testimony of six of my colleagues, to whom

this execrable project was revealed at the same time it was to me." Upon this *Guadet* declared, "that having asked the *mareschal* whether it was true that it had been proposed to him to march to Paris after the events of the 20th of June, the answer he made was so remarkable, that he (*Guadet*) had thought it right to commit it to paper, and he would read it." It was as follows: *I do not deny it; it was M. Bureau de Puzy, who I believe was thrice president of the national assembly. I answered him—I will march only against the enemy from without; La Fayette may do as he pleases; but if he marches against Paris I will march against him, and I will drub him.*

"It was difficult to doubt that this answer was exactly reported: it seemed to have been taken from the *mareschal's* mouth. It was written in his broken French; and, besides, the paper, which was deposited on the table, was signed by *Guadet*, and all the other members who were present at the conversation, except *Herauld de Sechelles*; so serious was the charge resulting from this against *M. de la Fayette*, that his enemies thought themselves sure of obtaining a decree of impeachment; and the more so, as at the same moment the assembly were informed that the alarm bell was ringing in the parish of St. Roch, and that a great concourse of citizens were coming towards the *Thuilleries*, on the pretence of the members of the assembly being in danger. It is more than probable that this popular commotion happening so precisely at the time that *M. de la Fayette* was denounced as guilty of high treason, had been raised by the *jacobins* in order to intimidate and weaken that general's party. However that was, the debate was interrupted to attend to *Petion*, who, having by the omnipotence of his influence over the populace, prevailed upon them not to enter the *Thuilleries*, came to give an account of it to the legislative-body, and to dispel their alarms. The assembly, after testifying by their applause how much they were astonished with the respect of the citizens for the law, and the mayor's zeal to maintain it, resumed the debate, and decreed, by a great majority, that it should be adjourned till after an inquiry into the fact, denounced by *Guadet* and the other deputies, who as well as he had attested by their signatures the exactness of the reply said to have been made by *Mareschal Luckner*.

"*M. de la Fayette* was much indebted on this occasion, to the eloquence and courage with which he was defended by the worthy *Dumourlard*, who, in spite of the murmurs, hootings, and vociferations by which he was every instant interrupted, victoriously refuted all the censures cast on *M. de la Fayette*, and exposed the manoeuvres of his slanderers with the real causes of their inveteracy against him."

Further elucidations occur:

"A civil war was, in fact, what the *jacobins* most dreaded; and their great disgust with *M. de la Fayette* was merely the consequence of their seeing in him the only man who could with advantage put himself at the head of the royalist party. There is no doubt, that if at this moment he had dared to declare himself the leader of it, he would soon have brought over to him all the constitutional party, and the sound part of all the national guards of the kingdom. Such as we have seen in the foregoing chapters, was the plan he proposed to the king; and he would certainly have attempted the execution of it, had his majesty but simply given his consent. Could *M. de la Fayette*, however, who had as yet done so little to regain the king's confidence, who well knew his majesty's irresolution, and particularly the horror he felt at every idea of civil war, reasonably expect to obtain the consent he asked? He would have repaired all his errors by so signal a service; and he sincerely wished it: but unfortunately with too little energy to dare to take the only resolution which could succeed, that of attempting, at the risk of his life, to save the king without his knowledge, without the hazard of involving him, and depending on his approbation in case of success. The words said to have been spoken by *Luckner*, and attested by several members of the commission of twelve, evidently shewed that *M. de la Fayette* had this project in view. The *jacobins* were convinced of it, and flattered themselves that the inquiry ordered by the assembly, would yield the most satisfactory proofs to ground a decree of impeachment against the counter-revolutionary general, but they were completely disappointed. *M. Bureau de Puzy* being summoned to the bar of the assembly, gave a very circumstantial account of the business on which he had been sent to *Mareschal Luckner*, and proved by the correspondence of the two generals, whose letters he read and laid upon the table, that *M. de la Fayette* had never proposed, or caused to be proposed to the *mareschal*, to march to Paris at the head of his army, but had only consulted him on the design he had of going there alone, after the outrages of the 20th of June, and of taking the step that had so violently exasperated the *jacobins*. Before he set out, he had requested to know whether *Mareschal Luckner* thought it would be attended with any detriment to the service with which they were charged in common, and for which they were both responsible. *M. Bureau de Puzy* demonstrated that this was the whole object of his mission. He pleaded his own cause, and that of the two generals ably and nobly, and was loudly applauded by all the *côté-droit*, and by several members of the *côté-gauche*.

"In a letter to the assembly, the *mareschal* formally disowned the words that had been attributed to him, lamented the diffi-



culty he had in explaining himself in French, expressed the pain he felt at finding so dreadful a turn given to a conversation misunderstood, and declared, that if the proposal of marching against Paris had been made to him by any agent whatever of the public force, he should not have been contented with rejecting it with horror, but should have thought it his duty to denounce so criminal a project to the constituted authorities.

"M. de la Fayette, to whom the denunciation made against him by the members of the commission of twelve, and the act of the legislative body of the 21st of July had been signified by the minister of the interior, replied also by a letter, the principles and firmness of which were loudly applauded by the constitutional party. It was as follows:

"If I were questioned respecting my principles, I should say, that a constant proclaimer and defender of the rights of man, and the sovereignty of nations, I have every where, and always resisted authorities which liberty disavowed, and which the national will had not delegated; and that I have every where, and always obeyed those, the forms and limits of which were settled by a free constitution. But I am questioned respecting a fact. Did I propose to Mareschal Luckner to march to Paris with our armies? To which I answer in four words—It is not true.

#### 'LA FAYETTE.'

"The assembly referred these different papers to the commission of twelve, and directed them to make a report upon them in eight days. They destroyed the principal means on which the jacobins had depended for ruining M. de la Fayette, but this did not diminish their animosity against him. Their journals and pamphlets daily unmasked pretended conspiracies, of which he was accused of being the leader. The orators of the Palais-Royal groups, called down upon him the execration of all good patriots, to whom they marked out before-hand as his accomplices, all the members of the assembly who should be so base as to vote for him."

The account of the 10th of August is very interesting; but it closely tallies with the current accounts; the following anecdote is perhaps the least generally familiar.

"While these murders were deluging with blood the *Place de Louis XV.* the *Rue Royale*, and the *Champs-Élysées*, the Marseillais, the federates, and the brigands of the fauxbourgs, had returned to the *Carrousel* with large reinforcements, and more cannon, which were fired on the palace for near a quarter of an hour, without doing any mischief to it, except some of the roof. Great crowds went to the gates of the courts, and attempted to enter; but they were again repulsed by the fire from the windows of the

gallery of the Louvre, and by the small guard that defended those posts. It was at this moment, that the assembly, terrified at the long resistance made by the guard of the palace, lamented that the Swiss had not had orders not to fire. M. Dubouchage, the minister of the marine, declared that the order had been given, on which there was a general demand that it should be repeated. The difficulty, however, was to have any order whatever conveyed to the palace while the continual fire of the besiegers and besieged, prevented any one's approaching it. The king, who flattered himself that this new instance of goodness and confidence, would induce the assembly to treat him with more consideration, was extremely unhappy at not being able to send the order.

"M. d'Hervey, being in the box of the *Logographe* with the royal family, offered to carry the order, determined at the same time, to make use of it in the manner most conducive to the safety of the royal family. The king and queen were greatly affected at this proof of attachment; but unwilling to expose the life of one of their most valuable and faithful servants, they seized his arm to prevent him from withdrawing, pressing his hand affectionately in theirs. Madame Elizabeth was impressed with the same sentiments; and all three, with tears in their eyes, entreated him not to go. M. d'Hervey, whose zeal was only the more animated by such distinguishing marks of regard, renewed his demand with earnestness.

"I entreat your majesties not to think of the danger," said he; "it is my duty to brave it for your service. My post is *aux coups de fusil*; and if I feared them, I should be unworthy of the name of a soldier."

"These words, pronounced in a manner the most capable of inspiring confidence, and the murmurs which the king's irresolution excited in the assembly, at length determined his majesty to write the order, and deliver it to M. d'Hervey.

"M. de Fauquemont, a young officer of the artillery, full of courage and ardour, who had belonged to the king's guard, under the command of M. d'Hervey, was at the door of the box, and a witness to the above scene. He was that day in the uniform of the national grenadiers, which he always wore on those occasions, when he thought it most expedient for the king's service. This gallant young man begged to be permitted to accompany his commanding officer, and to share his dangers; but M. d'Hervey expressly forbade him, saying that his post was at the door of the king's box, which he ought not to quit. In spite of this, he persisted in following M. d'Hervey, and shewing himself worthy of being his companion. When they arrived at the door of the hall, next to the convent of the Theatins, the national guards, and armed mob there assembled, recognizing M. d'Hervey by his uniform of

Mareschal de Camp, seized and began to insult him, with horrid imprecations. M. de Fauzlemont, who was listened to on account of his uniform, assured them that M. d'Hervilly was the bearer of an order for the Swiss guard to give over firing. They let him go, on his shewing them the order.

'Look sharp after him, camarade,' said they to M. de Fauzlemont, 'for you shall answer for him.'

"This danger was nothing in comparison of those which still awaited M. d'Hervilly. Hardly had he gained the street, than he met a detachment of the national guards, and of the sections, who, as soon as they knew him, fired upon him, but fortunately without injuring him. When he had gone on about two hundred paces farther, he was again fired at, and had again the good luck to escape. At the entry into the *Caroussel*, he was seized by two of the national guards. He knocked one to the ground, the other ran off, after thrusting a bayonet, which he had in his hand, into M. d'Hervilly's thigh, and leaving it there. M. d'Hervilly having plucked it out, proceeded notwithstanding the wound, to the court of the Swiss, still accompanied by M. de Fauzlemont. They were for a moment exposed to a cross fire of musquetry and grape shot from the palace and *Caroussel*, but arrived unhurt at the court of the Swiss, whose courage seemed to be reanimated by the sight of M. d'Hervilly, who, instead of making any mention of the king's order, immediately began to examine how he could best prolong the defence of that place, so as to gain time for the royalists within the palace to join the Swiss, who were in number about two hundred and fifty, and whom, he expected, might still be joined by the well-disposed national guards, and in all make up such a force as would have enabled him to repel the insurgents, and to re-establish the royal family in the palace. He had hopes that the majority of the Parisians would then have declared for the king, and would have expressed their abhorrence of the authors of the insurrection; in which event he would never have been blamed for not having made use of the king's order, and if matters had turned out otherwise, he alone would have been answerable, as in that case he was determined to produce the order, which would have screened his majesty from all blame.

"In pursuance of this plan, having posted the Swiss and the cannon in the most advantageous manner for defending the courts, he proceeded to the palace, attended by M. de Fauzlemont; but in a narrow passage which led to one of the back stairs, he again escaped being killed by a pistol shot from a national guard, who lurked in a dark corner. Having thrust his sword through the body of this cowardly assassin, he walked on: but as he ascended the stair, the tumult and horrible shrieks he heard obliged him to stop; and he was informed by a Swiss, who came down

stairs, that an immense armed populace had penetrated into the palace by the gallery of the Louvre, and were massacring every one they met in their way. The Swiss being evidently too few to continue the defence of the palace on the side of the *Caroussel*; and to repel the numbers who had rushed in, M. d'Hervilly was forced to abandon his project, which would have devoted to certain death so many brave soldiers, whose numbers diminished every instant, while their courage continued unimpaired. He hastened to join them, notified the king's order, and commanded them to follow him to the national assembly, where the king and royal family were. As the attack was made by the *Caroussel* and Louvre, the only remaining way was by the garden of the Thuilleries; but even there they had no sooner appeared, than they were exposed to the fire of the cannon every where planted in it, and of the troops on the different terraces. On leaving the palace, their number amounted to a hundred, but only sixty reached the assembly. They were carried to the guard-house of the Feuillans, where they received an order from the king to give up their arms, change their clothes, and repair to the barracks at Courbevoie. Their clothes were given to the populace, who tore them up to share the pieces, which the brigands fixed in their hats, to their bayonets, and their pikes, bearing them in triumph through the streets, as trophies of their victory."

The news of that celebrated event was differently received in the different armies.

"M. de la Fayette was the only one of all the generals who dared to attempt realizing in his army what M. de Montesquieu had asserted; but unfortunately it was no longer time; and what he might have done after the outrages of the 20th of June, he had no power to accomplish after those of the 10th of August: so true is it, that the greatest fault that can be committed by the head of a party in a revolution, is that of delaying to take advantage of an important success when he is sure of it, and by that delay leaving it to all the hazards of the future. It was very justly said by the Cardinal de Retz, that 'there is nothing in the world but what has its decisive moment; and it is the perfection of conduct to know and to seize that moment: he that misses it, and particularly in the revolutions of states, runs the hazard of not meeting with it again, or of not perceiving it.' But if M. de la Fayette has more than once given occasion for this censure, at least, he does not deserve that of not having done on this occasion all in his power to crush the revolution of the 10th of August; and the more precise I have been in exposing the faults of this constitutional general, the more incumbent is it upon me to be so too, in re-

lating those parts of his conduct which redound to his honour.

"M. de la Fayette was no sooner informed of what had passed at Paris, than he assembled the administrative bodies of the department of Ardennes, conferred with them, and prevailed upon them to resolve, on his demand and on his responsibility, to arrest the commissioners coming from the assembly; and in consequence addressed the following letter to the municipality of Sedan, on the 13th of August.

"Commissioners are coming from the national assembly to preach an unconstitutional doctrine to the army. It is evident to every candid man, that on the 10th of August, the period of the king's suspension, the national assembly acted under compulsion, and that the members who have undertaken this mission can only be the leaders or the instruments of the faction, who have thus enslaved the national assembly and the king.

"I require of the municipality of Sedan, according to the law respecting war, and on my sole and personal responsibility, to detain the persons calling themselves commissioners of the national assembly, and to put them in a place of safety, under the guard of a superior officer; who also, on my sole and personal responsibility, shall execute this order, which he cannot refuse to obey, without being immediately brought to a court martial.

"I have also to call upon the constituted authorities of the department, in virtue of the same laws, to approve these measures; and I shall address the same demand to the court of justice of the district of Sedan, and to the different departments in which the troops I command are stationed.

"This letter, being lodged at the municipality, will serve as a voucher, to shew that neither the commune of Sedan, nor the national guard, placed by the law under my command, nor the army, whether volunteers or troops of the line, and particularly M. Sizard, colonel of the 43d regiment, whom I intend for this duty, nor the administrative and judicial bodies, who may concur in the arrest of the commissioners, are subject to any responsibility; and that it is I who, faithful to my oaths, to the principles of the declaration of rights, to the constitution decreed by the sovereign will of the nation, that it is I alone who require, as I have a right to do, all such measures as constitute resistance to oppression, the first duty of free souls.

(Signed) 'LA FAYETTE.'

"At the same time a great number of the copies of an address to the battalions of the line, and of the national guards, was spread through the camp, where it produced a good effect. It was as follows:

"Citizen soldiers! The constitution which you swore to maintain, no longer exists. The Marseillois, and a troop of seditious people have attacked the palace of the Thuilleries:

the national and Swiss guards made a vigorous resistance, but their ammunition failing, they were obliged to surrender. The Swiss have been massacred. The king, queen, and all the royal family, fled to the national assembly, whom the seditious, presenting themselves with fire and sword, have compelled to decree the suspension of the king; and this the assembly have done to save his life. Citizens, you have no longer any representatives; the national assembly are enslaved; your armies have lost their chief, *Petion* reigns; the savage *Danton* and his satellites are masters. Now, soldiers, choose: do you wish to re-establish the inheritor of the crown upon the throne, or will you have *Petion* for king?"

"The very next day the army, whose anger had been allowed to cool, appeared dissatisfied at the commissioners being arrested; and tumultuous groups, chiefly composed of the members of the club of Sedan, gathered about the house in which they were confined. A report was spread that *Dumouriez*, after taking the new oath, and administering it to his army, had gone to Valenciennes to concert with the commissioners who had been sent thither, on marching to deliver their colleagues.

"M. de la Fayette finding that he was deserted, and deprived of every means of saving the constitution, now only thought of saving himself and his friends. He quitted the kingdom by the forest of Bouillon, in the evening of the 19th of August, accompanied by MM. *Bisieux de Puzay*, *Alexander Lameth*, *La Tour Maubourg*, their aid-de-camps, and his own, to the number of nineteen."

It is well known that the sedition and tumult of the 10th of August, was chiefly contrived and managed by the commune, or common-council, of the corporation of Paris, with the connivance of a large party in the legislative body. The mayor was not unwillingly put under arrest, and was set at liberty as soon as there was any wish for the return of order. Brissot and the Girondists, desirous of extinguishing this factious power of the common council, passed a decree for dissolving it, hoping that a new election would substitute, in many instances, more governable men. To this decree the common-council never conformed; and the legislative body had not the power to enforce it; but it occasioned that division between the Girondists and the party of Robespierre, which had the upper hand in the common-council, eventually so fatal to the republican cause in France. The state of Paris at the close of August 1792, is thus described:

"The ministers themselves, perpetually

attered in the exercise of the executive power, by the enterprises of the commune, which were favoured only by *Danton*, had complained to the assembly. It is true, that as a punishment for their audacity, they were declared *suspected*, and marked out for popular vengeance, by placards stuck up about the streets; and *Roland*, notwithstanding all his popularity, was summoned by *Robespierre* to the bar of the council-general.

"The commune did not confine themselves to these petty means, which *Marat*, one of their principal members, called *demi-measures*. He had computed, and daily repeated in his paper, that there remained 300,000 heads to be cut off, in order to consolidate the revolution, liberty, the sovereignty of the people, &c. It was more blood that this monster wanted, and the commune did not let him wait long for it.

"It was heard at Paris, on the 1st of September, that Verdun was besieged, and that it was not provided with any means of defence. The Jacobins, quick in taking advantage of every occasion, thought only of turning the general alarm, spread by this news, in favour of the commune. Their emissaries, mixing with the crowded groups formed at the Palais Royal, and in all the public places, shouted *treason*, and maintained that the Duke of Brunswick would never have dared to penetrate so far into the French territories, if he had not entered into a secret treaty with some members of the executive council, and even with the assembly. Several vague denunciations, but all tending to the same end, were made on the same day to the council-general of the commune; and when *Robespierre* thought that the credulity of his auditors was sufficiently raised to admit the grossest impositions, he darted to the tribune, as if transported with indignation and patriotism. 'No one, then,' said he, 'dares to name the traitors! If that be the case, for the good of the people I will name them. I denounce the libicide *Brissot*, the Gironde faction, and the corrupt commission of the twenty-one of the national assembly. I denounce them for having sold France to *Brunswick*, and for having received in advance the price of their treachery. I engage to produce to-morrow the proof of this execrable plot.'

"In the night of September 1st, *Danton* assembled at his house the greatest villains of the Jacobin club and of the commune, and settled with them definitively the plan of all the crimes which were to sully the following days: those days of blood and horror, the remembrance of which would alone suffice to stamp a lasting shame on the revolution of France, and to devote the authors of it to the execration of posterity."

Vol. VIII. The comparison, or rather contrast, of *Danton* and *Roland*, may serve as a specimen of this volume.

"*Danton* detested *Roland*, whose disinterested principles were a restraint upon him, whose popularity raised his jealousy, and it was not his fault that this minister did not make one of the victims in the massacres of the 23d of September. *Roland* was not ignorant of this, but he was incapable of avenging himself by the same means, even if they had been placed in his hands. This man had neither a bad heart nor a factious spirit, but he was a senseless enthusiast in the cause of the revolution; a fanatic republican, whose brain had been turned by the flattery of the people; still, however, he retained a certain share of probity, and he carried the austerity of his manners so far as to make himself the object of ridicule. *Danton*, on the other hand, was a shallow, dauntless, and ferocious villain, in reality no more a republican than a royalist; his avarice was insatiable, and, as he had no other means of feeding it but by the produce of his crimes, he became of course a zealous partizan of a revolution which gave its sanction to them all. Such was the quality of his patriotism. The dispute concerning the secret expences, had redoubled his hatred against *Roland*, whom he regarded as the cause of that dispute, from the strict form in which he had drawn up his account; but as that form had been universally approved of, and *Roland* was at the same time extolled to the skies by the people, and by the majority of the assembly, he was too prudent to attack him personally, and contented himself for the present with letting *Marat* loose upon him."

The narrative is brought down to the death of the king. Some notes accompany each volume, and the ninth consists chiefly of justificatory documents. The translation is so unusually free from gallicisms, that one would suspect it often to have been composed in English.

This history, notwithstanding the party-spirit, or partiality, which pervades it, is very valuable; and forms probably the best extant narrative of the revolution of France. The notorious facts are clearly told, conveniently arranged, prudently selected, and wisely proportioned: the little is not made great, nor the great little, in men or events. Curious intelligence has been obtained, and satisfactory vouchers are given for most of the re-statements. The period which it includes, is perhaps of all others, in human affairs, the most interesting decennium. The discussions and transactions involve the most important concerns of human society; and they produce a corresponding participation. The events seem imagined and arranged by some great tragedian, a Shakspeare or a Schiller, so

as to open at first upon the gayest paradise of hope, and step by step to proceed to alarm, to danger, to disappointment, to ruin, to despair. So great is the cause, supported or opposed, that individual

champions scarcely attract the notice they deserve. Like the colossal statue of Arona, which eludes attention, among the mountains and islands, and cataracts and tempests, of the Lago Maggiore.

ART. XIII. *Historical and political Memoirs of the Reign of Louis XVI. from his Marriage to his Death.* By JOHN LEWIS SOULAVIE, the Elder. Translated from the French. 8vo. 6 vols.

PERHAPS no period in the history of the world ever produced richer materials for the inspection of the philosopher, than the reign of the unfortunate Louis XVI. The most turbulent times are always the most interesting: wars and revolutions are better suited to the purpose of the historian, who would agitate and impassion his reader, than insipid ages passed in peace, and abstraction from civil commotion. How dull appear the peaceful annals of the Chinese: how inferior the solicitude felt for the unwarlike Italians, compared with that which we imbibe for the ancient Greeks; although opulence, refinement, culture, art, populousness, magnitude of territory, are all, perhaps, on the side of the modern democracies and tyrannies.

Of the innumerable publications which have appeared on the subject of the French Revolution, and its history, that of Mr. Bertrand, as yet promises to be least incomplete. When the present work came before us in a long series of volumes, by an eye-witness of the scenes he relates, by one who had access (as he tells us) to principal actors in the conspicuous scenes of the revolution, to the secret papers of the king, and to the authentic documents of ministerial archives, we hoped to find much new information, and to trace many concealed causes. Our expectations have been miserably disappointed. Mr. John Lewis Soulavie has contrived to fill six large octavo volumes with every thing but what is immediately connected with his principal subject. The most stupendous events are passed over in half a dozen words, and whole chapters are filled with false accounts of Lord Chatham and Mr. Burke. That time, which should have been devoted to the development of French cabals, is employed in relating the intrigues of Struensee, and the misfortunes of Matilda.

The comparison of Richelieu with Necker may serve to display both the principles and style of our author.

"The life of Richelieu and that of Necker are alike, as they relate to perpetual disputes with the nobility; but the former only delivered up individuals to the commissions that were devoted to him, while the latter united them in a mass with the democracy. Richelieu was the regulator of his own destruction; and Necker confined himself to an assembly, which sometimes flattered and sometimes ridiculed him. The former only aimed at the life of his individual enemies; he did not destroy the order of nobility: the latter, wishing to concentrate the constitutional power of the nobility, of the second order of the state, in the compass of a chamber, destroyed the forms of government. Richelieu punished individual facts and injuries; Necker annihilated integral parts of the state, as ancient as the French monarchy itself. Richelieu, being a true statesman, was not an enemy of the protestants, in his quality of cardinal of the church of Rome. He leagued with the protestants of Germany against the house of Austria, in directing the towns to be burnt in Vivarais, the bosom of my country; in commanding in person on that strange expedition; in destroying the Rochelois; in hastening the misfortunes of Charles I. who sent them ambassadors and supplies; and in saying 'that Charles I. should soon learn that he ought not to despise him'; and endeavoured to conciliate, by kind actions, the ministers of the persecuted French protestants: while Mr. Necker, more inveterate against the clergy, one of the three columns of ancient France, called in to his assistance the French presbyterians, composed of forty thousand rectors, who humbled the superiors of that order, overthrew the hierarchy, and abolished the ancient episcopacy. Richelieu destroyed the protestant religion, to establish the king in absolute power; and Mr. Necker destroyed the clergy, to reduce it.

"Both the Cardinal and the Genevan, after such daring enterprises, each according to his plan, must of course be calumniated by enraged enemies, and applauded by friends. Each of them felt the necessity of distributing writings, or *political testaments*, to defend, justify, and praise their own operations; but in the cardinal's testament we read, that 'he thought proper to burden the people with such contributions, that they might never depart from their dependance:' while the latter ruined France, rather than consent to



enforce them; so much was that part of the nation become the object of his attention.

"These two immortal men have each left some relations, or descendants, who are anxious for the support of their doctrine; both have published, in the fervour of their opinions, some circumstantial works, to defend and propagate it; but the result of their turbulent and respective administrations is such, that the weak Louis XIII. was the instrument of the former, to found the monarchy of Louis XIV.; and the weak Louis XVI. was the instrument of the latter, to destroy it. The former had succeeded in employing the docility of the nobility, to vanquish their untractable brethren. The latter failed in it, because the nature of the people is to destroy without establishing, and to bring every thing to a level; and because he could never find in France better instruments to support himself in the situation to which he was elevated.

"The former, in fine, overturned a limited monarchy, in which the power was divided between the king, the nobility, the state-countries, and the states-general: and the latter, notwithstanding the artificial power of his public opinion, and the real power of the *tiers-etat*, which was so long at his disposal, could not re-establish the monarchy in its moderate and anterior form. What he abused and destroyed was so completely done, that it is probable France can never recover it by re-organization. An ephemeral monarchy, founded by a superabundance of popular suffrages, unnaturally assembled by Mr. Necker, was the first consequence of the destructions of 1789, and of his attempts to paralyse the chief and the first orders of the state. Since that epoch, we have seen France devoured by anarchy; we have seen her pass from one government to another, endeavouring every where to find liberty and prosperity, and some solid foundations. She is now under the government of the eighth year (1799), which certainly, of all that we have yet experienced, is the most analogous to our manners and qualifications, as well as to our faults.

"We must now hear the cardinal and the Genevese minister relative to the effect of their labours. 'I die,' said Richelieu, on his death-bed, to Louis XIII. 'with the satisfaction of leaving your majesty's government at the highest degree of reputation: your enemies are discouraged, and in the last state of dejection.' Mr. Necker retired, leaving the king a prisoner at the Tuileries, and his enemies at the head of the state."

The fifth volume is entirely filled with the revolutions of Geneva. We find no account of the Federation in the Champ de Mars; the king's flight is hardly mentioned; the particulars of his trial are unaccountably suppressed; the very

taking of the Bastille is only thus hinted, and is no where else mentioned.

"At Paris a militia was formed, and the cockade mounted. At Versailles the national assembly decree, that the dismissed ministers Mr. Necker, St. Priest, La Lucerne, and Montmorin carried with them the confidence of the nation. The *tocsin* again sounds at Paris, the people take up arms, besiege the Bastille, and murder the governor; the king, alarmed, proceeds to the National Assembly; resigns the remains of his authority, and assumes the national cockade at Paris. Mr. Necker is recalled. Twice retired from the court; twice driven into exile, he again appears after the taking of the Bastille; but the very day he is seen in the midst of the municipality, he is insulted by the districts of the capital, whose creation had been his most darling work."

One would hardly have supposed it possible that an annalist of the French Revolution should have thought the natural events insufficiently stimulant; and should have recurred to prodigy and miracle as resources of astonishment, and means of impression. Yet the following anecdote of the Duke of Orleans is given with all the gravity of belief, with all the solemnity of systematic credulity.

"All the present generation may recollect with what enthusiasm persons of the first rank, and the Parisians of the best quality, received the famous adventurer Cagliostro, who enabled Cardinal Rohan to sup with the deceased M. d'Alenbert, the king of Prussia, and M. de Voltaire, who had died eight years before. He found means also to persuade his eminence, that he, Cagliostro, had been present with Jesus Christ, at the marriage of Cana in Gallilee.

"All the present generation may likewise recollect a man named Bleton, who had the art of persuading men that he could perceive a spring an hundred feet under ground. It may also be remembered that the Sonnambulists conversed as well with the dead as with the living. I have endeavoured by painful and persevering researches, to discover the invisible agent, who thus infected our capital with his mysticisms; who sent us such men as Mesmer, Saint Germain, and Cagliostro; and who provided the latter with those large sums, which enabled him to display so much pomp and magnificence in his mode of life.

"Mirabeau, who was then at the court of Berlin, appears to me to have divined the most probable cause. He thus expressed himself with regard to Cagliostro: 'He is connected with a certain society, who through his means hope to attain an object, highly advantageous to them.'

"The duke of Orleans, as well as Cardinal Rohan, had his Cagliostro: the following account of it is given nearly in his own words.

"One day, on entering my study, I found a man there of an austere and remarkable countenance, who told me, that if I pleased he would undertake to shew me things ineffable. He said also, that he would even carry his zeal in my behalf so far, as to raise the devil, and that I should learn from him whatever I wished to know concerning futurity. I accepted the offer. 'But, my Lord,' added he, 'you must have the courage to trust yourself alone with me; to quit all frequented roads; to enter a large pathless plain; for example, that of Villeneuve-Saint-George.' I consented to that likewise. 'This is not all,' continued he, 'you must have the courage to come at midnight, to leave your attendants at Villeneuve, and to abandon yourself wholly to my guidance.' I agreed to that condition also. We set out; I left my attendants; I entered the plain: the night was extremely dark. I conquered the emotions of terror with which the sight of the spectres I met inspired me. I listened to their admonition, their prophecies; I promised to receive my conductor favourably as often as he should return, and a ring was given me. 'Keep this ring carefully,' said the infernal spirit; 'as long as it remains in your possession, it shall be to you the token of prosperity and happiness; but from the moment it is taken from you, your doom will be sealed.' This same guide, on his returning with me, refused five hundred pounds which I offered him, and took only fifty; promised to come back; has kept his word, and still continues with the same zeal to give me his honest advice."

"In saying these words, the duke of Orleans uncovered his bosom, and shewed his ring.

"It is now evident, what means, towards the approach of the revolution, the infernal spirits that directed the whole, employed to insure or accelerate its motion.

"Some of those means were of a nature to impose on the credulity and weakness of the first prince of the blood, and induce him to negotiate a treaty, that he thought concluded with the prince of darkness. The Duke of Orleans did not explain the conditions of the treaty, but I should not be surprised if he were promised success in his enterprises, as long as he preserved the ring: nor should I wonder if he preserved it to the fatal period when it was taken from him at the Place of the Revolution.

"The Duke of Orleans was ambitious, despotic, and vindictive: his passions were as violent, as his understanding was weak and feeble, as soon as he found the instant of gratifying them. Mirabeau with much truth observed, that it was in the power even of impotence to produce the crime he had

conceived. He was persuaded, that the revolution had a certain and decided motion, from which it was impossible it could ever deviate, and which in the end could not fail to be favourable to him. Probably the demon of the plain of Villeneuve-Saint-George, had assured him that it was so. Entreated to quit his temporising system, which could only lead him to the scaffold, and solicited to that effect by some distinguished characters who were really attached to him, he never had the courage to execute their wishes. 'Either be a decided Cromwell,' said M\*\* to him, 'or consider the scaffold as your certain fate.' He constantly refused to adopt the resolute measures, that were capable of changing his destiny; he heard without emotion, the prophecy of an ignominious death; the devil perhaps, had promised him one in the bed of honour. His father, who feared him, thought him capable of every crime. On the whole, the court of Versailles and the duke of Orleans were equally timid; for the queen and the duke, thinking themselves proscribed by each other, were inspired with the same degree of mistrust; and each being at the head of an opposite party, mutually led the other to the scaffold, the minds of both being inflamed by the pamphlets, false reports, and infamous satires that daily appeared. Certain ambassadors, emissaries from foreign powers, enemies to France, greatly contributed to their ruin."

The licentious accounts of the nocturnal revels of the queen, and of the duke of Orleans, may suit the meridian of Paris; but the English taste will reprobate details too similar to the descriptions of Suetonius.

Throughout the work the changes which have taken place are represented as disadvantageous. With this sentiment we cannot wholly coincide. That an inhabitant of Holland, or Switzerland, should deprecate the French Revolution as the immediate cause of his evils, is not surprising. To those countries it has been merely injurious: but to assert that France has no wise been benefited, is to be rash and inattentive. Despotic regulations, unjust laws, even marked the interregnum of Robespierre; but in general the legislative changes have diminished the burdens, and have added greatly to the liberties of the people. The abolition of the feudal system, which, even under the present retroactive and counter-revolutionary administration, is in no degree restored, compensates for heavy transient evils. Property is subdivided; equality diffused; the wages of labour augmented; in-

struction facilitated, toleration conceded; the lines of advancement multiplied, and open to the talent of every one. The publicity of legislation, if not independence, is established: an elective, if not a self-willed constitution, is introduced. The friends of liberty have been much too sanguine in their calculations: they expected that a nation inured to slavery should instantaneously shake off its fetters, and act as though habituated to its new situation. Does the bird nursed in the cage, know where to fly when set free; or how to provide for its numerous wants? But we are not therefore to conclude, that nature intended it for captivity.

If foreign importance, and consequence is to be reckoned among national advantages, when did the influence of France predominate so much as at the present time? When was her peace more glorious: when her warfare more formidable? Besides it is probably an error to consider the French revolution as already finished. The present military despotism cannot always last; especially if peace sets in. That once removed, it may safely be asserted that no government will be permanent in France, which has not for its basis the rights of the people. Many erroneous doctrines have been propagated, anarchy has been mistaken for freedom; and irreligion for philosophy; but political truths have been proclaimed, which are taking deep root in Europe, and which

no exertions of despotism can now eradicate. Though the French have been compelled by an usurper to dissemble or retract their political creed, that creed is not therefore the less true. Because Galileo had to renounce, as heresy, his theory of the planetary system; are men to believe him in an error? As durable as his theory, will be some of the political axioms proclaimed by the French revolution.

The real principles (if we may so prostitute the expression) of our author, may best be inferred from the circumstance, that at one period he enjoyed, he tells us, the confidence of the king's friends; at another of the constitutionalists; at a third of the Girondists; and finally, of the props of Robespierre. His history does not descend so far as the Directory; we should else find him on good terms with them, as he wishes to be with the present rulers. In recommending the return of royalty, he is industrious to conciliate the powers in being, by the doctrine of passive obedience; and by indirect hints to restore the *ancient regime* in the person of Bonaparte. Him he assimilates to Louis XIV, whose reign he preconizes as the happiest period in French history.

Prolux without being minute; emphatic without being significant, the style of Soulaie is as tasteless, as his matter is ordinary and ill-distributed: the skill of the translator merited a more respectable task.

ART. XIV. *History of the British Expedition to Egypt; to which is subjoined a Sketch of the present State of that Country, and its Means of Defence: illustrated with Maps, and a Portrait of Sir Ralph Abercromby.* By ROBERT THOMAS WILSON, Lieutenant Colonel of Cavalry. 4to. pp. 375.

TO the Duke of York, Sir Robert Wilson has inscribed his excellent history of the British Expedition to Egypt. It is written with unaffected propriety and diligent precision; and it contains apparently a very faithful and complete narrative of a campaign, which has lifted high the military glory of the country. It is fortunate for the literary world that to become the historian of the Egyptian army should have fallen to the lot of a man whose spirited veracity disdains any mean suppression of blame or praise, and whose intelligent and circumspect observation selects so much practical and useful fact. His account embraces events rendered in-

teresting by their direct bearing on the fortunes of the British empire; by the strangeness of the habits and scenery among which the characters and transactions occur; and by the classical celebrity of the place of action, which associates in every imagination, great past exploits with the recent incidents, and stations as it were on the colossal ruins around, spectres of the illustrious dead to gaze at the conflicts of their successors for the prize of courage and of empire.

The outlines of this narrative are already so familiar to every one from the newspaper accounts, which have progressively been given, that it can hardly be necessary to supply a table of con-

tents for the volume. A few extracts relative to the more remarkable catastrophe of the narrative will not displease the reader. The following account is given of that action in which Sir Ralph Abercrombie received his mortal wound.

"The enemy, covered by the unequal surface of the ground, had advanced unperceived as far as the videttes, and continued to press on with them and the retiring piquets of infantry to the main position, with all possible celerity; one column directed itself upon the ruins where the 58th were posted, the front of which was considerably more extensive than the front of the regiment; but some parts of the wall still standing, it admitted of the regiment's dividing itself, but scarcely notwithstanding did the troops fill up the different openings. Colonel Houston, who commanded, faintly perceived the column of the enemy advancing with beat of drums and huzzas; but fearing lest the English piquets might be preceding, he allowed it to approach so close, that the glazed hats were clearly distinguished, when he ordered the grenadiers to fire, which was followed by the whole regiment, and repeated with several rounds. These continued and well-directed discharges not only checked but made the enemy's column retire quickly into a hollow, some distance in their rear, when it shortly afterwards wheeled to the right, and endeavoured to force round the redoubt in front of its left, with another column, directing its march upon the battery. The 28th regiment stationed there, opened a heavy fire on that part of the enemy which attempted to storm the redoubt in front; but the main body of the two columns now joined to a third, forced in behind the redoubt, and whilst some remained to attack it thus in the rear, the rest penetrated into the ruins. Colonel Crowdy, who commanded the left of the 58th, observing their advance through the openings, wheeled back two companies, and after two or three rounds of fire advanced on the enemy with the bayonet. At this instant, the 23d regiment appeared to support, having moved for that purpose from its station, and the 42d also advancing on the exterior side of the ruins, to cover the opening on the left of the redoubt, so cut off the troops which had entered, that after a severe loss they were obliged to surrender. The 28th regiment had presented, as well as the 58th, the extraordinary spectacle of troops fighting at the same time to the front, flanks and rear. Although thus surrounded, the 28th regiment remained fixed to the platform of the parapet, and preserving its order, conti-

nued a contest unexampled before this day. Colonel Chambers had the honour of commanding, Colonel Paget having been wounded at the commencement of the action. The advance of the 42d relieved the 28th for a moment, from this unequal attack; but as that regiment approached the right of the redoubt, the first line of the enemy's cavalry, passing by the left of the redoubt, floundering over the tents and in the holes dug in the encampment of the 28th regiment, charged en masse, and overwhelmed the 42d; yet though broken, this gallant corps was not defeated; individually it resisted, and the conduct of each man exalted still more the high character of the regiment, Colonel Spencer, who with the flank companies of the 40th, had taken his station in the intervals of the ruins, was for some seconds afraid to order his men to fire, lest he should destroy the 42d, so intermixed with the enemy. But the cavalry passing on, and directing itself against that interval, he was obliged to command the firing, which stopped the cavalry's advance; yet such a feeble force must instantly have been overpowered, if at this critical moment, General Stuart, with the foreign brigade from the second line, had not advanced in the most perfect order, and poured in such a heavy and well directed fire, that nothing could withstand it, and the enemy fled or perished. It was in this charge of the cavalry, that the gallant Sir Ralph Abercrombie, always anxious to be the most forward in danger, received his mortal wound. On the first alarm, he had mounted his horse, and finding the right was seriously engaged, proceeded thither. When he came near the ruins, he dispatched his aids-de-camp with some orders to different brigades, and whilst thus alone some dragoons of the French cavalry penetrated to the spot, and he was thrown from his horse. One of them, from the tassel of his sword, supposed to be an officer, then rode at him, and attempted to cut him down; but just as the point of the sword was falling, his natural heroism, and the energy of the moment, so invigorated the veteran general, that he seized the sword, and wrested it from the hand; at that instant the officer was bayoneted by a soldier of the 42d. Sir Ralph Abercrombie did not know the moment of his receiving the wound in the thigh, but complained severely of the contusion in his breast, supposed to be given by the hilt of the sword in the scuffle. Sir Sydney Smith was the first officer who came to Sir Ralph, and who by an accident had broke his own sword, which Sir Ralph observing, he instantly presented to him the one he had so gloriously acquired.\*

"Sir Ralph, as the cavalry was by this

\* This sword Sir Sydney Smith means to place on his monument.

A singular circumstance happened almost immediately afterwards. Major Hall, aid-de-camp to General Craddock, whilst going with orders had his horse killed. Seeing Sir Sydney, he begged to mount his orderly man's horse. As Sir Sydney was turning round to bid him give it to Major Hall, a cannon ball struck off the dragoon's head. "This," exclaimed Sir Sydney, "is destiny. The horse, Major Hall, is yours."

time repulsed, walked to the redoubt on the right of the guards, from which he could command a view of the whole field of battle. The French, although driven out of the camp, by no means gave up the contest on the right. A second charge of cavalry was attempted by their reserve against the foreign brigade, but completely failed. After this their infantry did not keep any longer in a body, but acted *en tirailleur*, except that a battalion maintained still a little *flèche* in front of the redoubt, on each flank of which republican colours were planted.

"The ammunition of the English was by this time totally exhausted, and the regiments of the reserve were obliged to remain without firing a shot, some not having one round left, and for a time there was only one cartouch for the guns in the battery. Whilst such was the state of the contest on the right, the attack on the centre had also continued. As soon as day dawned, a column of grenadiers had advanced, supported by a heavy line of infantry, to the assault of this part of the position. The guards posted there at first threw out their flankers to oppose them, but these being driven in, when the column approached very near, General Ludlow directed the brigade to fire, which they did with the greatest precision. The French general seeing the echelon formation, had advanced to turn the left flank of the guards, but the officer commanding there wheeled back instantly some companies, which checked their movement, and the advance of General Coote with his brigade, compelled them to retreat. Finding this effort ineffectual, they then dispersed as sharp shooters, and kept up a very destructive fire, at the same time that the French cannon played incessantly. The left of the British was never seriously engaged; it was only exposed to partial musquetry, and a distant cannonade. The French, on the right, during the want of ammunition among the British, had attempted to approach again close to the redoubt, and some of them also having exhausted theirs, absolutely pelted stones from the ditch at the 28th, who returned these unusual, yet not altogether harmless instruments of violence, as a sergeant of the 28th was killed, by one breaking through his forehead; but the grenadier company moving out, the assailants ran away, the sharp shooters in front left the hollows they were covered by, and the battalion also evacuated the *flèche*.

"At length General Menou finding that every one of his movements had failed, and that the British lines had suffered no serious impression, to justify the hopes of an eventual success, determined on a retreat. His lines retired in very good order, under the heights of their position; but fortunately for them, there was such a want on the part of the English, of ammunition, otherwise

the slaughter would at least have been double, as the ground they had to pass over presented a glacis for the farthest range of shot. As it was, the cannon on the left did much execution, and also the king's cutters on the right, which had during the whole action most gallantly remained in their station, although exposed to a body of the enemy within half musquet shot, expressly firing at them, and who had the advantage of a considerable elevation. A corps of French cavalry, posted at the bridge on the canal of Alexandria, to protect the right flanks of their lines, and to prevent a movement from the British left, deserves equally to be mentioned for the steadiness with which it maintained its ground, although the shot plunged constantly into the ranks. At about ten o'clock, A. M. the action ceased; but it was not till the defeat of the French was thus absolutely assured that Sir Ralph Abercrombie, who had remained in the battery, and where several times he had nearly been killed by cannon shot, could be prevailed upon to quit the field. He had continued walking about, paying no attention to his wound, only occasionally complaining of a pain in his breast, from the contusion. Officers who went to him in the course of the action, returned without knowing from his manner or appearance, that he had been wounded, and many only ascertained it by seeing the blood trickling down his clothes. At last his spirit, when exertion was no longer necessary, yielded to nature; he became faint, was placed in a hammock, and borne to the dépôt, cheered by the feeling expressions and blessings of the soldiers as he passed: he was then put into a boat, accompanied by his aid-de-camp and esteemed friend, Sir Thomas Dyer, and carried to Lord Keith's ship.

"It was on the morning of the 29th, that the death of Sir Ralph Abercrombie was known; he had borne painful operations with the greatest firmness, but the ball could not be extracted. At length a mortification ensued, and he died in the evening of the 20th, having always expressed the greatest solicitude for the army, and irritating his mind from the first moment, with the anxiety to resume his command. His loss was a severe one; his death universally mourned: he was beloved by the troops for his kindness and attention to their welfare, and his courage was their pride and example. His age, combined with his services, exertions and manners, rendered him an object of enthusiastic admiration; but every eulogium is unworthy of his fame, except conveyed in the pathetic and elegant sentiments of his friend and successor:

"Were it permitted for a soldier to regret  
"any one who has fallen in the service of  
"his country, I might be excused for la-  
"menting him more than any other person;



"but it is some consolation to those who tenderly loved him, that as his life was honourable, so was his death glorious. His memory will be recorded in the annals of his country, will be sacred to every British soldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful posterity."

"Sir Ralph Abercromby's body was carried in the *Flora* frigate to Malta, and buried in the north-east bastion of the fortifications of La Valette.

"A black marble tomb-stone laid horizontally, marks the place of interment, on which is the following inscription, written by the Librarian of the Order of Malta:

Memoriae  
Radulphi Abercrombi, Scoti,  
Equitis Ordine Balneo dicti.  
Viri  
Probitate  
Mentis, Magnitudine, Animo Maximo,  
Et Armis in Bello Americano, atque  
Hollandico  
Clarissimi:  
Quem  
Georgius III. Magnae Britanniae Rex,  
Populis Plaudentibus,  
Britannici Terrestris Exercitus Ad Mare  
Mediter.  
Ducem Supremum Dixit.  
Quo Munere,  
Expeditionem Aegyptiacam Conficiens,  
Oram Aegypti Universam  
Gallorum Copiis Strenuiss. undique  
Adversantibus,  
Uno Impetu Occupavit: Tenuit:  
Idemque Progrediens  
Earum Conatus non Semel Fregit:  
Compressit:  
Donec, Signis cum Gallo conlatis  
Cruento Praelio ad Alexandriam commisso  
Anno MDCCL. Die xxi. M. Martii  
In Prima Aëre in ipso Victoriae Sinu  
Letale Vultus Femore Excipiens  
Magno Suorum Desiderio, Extinctus est.  
Die xxviii ejusdem Mensis, Anno Aetatis  
Suae 68.  
Dux, Rei Bellicae Peritia,  
Providentia in Consulendo, Fortitudine in  
Exsequendo,  
Ac Fide Integra in Regni et Regis Gloriam,  
Spectatissimus.  
Hunc, Rex, hunc, Magna Britannia  
Flevit."

The narrative of those transactions at Jaffa, which are as yet apparently so little known on the continent as not to have been there discussed, or retold with such apologetic modifications, as may be expected from some of the Parisian historiographers, is thus given by our author:

"General Hutchinson was very angry with the Turks for still continuing the practice of mangling and cutting off the

heads of the prisoners; and the Captain Pacha, at his remonstrance, issued again very severe orders against it; but the Turks justified themselves for the massacre of the French by the massacre at Jaffa. As this act and the poisoning of the sick have never been credited, because of such enormities being so incredibly atrocious, a digression to authenticate them may not be deemed intrusively tedious; and had not the influence of power interfered, the act of accusation would have been preferred in a more solemn manner, and the damning proofs produced by penitent agents of these murders; but neither menaces, recompense, nor promises, can altogether stifle the cries of outraged humanity, and the day for retribution of justice is only delayed.

"Bonaparte having carried the town of Jaffa by assault, many of the garrison were put to the sword; but the greater part flying into the mosques, and imploring mercy from their pursuers, were granted their lives; and let it be well remembered, that an exasperated army in the moment of revenge, when the laws of war justified the rage, yet heard the voice of pity, received its impression, and proudly refused to be any longer the executioners of an unresisting enemy. Soldiers of the Italian army, this is a laurel wreath worthy of your fame, a trophy of which the subsequent treason of an individual shall not deprive you!

"Three days afterwards, Bonaparte, who had expressed much resentment at the compassion manifested by his troops, and determined to relieve himself from the maintenance and care of three thousand eight hundred prisoners, ordered them to be marched to a rising ground near Jaffa; where a division of French infantry formed against them. When the Turks had entered into their fatal alignment, and the mournful preparations were completed, the signal gun fired. Volleys of musquetry and grape instantly played against them; and Bonaparte, who had been regarding the scene through a telescope, when he saw the smoke ascending, could not restrain his joy, but broke out into exclamations of approval; indeed, he had just reason to dread the refusal of his troops thus to dishonour themselves. Kleber had remonstrated in the most strenuous manner, and the officer of the *etat major*, who commanded (for the general to whom the division belonged, was absent) even refused to execute the order without a written instruction: but Bonaparte was too cautious, and sent Berthier to enforce obedience.

"When the Turks had all fallen, the French troops humanely endeavoured to put a period to the sufferings of the wounded, but some time elapsed before the bayonet could finish what the fire had not destroyed, and probably many languished days in agony. Several French officers, by whom partly these details are furnished, declared,

that this was a scene, the retrospect of which tormented their recollection, and that they could not reflect on it without horror, accustomed as they had been to sights of cruelty.

"These were the prisoners whom Assalini, in his very able work on the plague, alludes to, when he says that for three days, the Turks shewed no symptoms of that disease, and it was their putrifying remains which produced the pestilential malady, which he describes as afterwards making such ravages in the French army.

"Their bones still lie in heaps, and are shewn to every traveller who arrives; nor can they be confounded with those who perished in the assault, since this field of butchery lies a mile from the town.

"Such a fact should not, however, be alleged without some proof, or leading circumstance stronger than assertion being produced to support it; but there would be a want of generosity in naming individuals, and branding them to the latest posterity with infamy, for obeying a command when their submission became an act of necessity, since the whole army did not mutiny against the execution; therefore, to establish further the authenticity of the relation, this only can be mentioned, that it was Bonn's division which fired, and thus every one is afforded the opportunity of satisfying themselves respecting the truth, by enquiring of officers serving in the different brigades composing the division.

"The next circumstance is of a nature which requires indeed the most particular details to establish, since the idea can scarce be entertained that the commander of an army should order his own countrymen (or if not immediately such, those amongst whom he had been naturalized) to be deprived of existence, when in a state which required the kindest consideration: but the annals of France record the frightful crimes of a Robespierre, a Carriere, and historical truth must now recite one equal to any which has blackened its page.

"Bonaparte finding that his hospitals at Jaffa were crowded with sick, sent for a physician, whose name should be inscribed in letters of gold, but from weighty reasons cannot be here inserted: on his arrival he entered into a long conversation with him respecting the danger of contagion, concluding at last with the remark, that something must be done to remedy the evil, and that the destruction of the sick at present in the hospital was the only measure which could be adopted. The physician, alarmed at the proposal, bold in the confidence of virtue and the cause of humanity, remonstrated vehemently, representing the cruelty as well as the atrocity of such a murder; but finding that Bonaparte persevered and menaced, he indignantly left the tent, with this memorable observation: "Neither my principles,

nor the character of my profession, will allow me to become a human butcher, and, General, if such qualities as you insinuate, are necessary to form a great man, I thank my God that I do not possess them."

"Bonaparte was not to be diverted from his object by moral considerations; he persevered, and found an apothecary, who (dreading the weight of power, but who since has made an atonement to his mind, by unequivocally confessing the fact) consented to become his agent, and to administer poison to the sick. Opium at night was distributed in gratifying food, the wretched unsuspecting victims banqueted, and in a few hours five hundred and eighty soldiers, who had suffered so much for their country, perished thus miserably by the order of its idol.

"Is there a Frenchman whose blood does not chill with horror at the recital of such a fact? Surely the manes of these murdered unoffending people must be now hovering round the seat of government, and

"If a doubt should still exist as to the veracity of this statement, let the members of the Institute at Cairo be asked what passed in their sitting after the return of Bonaparte from Syria; they will relate that the same virtuous physician, who refused to become the destroyer of those committed to his protection, accused Bonaparte of high treason in the full assembly, against the honour of France, her children, and humanity; that he entered into the full details of the poisoning of the sick, and the massacre of the garrison, aggravating these crimes by charging Bonaparte with strangling previously at Rosetta, a number of French and Copts, who were ill of the plague; thus proving that this disposal of his sick was a premeditated plan, which he wished to introduce into general practice. In vain Bonaparte attempted to justify himself; the members sat petrified with terror, and almost doubted whether the scene passing before their eyes, was not illusion. Assuredly all these proceedings will not be found in the minutes of the Institute; no, Bonaparte's policy foresaw the danger, and power produced the erasure; but let no man, calculating on the force of circumstances which may prevent such an avowal as is solicited, presume on this to deny the whole; there are records which remain, and which in due season will be produced. In the interim, this representation will be sufficient to stimulate enquiry; and, Frenchmen, your honour is indeed interested in the examination!"

How should any one visit Egypt, and not be struck with the durability of that species of fame which results from piling the immoveable trophies of architecture? Temples, which have survived

the sacred books of their priests, and the very memory of their divinities, still astonish the natives of London and Paris by the massiness of their granite pillars, by the hieroglyphics inscribed in vain on their architraves, and by the tall whole obelisks which giants seem to have planted at their portals.

"The exterior walls of Old Alexandria, flanked with many old mouldering towers, form beautiful ruins, pleasing the eye even in the midst of desolation. The circumference of this wall must be near four miles.

"In the centre of the sides, in a regular line, and fixed in horizontally, at the distance of about ten yards from each other, are large pillars of granite, but whether so placed for ornament, or to strengthen the wall, is not evident: the inference is, however, direct, that these divided columns formerly belonged to a city much more ancient, and which probably was the magnificent Alexandria, founded by Alexander the Great, a city without a rival in the world before or since. At a distance these projecting points resemble guns run out from the broadside of a ship.

"Within this wall are the massive ruins of the Temple of the Sun; and many gigantic pillars of granite remain, which impress with the highest idea of its former grandeur: there are also many large fragments laying (*lying*) in every part, of which Scavans attempt an appropriation to their original buildings.

"The gate of Rosetta is an elegant specimen of the Saracen taste in architecture. On the space between the walls and the sea are laying (*lying*) innumerable blocks and pillars of granite, porphyry, and marble; the ruins also, probably, of the ancient Alexandria, and which seems (*seem*) to have been made use of by the Turks as monumental stones, since this ground formed their burial place.

"About thirty yards in the rear of the French entrenchments, as before represented, stands Cleopatra's Needle, and one of equal magnitude is laying (*lying*) close by, horizontally. The French uncovered this since their arrival, the apex being only visible before. The form of these obelisks is of considerable elegance, and their magnitude is enormous, considering that each is only one piece of granite; their height is sixty-three feet, and base seven feet square; their sides are covered with hieroglyphics, which on the eastern front of the one that is upright, are much effaced by the wind.

"Tradition affirms that they ornamented the gate of Cleopatra's palace. From the quantities of marble, &c. &c. found near the spot, probably the residence of the sovereigns of Egypt was placed there. Much is it to be lamented that such a superb monument of the Egyptian expedition has not been already brought to England. The zeal of Lord Ca-

van urged an attempt, but the swell of the sea destroyed the quay he had constructed to embark it from, and the funds are so exhausted, as not to admit the formation of others; yet surely this is a project worthy the co-operation of government, and the country at large.

"This obelisk would worthily record an illustrious campaign, and animate with emulous pride the rising generation. Nor could the possession be regarded by other nations with those sentiments of regret and aversion which the pillaged treasures in the museum at Paris, notwithstanding their excellence, inspire. This trophy could not be deemed, like those, an emblem of national shame, perpetuating the memory of nefarious crimes and horrible devastation. Humanity would rather exult on seeing a monument erected which might convey instruction and example to future British armies, whilst the arts and sciences would have no cause to mourn the removal.

"The next remarkable object is Pompey's Pillar, which stands on the south-west of Alexandria, within a hundred yards of the inundation, and on the exterior of which runs the canal of Alexandria. At a distance the appearance is noble; approached closer, the pillar is lovely beyond description. The dimensions are so stupendous, as would in a rude stone excite wonder, but when the elegance of the capital, the beauty of the shaft, and the proportioned solidity of base, are combined, the eye rests on this pillar with delight, as the *chef d'œuvre* of the arts. Let imagination be raised to the utmost conception of perfection, and this, perhaps, is the unique excellence which would answer such expectation.

"Pompey's Pillar is of the Corinthian order, and eighty-eight feet six inches in height; the shaft formed of a single block of granite, retaining the finest polish, except where the wind on the north-east front has chafed a little; the surface is sixty-four feet in height, and eight feet four inches in diameter.

"At the base of the pedestal is an aperture, made by the Arabs, who, in hopes of finding money buried underneath, (the only idea attached by them to the admiration of Europeans), endeavoured to blow up the column. Not understanding the principle of mining, the explosion did no mischief to the great fabric, only exposed some loose stones under the pedestal, on one of which hieroglyphics are to be seen, and which appear to have been placed there to form a solid foundation.

"The French fearing that in time this removal of support might injure at all events the perpendicular elevation of the pillar, filled up the vacuity with cement, which, to the disgrace of the English, they broke away again, and a centinel was at last stationed to guard a monument which had remained

amongst barbarians unprotected for ages, since some officers even attempted to gratify an highly censurable vanity, by knocking off pieces from the pedestal, to present to their friends in the united kingdoms; a destructive mania, which occasioned also the fracture of the sarcophagus in the great pyramid of Cairo.

"From several grooves and pieces of iron found by a party of English sailors, who, in order to drink a bowl of punch, ascended to the top, by flying a kite, and fastening a rope round the capital, scarcely a doubt can remain of a statue having been formerly erected there; and Septimius Severus is supposed to have had that honour. A cap of liberty was substituted by the French, which probably is by this time taken down; the colours they removed themselves.

"Although this pillar was so near to the town, the French never could venture so far, in less than parties of twenty armed men; even some of these detachments were surprised by the Arabs, disarmed, stripped, *abused*, and sent in scorn back to their comrades in Alexandria.

"A French officer, who superintended the manufactories of Giza, proposed removing this column to France: probably the attempt would have proved beyond his or any other man's abilities.

"Sonnini strongly recommends the project, and predicted that the monument would only be recognized in after ages by the name of the Pillar of the French. Animated with illusions, he describes the names of the soldiers who fell in the *glorious* storm of Alexandria, as being engraved on the column already, by order of Bonaparte. Unfortunately not a character is to be discovered, and imagination would scarcely trace the Greek inscription, which is supposed to have been formerly seen on the shaft.

"The city of Alexandria is very small; the population never exceeded 6900 souls, and since the arrival of the French it is considerable diminished."

As Sir Robert Wilson attributes to Egypt a much higher statistical value than Mr. Pinkerton, and other judicious authorities, we shall transcribe the train

of speculation which appears to have guided him to this inference. To us it is far from convincing.

"As this country is now so connected with European politics, and must be an object of solicitude in every future war, a brief account of its present state, and the revolution impending, is so immediately interwoven with the former part of this work, that some remarks become necessary.

"Egypt, from its fertility, is a most valuable colony to any power; more particularly since the means of subsistence have not increased in Europe in proportion to the population,

"At present the ground yields three crops; with care these crops might be made productive of at least one third more than their present quantity; even now, after affording subsistence to 3,000,000 of inhabitants, vast supplies are sent to Arabia and Turkey\*. Barley, wheat, and rice grow almost spontaneously†; the seed of the former is generally only scattered on the earth, or rather mud, and ripens in four months. Flax, trefoil, the plant from which indigo is extracted, the carthamus, the cotton tree, and the valuable date tree, flourish throughout Egypt.

"The sugar cane grows luxuriously, and excellent sugar is manufactured. The olive tree is to be found; and the coffee tree, with attention, might certainly be introduced; in short, every thing which the wants and luxuries of Europe demand, might here be cultivated. From her locality, Egypt would soon again recover by commerce considerable splendour, if a good government did but direct the resources. Even under the beys the revenue annually amounted to 1,500,000*l.* sterling; and the French derived in addition sufficient supplies in kind for their armies.

"Africa sends to Cairo ivory, gold dust, gums, and slaves‡; Arabia her spices, with the manufactories of Persia and India. Approached so nearly to Europe, Egypt must be considered as the natural emporium for the riches of three quarters of the world, and in her own soil could rival America in any of her productions.

"No one can contemplate the buhirahs, or markets of Cairo, without being convinced

\* The best informed persons believe, that even now Egypt could moreover export above a million of quarters.

† On an average a crop of corn in Egypt yields from twenty-five to thirty measures for one; in extraordinary years, the land gives a produce of fifty for one. Instances have occurred, when one hundred and fifty times the seed sown has been reaped. The Egyptians prefer sowing barley to oats, as they find their horses live as well on it, and the land is not so much exhausted by that grain.

‡ The condition of a slave in Egypt is very different from the miserable fate of those transported into the American colonies. The misery of the Nubian terminates the moment he becomes the property of a master. As a domestic, he is even more favoured than any other, and with the Mamelukes rises to dignity, as his qualifications entitle him. The females are admitted into the houses as servants to the favourite women, where they are treated with every kindness; and where the whip never lacerates at the irritation of petulance and capricious humour. Thus even Turks may teach Europeans humanity!

of the former magnificence and extension of her establishments: then if, notwithstanding the obstacles to trade, which an arbitrary government, and insecurity of property always oppose, such was her prosperity, to what vast extension would it expand, when cherished and protected by the regulations of an adequate government? Hitherto Europeans were unacquainted with this extraordinary tract of territory; they considered Egypt as a land of desolation and disease, insulated from connexion with Asia and Africa by arid deserts, where almost inevitable death by thirst, by whirlwinds, and by robbers, menaced the traveller, and totally prevented the necessary communications of commerce. But the terrors of that desert, which has been described as so horrible, and which solitary individuals must have found frightful, are considerably diminished by the frequency of passage, and an examination into its nature.

"Water is to be found almost every where throughout on digging, and wells are already established at the different posts of the road, which supplied seven thousand souls, with nearly as many camels and oxen, in a very short interval of time. If then industry, encouraged by the temptation of gain, was applied, what difficulty could there be in transporting merchandise from Cossir to Cunei? From thence ten days only are required to the mouth of the Nile: perhaps even that dangerous boghaz might be avoided, and canals cut to unite the lakes, which might at once bring the vessels into the harbour of Alexandria.

"Cossir would probably be a better station than Suez to form the dépôt, although so much farther removed. The contrary winds, and the dangerous navigation of the Red Sea, present many difficulties to the establishment of a large port at Suez; and the want of water there seems an insurmountable barrier, unless the ancient canal, which united the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, could again be restored; a work certainly not superior to the genius and powers of the nineteenth century, but which could not be attempted in the infant state of a colony.

"There are no springs nearer to Suez than twelve miles, and those are called Moses's wells, from the probable supposition that he allowed the children of Israel to refresh themselves at them. Water is brought from thence, and deposited in tanks, which the inhabitants supplied themselves from only in times of great necessity. Few of these wells lie close together, each forming a small pool of twelve or fourteen feet across, in the broadest part, and from a foot to a foot and a half deep; their bottoms are of a slimy black colour; the taste of the water is brackish and bitter. One hundred and fifty yards from these is a fifth spring, the water of which was clearer, and better tasted, which

probably may proceed from the camels not being taken to drink there: its depth was three feet, and breadth five. The direction of these springs is to the southward of the town, and about two miles from the nearest part of the Red Sea.

"When admiral Blanket first arrived, the inhabitants shewed him a pool, which they said was of rain water, and that they had kept it always concealed from the French. The ships drew from this considerable supplies afterwards, as the water, allowed to settle, was very drinkable, and not hurtful; its colour was remarkable, being extremely white. When the detachment of the 86th landed, it encamped near this pool, which was distant about a mile to the westward of the town; but then not above six inches in depth, and thirty feet in circumference, of water remained; it was, in fact, a puddle full of insects, and of a very disagreeable smell: the troops were, however, obliged to drink this, and carry what they could with them, on their march across the desert, which nearly drained the reservoir.

"A mile and a half farther is a well; and a few miles beyond, in the same direction, is another; both of these contain very bitter waters.

"The town of Suez itself is of no importance; a wall built by the French, against the Arabs, with two batteries towards the sea, and a two-gun battery on a hill of ruins, about 300 yards from the gate of Cairo, are the only defences.

"Admiral Blanket's squadron lay at anchor in five fathoms water, about four miles from the shore. A twenty-gun ship might approach a mile nearer; but even gun-boats could only with elevation fire into the town, although the walls are within eighty yards of the sea.

"To the southward of the town a bank projects into the sea full three miles, so that the water running between it and the main shore, forms what seamen call a river. A bar lies at the entrance, over which at low tide there is only two feet water, and at spring tides not more than eleven; within the bar are about four feet. The channel of this river is narrow, and forms a curve. By this large boats, called *does*, at high water, run close to the town, landing their cargoes on a wharf, on which was a one-gun battery.

"I have been thus particular in describing Suez, as lately so much attention has been directed to the advantages which may result to an enemy possessing the place.

"The loss of Suez, as a principal port in the Red Sea, is certainly a disadvantage; nor does Egypt, on the Mediterranean shores, present all the favourable opportunities for trade which might be hoped for from her contiguity to Europe. The prevalence of the strong north-west winds, nine months out of the twelve, renders the passage ex-



extremely tedious, and removes, in navigation, her ports to a considerable distance from Europe\*. Still there cannot be admitted a question of the counterbalancing advantages of her traffic.

"In a military point of view, Egypt is of vast importance. The Ottoman empire totters, and India must be terror-struck if France should ever be allowed the possession.

"Whenever she then directed herself against the former power, thousands would embrace her cause. Infatuated Turks would league themselves with Greeks, as they did at Smyrna, when Bonaparte was expected, and where he would have arrived, if the extraordinary defence of Acre had not defeated his enterprise. The islands, disaffected and too severely oppressed †, would with pleasure hoist the standard of revolt; and the Turkish government, without the possibility of an effort, must be reduced to the necessity of accepting the severest conditions of the conqueror, for on his mercy their lives, as well as political existence, would depend.

"The views of France on India must be more remote, and the chances of success more precarious. Many warlike nations are to be subdued, before an invading army could reach the British possessions in India. No intrigue could secure the general friendship of those states through which the passage was necessary.

"The alliance of Europeans is dreaded in India as the serpent's embrace, since the bill of services they bring in is only to be repaid by the cession of the whole territory of the employers.

"The destruction of Tippoo Saib, and the occupation by the English of the sea ports on that coast, render a maritime expedition from Egypt nearly impossible. Partial supplies could scarcely be thrown in from thence to hostile princes; but the policy of France is too deep, her enmity too rooted, not to devise means, in process of time, for the destruction of the English power in India, and Egypt approaches her too near to this valuable colony.

"Russia, under some ambitious monarch, might be induced again to extend her arms, and such an union of force would, indeed, be a formidable menace.

"A nobleman, most justly celebrated for the extent of his political knowledge, and distinguished capacity, possessing also the best sources of information, relates an anecdote

of his being shewn the copy of a plan given in by a Frenchman, to the great Catherine of Russia, for the conquest of India; which idea appeared then so gigantic, that he did not much occupy himself with the details.

"Some years afterwards Suwarrow entered Ispahan: 'Then,' says he, 'I lamented the inattention; for I thought that I heard his cannon re-echoing in Hindostan, and the wonders of the French revolution have removed from my eyes the cloud of impracticability which I had thrown over the attempt.'

"Few, perhaps, know that Paul I. drew from the archives this important project, and attempted, in concert with France, the realization; when, fortunately for humanity and his country, death defeated his schemes of ambition and unnatural enmity ‡.

"England, when she undertook the expedition against Egypt, disclaimed the intention of appropriating the conquest to her possessions; but happier would have been that country, and more advantageous might the arrangement have been made for Turkey, if Egypt had been constituted as an Indian colony.

"Egypt is necessary to England for security, not as an acquisition of wealth or aggrandizement. The theatre of her wars with France, will ever hereafter be extended to those plains; and such an extension of the field of battle must be highly prejudicial to the interests of Great Britain."

In the very curious chapter concerning the diseases of Egypt, the uncommon opinion of Assalini is corroborated, that the plague is not a contagious disease, but results from the state of the atmosphere; or, perhaps, of certain tropical terrestrial exhalations. Some men confined in the hospital of Jaffa by the plague, escaped into the desert, and endeavoured to reach the army, but finding the attempt impracticable, returned in three days perfectly recovered. The English and Turkish armies which marched to Cairo, passed through a country where the plague filled almost every village, communicated without precaution in the most intimate manner with the natives, and established their very ovens at Menouf, where the plague

\* Lord Keith, with seven sail of the line, and two frigates, was a month beating from Alexandria to Malta. Many of the transports, with the French troops from Cairo, were four months reaching Marseilles.

† No island is more disaffected than Cyprus, and none of such importance in those seas. France has too late, let us hope, been sensible of its value and her error, in not connecting its occupation with the Egyptian expedition.

‡ One division was already on its march, which was to have been followed by another, when a corps of fifty thousand men would have assembled in the autumn of 1801, on the borders of the Caspian Sea.

raged violently. The Turks even rifled the diseased in the pest houses of Rhamanieh; yet no individual instance occurred of the malady in these armies, while the troops who remained stationary at Aboukir, were severely afflicted, and lost 173 persons. Change of air, removal, displacement, seem to be efficient remedies; as if the disease resulted from the continued respiration of a local miasm, or poisonous gaz.

"Egypt," adds Sir Robert Wilson, "in the possession of a power who felt interested in her prosperity, might in a course of years calculate on this disorder being altogether annihilated, or the pernicious influence so corrected, as no longer to possess the same calamitous properties. The introduction of lime, the use of coals, the paving of the streets in the cities, the formation of roads, the white-washing of the apartments in every house, the draining of all stagnant waters, and the use of well burnt brick, instead of mud, in building the villages, might in time correct the corrupted exhalations of the soil, whilst an attention to cleanliness would promote considerably the operations of science."

Sir Robert Wilson leaves antiquarian

speculation for the domestic commentators of the Egyptian campaign, and has added little to our doubts about the destination of the pyramids, or the dedicatee of Pompey's Pillar. To guess the riddles of time may be an innocent, and perhaps an honourable amusement for the leisure of learning; it tends to keep alive the ambition of celebrity among men, and to direct toward prospective and distant services the views of heroes and of nations. The officer, conscious that he is mostly an architect of ruin, may feel a secret consolation in having added an enigma more to the list; to solve which his journals will be ransacked in the colleges of distant nations. But the most useful, and therefore the most meritorious, direction of speculation, is to the art of removing the obstructions which nature, or the difficulties which man, opposes to the growth of a more numerous and civilized community. To these purposes of the statesman, Sir Robert Wilson turns his steady attention, and deserves well of society, by his care for its improvement.

**ART. XV.** *State of Egypt after the Battle of Heliopolis; preceded by general Observations on the physical and political Character of the Country.* By REYNIER, General of Division. Translated from the French. With a Map of Lower Egypt. 8vo. pp. 360.

THE French invasion of Egypt is so prominent a feature in the transactions of the late war, that almost all the information which can be collected on the subject, is of more or less importance. The nature of the soil, the productions, the various classes of inhabitants, their manners, and the peculiar influences and mutual relations of each upon the other, have been described at large and with sufficient precision by the English and French travellers during the last century. But till the expedition of Bonaparte, no European had either opportunity or inducement to consider this singular country in a military point of view. The conquest of Egypt by the French, and their expulsion by the British, have developed all the resources of the country, and all the modifications required in the system of modern warfare, when carried on upon a theatre so different from those in which the armies of Europe have hitherto been accustomed to contend. On this account, we consider the work before us as of peculiar value. The author, General

Reynier, occupied a distinguished station in the French army of Egypt; was personally concerned in most of the great transactions that he records; and notwithstanding his evident prejudices against the British, and his personal hostility against Gen. Menou, is to be considered as one of the ablest historians of that period which he has undertaken to commemorate.

Nearly a third part of the volume is occupied by general observations on the natural and political state of Egypt with regard to military transactions: in these we meet with much novelty and acuteness of remark, and which, in our opinion, constitute by far the most important part of the work.

Egypt, from Cairo southward, or Upper Egypt, is a narrow valley from twelve to fifteen miles across, bordered on the west by a range of barren, but gently declining hills; on the east the boundary line consists of abrupt precipices, broken here and there by narrow gorges formed by the winter torrents, and serving as so many inlets to the desert

which intervenes between the valley of the Nile and the Red Sea. The two ports of that sea by which Egypt may be invaded, Suez and Cosseir, offer no resources to an invading army except a scanty supply of water, all other articles of provision therefore, and the camels required for crossing the desert must be procured from Egypt or Arabia. The western side of lower Egypt, or the Delta, is defended by mountainous deserts and sands, traversed only by the Arabs of Barbary: the sea-coast is for the most part flat, and occasionally varied by low sand-hills; the mouths of the river are impeded by dangerous sands, so that the whole shore offers very few places for the landing of troops. The barrier between Egypt and Syria is a flat desert of moving sand, destitute of roads, and only to be crossed by an army in a direction parallel to, and at no great distance from the shore, since in this track alone are to be found the requisite supplies of water.

The numberless canals of the Delta, and the deficiency of roads and bridges, render it even in the most favourable period a matter of delay and difficulty to traverse the country; but from the end of August to the end of January the inundation puts a total stop to all military movements by land, except on the edge of the desert. An invading army possessing a superior naval force, might at this season establish itself on certain parts of the coast without much difficulty.

Such being the circumstances of the country occupied by the French, the inhabitants also being hostile, and Syria being the quarter from which the most serious opposition was to be expected, the following system of war was adopted by Bonaparte.

The city of Cairo, the capital of Egypt, was selected as the centre of military operations, of the civil administration, and of commerce. As, however, its numerous population was peculiarly dissatisfied with the French domination, it became necessary to bridle the place by a strong citadel, erected out of the ruins of the old castle, and by other small posts in the more distant quarters. The magazines for the army and ar-

tillery were established at Gizeh, on the river's bank, under protection of a fortress. Alexandria, though but little connected with the rest of Egypt, yet as being the only good harbour on the whole coast, is in some degree the key of the country: here only could an inferior fleet find protection, and reinforcements and dispatches be received from Europe. Its vicinity also to Aboukir bay, the most favourable spot for debarkation, induced the French to occupy it in force, and strengthen its works as much as possible. The two great mouths of the Nile at Damietta and Rosetta were commanded by forts and gun-boats, and other less important stations on the coasts, such as the mouths of Bourlos, Dibeh, and Umfaredegé, were covered by batteries, and defended by a flotilla. Rhamanie, on the Rosetta branch of the Nile, was selected as a central post for the stations on the coast, where a strong body of reserve was quartered for the purpose of marching to the assistance of any menaced point between Alexandria and Bourlos. On the frontier of Syria, Belbeis, and Salahieh, were the principal out-posts; and during the Syrian campaign the castle of El-Arish was garrisoned and a post of communication established at Katieh. All these posts and fortresses however, were upon the whole, but slenderly provided with troops; the main strength of the army being required for the campaigns in Syria and Upper Egypt, and repressing insurrections.

By a meagre abridgment of the interesting transactions recorded in this volume, we should neither do justice to the author, nor contribute much to the information of the reader. On many points relative to the actions that took place between the British and French, General Reynier and Colonel Wilson, as might be expected, differ materially; the latter directly charging the former with wilful misrepresentation: to what extent this charge is true we have no means of ascertaining; but we believe that a more correct and dispassionate opinion of the last campaign in Egypt will be formed by a careful perusal and comparison of both narratives, than by an implicit adherence to either singly.

ART. XVI. *A Collection of State Papers relative to the War against France, carried on by Great Britain and the several other European Powers.* Vol. XI. 8vo. pp. about 800.

THIS volume, the eleventh and last, (says Mr. Debrett, or his editor) completes our collection of State-Papers, relative to the late eventful and extensive war against France. The winding-up of that war has rendered the eighteen months, of which it comprises the official documents, peculiarly productive of diplomatic papers. The Convention of the Northern Confederacy holds a very prominent station: that of El-Arish, and many other treaties and armistices will also be found in it. Among the papers, which now for the first time appear in an English dress, are many of those connected with the Diet of Ratisbon. The decline of the war has rendered the London-gazette accounts of it a less prominent feature than in the preceding volumes. A slight departure from the former arrangement occurs, by placing in an Addenda, a few papers received too

late for insertion in their chronological order.

Mr. Stockdale, the publisher, has chosen to add that he is in no-wise answerable for the fidelity of the contents; and that he deems it his duty to submit this caution to the public, as some of the papers in the preceding volumes appear to have been altered and garbled for party-purposes. A convenient Index, facilitates reference to every part of the multifarious contents.

To this account what can a reviewer add, without comparing sentence by sentence the document with the copy, and the original with the translation? For the common purposes of life the collection appears to be exact enough, and more than ample enough: the historian must be advised to consult the sources, and not implicitly to rely on what a fatigued translator may have abridged, or a bigoted partizan have inflected.

ART. XVII. *The modern History of Hindostan, comprehending that Part of the Greek Kingdom of Bactria, and other great Asiatic Kingdoms bordering on its western Frontier, commencing at the Death of Alexander, and intended to be brought down to the Close of the Eighteenth Century.* By the Rev. T. MAURICE. 4to. vol. I. pp. 508.

THE history of Hindostan may naturally be distributed into three main chronological divisions. The ancient history, comprising the transactions prior to the subversion and separation of the Persian monarchy at the death of Alexander, still awaits much critical elucidation. The middle history, which may fitly extend from the partition of western Asia among the generals of Alexander, to the establishment in the tenth century of the dynasty of Gaznavide Sultans in India, is, in this work, eloquently commented. The modern history remains to us in various forms, as yet imperfectly accessible to European curiosity; but an idea of it may be formed from the translation of Ferishta, or from the admirable introductory epitome or dissertation of Orme.

Mr. Maurice has long been known to the public as a poet, and a prosaist of eloquence and erudition: his historical researches have perhaps been too much tinged by a Warburtonian spirit of hypothesis, which prefers an ingenious subtle paradoxical solution of phenomena, to the modest indecision of igno-

rance, or to the obvious and naked inferences of unaffected common sense: but his learning, if less deep than Warburton's, covers a wider surface, and reflects a remoter and more unusual landscape; and his diction, if less strong, is more iridescent with fancy, tumid with glittering froth, and sonorous with rapid volubility.

No work from the pen of such a writer, ought to be received with indifference by the public. Least of all is it allowable to undervalue an historical composition which comprises so much information relative to the former state of a portion of the British empire, already connected with us by ties of common dependence and reciprocal commerce, and, one day, no doubt, to be more closely united by the bonds of approximating laws, and community of language.

The first volume consists of two books, in nine sections. The introductory chapter contains a general view of the empire, and a summary survey of the manners of the people of Hindostan. A short sketch is given of the principal

events detailed in its ancient history, and of the characters of the successive invaders.

The second chapter relates the distractions which succeeded the death of Alexander. A history, by Mannert, of the immediate successors of Alexander, well deserved consultation, for the judicious comparison of classical authorities, and the distinct neatness of the narration. The biography of Sandracottus, or Chandragupta, is given according both to classical and native historians. The recovery of Babylon by Seleucus, the subsequent march into India, the compact with Sandracottus, and the then state of Indian commerce, especially with Egypt, are interesting topics of investigation.

The third chapter continues the history of the Seleucids; it includes the death of Sandracottus, the accession of his son Allitrochades, and the assassination of Seleucus.

In the fourth chapter, great use is made of Bayer's work, in detailing the origin and progress of the kingdom, founded in Bactriana and Western Hindostan, by the Greek successors of Alexander. The first conquest, the revolt of the Macedonian garrison, the separation of Bactriana from the Syrian empire, and its erection into a distinct monarchy, by Theodotus, are successively recounted. Parthia, about the same period, becomes independent under Arsaces. The revolted kingdoms strengthen themselves by a close confederacy against the power of the Syrian monarchs. Theodotus II. is driven from his throne by Euthydemus, who usurps the Bactrian sceptre. The history of the Syrian dynasty, as connected with the Bactrian and Indian empires, is resumed. Antiochus the Great, makes war on the Parthian and Bactrian monarchs, marches an army into India, receives a tribute of elephants from Sophagasenus, and returns to Babylon. Menander succeeds Euthydemus on the Bactrian throne.

The fifth chapter relates the history of Menander IV. and most distinguished of the Bactrian sovereigns, for strength of character, and extent of conquest: but his conquests were more extensive than his administrative resources could consolidate; they were to be disputed afresh by the contiguous sovereigns; his new subjects were not

bribed by benefits to become patriots; and although he appeared to have increased, he, in reality, enfeebled the empire of Demetrius, during whose minority, probably, this Menander, an interloper, was regent. Whether Eucratides claimed the sovereignty in virtue of a descent from Menander, is not known; but he made, in concert with Mithridates, king of Parthia, a successful war on Demetrius, which terminated in the partition of the Bactrian territory. Eucratides did not long enjoy his plunder: he was assassinated, like Sennacherib, by his son, from whom public odium snatched the allegiance, and foreign enemies the sovereignty of his country. It was partitioned by Parthians and Scythians.

From the sixth chapter we shall extract a singular narration.

"Our more immediate concern is with the embassy sent by Porus to Augustus, a few years preceding the commencement of the Christian era."

"It is remarkable that Suetonius, in the life of that prince, speaking of this event, mentions, in the same sentence, the Scythians, together with the Indians, as sending ambassadors to him, and soliciting his friendship. The coupling of their names thus closely, seems to prove, that the predominant influence of the former over the latter, subsisted even so late as the time of Augustus; and that Porus, however powerful in his own territory, was still, in some degree, a feudatory of that nation. Indeed, when the Scythians invaded Bactria, it can scarcely be doubted, but that they made themselves masters of all the dependencies of that empire adjoining to the Indus; if not immediately, at least after the death of the great Parthian monarch who assisted them in the subjugation of it. Whether this conjecture be true or not, the sovereign at that time reigning over the country conquered by Alexander, and whose kings, it would seem, according to the custom of Asiatic dynasties, had the name of Porus in common among them, in order to conciliate Augustus, then in Syria, settling the affairs of the Parthian empire, dispatched to that prince a numerous and splendid embassy, bearing some of the rarest productions of India, and charged with letters written upon vellum, in the Greek character; a circumstance highly deserving notice, as it strongly marks the prevalence, in the Indian courts, of the Grecian manners and language, 300 years after Alexander's invasion. These letters contained an ostentatious display of the great power, wealth, and magnificence, of the monarch who sent them; he informed



Augustus, that he had under his controul 600 tributary princes, or rajahs: which might be true, as we cannot tell how far in the interior of India his empire extended; that the renown of the Roman victories had reached his distant realm; that he admired the valour, and respected the talents of Augustus; that he desired nothing more fervently, than the alliance of such a nation, and the friendship of such a prince; and that they might command, at all times, the zealous services both of himself and the people subject to him. Of the ambassadors, all but three perished by the way, owing to the tedious length of the journey, and the fatigues sustained in the course of it. Those three, as well as the presents they brought with them, were seen, as Strabo informs us, by Nicolas of Damascus, at Antioch, in their way to Samos, whither Augustus had sailed: and the latter are described by the same writer, to have been borne by eight slaves, so thinly clothed in the light dress of the country, as to appear almost naked, but highly perfumed, after the Indian manner, with the richest aromatic unguents. The presents consisted of tygers, to which animal, till that time, the Romans were strangers; birds of monstrous growth, and reptiles of a prodigious magnitude; presents which, it has been judiciously observed, seemed rather calculated to deter from invasion, than to unite distant nations in the bond of friendship.

"In the train of the ambassadors was a venerable Brachman, an aged Sarman, as his name demonstrates, and as he is, in fact, called by Dion Cassius, who was so flattered and delighted with the attention paid him by Augustus, that he followed the emperor to Athens, and either in ostentatious imitation of the conduct of Calanus, who followed Alexander into Persia, as far as Pasargadae, and burned himself before the whole assembled army of the astonished Greeks; or else, in jealous emulation of his enthusiastic heroism, there committed his body to the flames, considering his æthereal portion to the immortal gods!

"As, by strictly confining myself in the account of Alexander's expedition into India, to mere historical detail, I neglected to state the circumstance of that philosopher's devoting himself a voluntary victim to the fire, yet as in a work of this kind, an occurrence so public and memorable, should not be wholly unnoticed, I here present it to the reader as I find it related by Arrian.

"Calanus was one of a body of penitents whom that prince saw and conversed with at Taxila, which has before been described as the modern Attock, situated on a branch of the Indus, to which it gives its name, and the only one whom he could prevail with to accompany his army back to Persia. The Greeks applied the term Brachman indiscriminately to the priests who officiated in

the Indian temples, and the yogee who wandered without clothes or food in the solitudes of the desert. It is difficult, however, to conceive Calanus to have been a Brahmin, as, in that case, he would scarcely have left a country, of which every spot, to the Brahmins, is consecrated ground; or have crossed a frontier river, whose very name signifies *forbidden*, i. e. to be passed by the natives of India. Soon after his arrival in Persia, being disordered with a flux, he resolutely refused the proffered assistance, and prescribed regimen of a foreign race of physicians, and solicited Alexander, that a funeral pile, for the purpose of burning himself, might be erected; which that prince at first strenuously refused; but, finding him inflexible, he at length gave orders for the deathful solemnity; when every thing was prepared after a manner becoming the grandeur of so great a monarch. The funeral scaffold was built of the richest woods; cedar, cypress, and myrtle: the most costly gums and aromatics were scattered over it; and it was adorned with rich vestments, and vessels of gold and silver. A litter, decorated with garlands after the Indian fashion, bore to that pile the venerable sage, who, all the way, sang hymns of exultation and triumph in the dialect of his country. Arrived at the pile, he ordered the costly furniture of all kinds, and the golden and silver vases with which it was adorned, to be taken and distributed among his disciples and attendants; after which he ascended the pile, and, laying himself down upon it, was consumed. The instant the pile was fired, according to his own express desire to have his funeral considered as a festival, the trumpets were sounded, and the whole army gave a shout, as in the moment of victory, being filled with equal admiration and astonishment, at the sight of a man consuming to ashes without any perceptible motion; 'so powerful,' says Arrian, 'are the force of habit and the effect of education.'

"Zarmanochagas, however, far exceeded Calanus in the value and merit of his sacrifice, if, indeed, there could be any genuine merit in an act which a nobler system of religion, and a more enlightened philosophy than that of India, has branded with the stigma of a cowardly relinquishment of life, and a base desertion of our post in the hour of apprehended danger; yet still that act, according to their degraded system, was far more heroic in the present, than the more ancient Sarman, since the former ascended the blazing pile, when, as he boasted to Augustus, he was yet, though somewhat advanced in years, in the perfect possession of all his mental and bodily energies, and, added to that blessing, in the full and uninterrupted enjoyment of worldly prosperity, and the latter, when under the pressure of a painful disease, which, he conjectured, might destroy him. It was, as before ob-

served, at Athens, that he set the Grecian philosophers this imagined heroic example of indifference for life, and contempt of its most valuable blessings; for, in the presence of all the learned and renowned of that celebrated city, having newly bathed, and being anointed with rich unguents, as it were for a gay wedding rather than a funeral, with resolute step, and smiling countenance, he mounted the funeral pile, and suffered himself to be gradually consumed, while the Stoics of Greece stood mute and astonished spectators of a scene equally novel and awful. The effect of that astonishment was a monument erected to his memory by the Athenians, which, according to Strabo, who flourished in the reign of Augustus, was the intimate friend of Ælius Gallus, that emperor's confidential governor for Egypt, and probably saw it, was thus inscribed: The tomb of *Zarmanochagas the Indian, of Bargosa*, (perhaps Barygaza), *who sacrificed himself according to a custom prevailing in his country.*

"Were not the Greek and Roman historians of the Augustan period so universal in their assertions, that these ambassadors came from Porus, the sovereign of *Western India*, from the magnificent account contained in the letters written in the Greek character, of the greatness of his power, and the extent of his dominion, I should be inclined to think, that those authors had ascribed to an inferior prince, transactions which might with more propriety be assigned to the sovereign of universal India, either to Bickermajit himself, or Salbahan, who, about the commencement of the Christian era, in Deccan, successively swayed the imperial sceptre. If, indeed, the sage Zarmanochagas were, as the inscription on his tomb seems to announce, a native of Barygaza, that circumstance too, would afford additional evidence, that he came from a sovereign reigning in or near Dachanabades, as the author of the *Periplus* renders into Greek the native term deccan, or the south, on the shore of which it is situated; Tagara, or Desghir, having been, as we have seen, the occasional capital both of Bickermajit and Salbahan; I say the occasional capital, because the emperors of Hindostan seem, in general, to have had two capitals (as, for instance, in later times, Delhi and Agra), and the Sanserect accounts assign to them Ugein in Malwa, the Greek Ozene, built by Bickermajit himself, as the more general residence of these monarchs. To a considerable portion of the adjoining district, the Greeks gave the appellation of *SERIACA*, comprehending, as Mr. Wilford has informed us, the greater part of the Subah of Aurungabad, and the southern part of Concan; while the more northern part of it, including Damaun, Calljan, Salset, Bombay, and other places on the coast, at that time belonged to the rajah of *LARICE*. Under the denomination of *LARICE*, I believe, was

meant to be comprehended Guzzurat in general; the native term *LAR* being very extensively applied, and, in particular, giving name to the town of Larrybunder, situated about five or six leagues from the sea, and one of the branches of the Indus. *Baleocuri-regia*, points out to us the royal residence of the *Balbura*, a most potent prince in those parts, and Cambay was the port belonging to his capital. The vast tract, called by the ancient writers *LIMYRICA*, owned yet another lord, little inferior in splendour and power to Balhara, whose metropolis of *Carura*, situated at some distance from the sea, is recognised from D'Anville, in the modern city of *KAURI*. But superior to both, in grandeur and wealth, in this southern division of India, soared the puissant sovereign, named Pandion, whose kingdom extended quite to the southern point of Comaria or Comarin, and who was probably of the ancient race of the renowned *Pandus*. He also is said about this time to have sent an embassy to Augustus, but no particulars of that embassy have descended to us. The residence of this monarch was at the great city of Madura, and the extent of his power is evident from the whole of that district being denominated from him *Pandi-Mandalam*, literally the circle or empire of Pandion. Arrian expressly says, that the Indian Hercules (Crishna) worshipped at Mathura, on the lobares (Jumna), left many sons, but only one daughter, *PANDRA*, to whom he gave a vast army and kingdom, and ordered, that the whole of her empire should be called by her name. In this and a few other instances, do the classical confirm and illustrate the native accounts."

It is probable that this superstitious martyrdom, or philosophical insanity, excited great admiration among the Athenians, who were pleased with every thing eccentric and unusual in conduct and manners, because it afforded a more stimulant topic of conversation and discussion, than the every-day proprieties of behaviour. At least, the philosopher Peregrinus Proteus, of whom Lucian has left so entertaining an account, was led to imitate the catastrophe by the hope of a similar celebrity.

The voyage of Iambulus to the southern coast of India; the visit of Apollonius to Phraotes; the embassy sent to Claudius from Ceylon; the travels of Cosmas Indicopleustes, form interesting episodes of this chapter, of which the main narrative, brought down to the birth of Mohammed, might have been fuller.

The seventh section, or first chapter

of the second book (a division into books, although adopted by Gibbon, is not so convenient for purposes of quotation and reference, as a continuous numeration of chapters), opens with a critical catalogue of the eastern authors, and works consulted for the composition of this history. Abulfeda's abstract of geography, and annals of the Moslem affairs, respectively translated by Graves and Reiske: Mirkhoud's History of the earlier Persian Kings, after the establishment of Islamism, translated by Jenisch, and the other scraps shuffled into Herbelot's dictionary: Amid, or Al Makin's Saracenic History, translated by Erpenius: Abdolatif's Marrow of History, translated by Golmin: Ulug Beg's famous *Æras*, edited by Graves: Abulfaragius, translated by Pocock: the Tatar History, begun by Abulgazi the father, and finished by his son: Ebu Haukal, translated by Sir William Ouseley: and many European works indebted to oriental authorities, pass in review. This is an innovation in history-writing to appreciate the authorities consulted previous to the use of them; but it is not an injudicious one, it scatters an agreeable variety along the path of investigation, and enables the reader more fairly to estimate the diligence and bias of the author. Let us hope the authorities have been as carefully consulted, as they are enumerated. There is a lack of frequent local reference, which excites suspicion, and disappoints investigation.

The second chapter of the second book, begins with the flight of Mohammed, which, on the authority of Abulfeda, this writer fixes in the 578th year of the Christian æra. A cursory view is given of the state of Christendom and Christianity at that period; and a rapid sketch of the character and exploits of the founder of Islamism. The Arabian generals invade Persia in their progress toward the Indian frontier. The battle of Cadesia, the plunder of Ctesiphon, are described. The death of Yesdegird terminates the Sassanian dynasty. The Moslems subjugate Transoxiana. A very concise history follows of the Taherian, Soffarian, and Sammanian Dynasties: and to this succeeds an Account of the Interior Regions of India, by certain Mohammedan travellers in the ninth century, translated from the Arabic by Renaudot.

An extract from the Golden Meadows of Masoudi, describes the geographical state of India about the time of the foundation of the Gaznavid sovereignty, by Abistagi, a governor of Chorasán, tributary to the Sammanian family. He was succeeded by Subuctagi, also an usurper, who obtained the sway by supporting, for a time, the son of Abistagi.

The third chapter is wholly consecrated to the reign of Mahmud, the son of Subuctagi, an eventful reign, which removed the land-marks of ancient empires, and overthrew the temples of established superstitions, which interrupted the security of law, the authority of usage, and the price of property; which desolated anew the highlands, over which agriculture had slowly triumphed, dispeopled the residences of luxury, and dispersed the schools of literature. An attempt was made by the second son Ismael, to exclude Mahmud from the throne of Subuctagi. Mahmud defeated and imprisoned his brother, and proceeded to subdue Mansur, the sovereign of Bokhara, who had probably sold assistance to Ismael for a province which he was about to occupy. This attack, which terminated in the total subversion of the empire of Bokhara, was only preliminary to more celebrated enterprises. The Hercules of conquerors, Mahmud, accomplished twelve distinct expeditions into Hindostan. In the first he attacked Peishore, and defeated Jeipal, prince of Lahore. In the second he took various towns and castles on the western frontier. In the third he stormed and plundered Tahera. In the fourth he conquered Multan, the capital of Sind. In the fifth he defeated a coalition of rajahs, and seized the treasures of Naugracut, and the principality of Ghaur. In the sixth he plundered Tannassar, and took Delhi. In the seventh he overran Cashmere. In the eighth he won Canouge, the capital of Hindostan, and erected the crescent of his prophet in the birth-place of Creeshna. The ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth expeditions, were rather undertaken to defend than to acquire; to repel assailing rajahs, to punish the disaffection of Lahore, to secure the hill forts, and to reduce the importance of Sumnat.

The remarkable character of Mahmud is thus summed up by our author.

" Sultan Mahmud, it is recorded, possessed many great and princely virtues; among them principally predominated a dauntless fortitude, profound political wisdom, and, on some occasions, he manifested a laudable spirit of inflexible justice; but they were all darkened by his execrable bigotry and his insatiable avarice. No man ever had such ample opportunities of gratifying it in its fullest extent. The wealth he amassed in his various wars, but particularly in his invasions of India, was of an enormous amount; and, independently of these, he had other occasional sources to fly to for obtaining treasure. In particular, at the storming of Bagdad, he extorted from the caliph Al Kader Billa, at once, five millions of dirhms. The splendour of his court attracted thither the most celebrated scholars and poets from all parts of Asia. Here they were hospitably and splendidly entertained, out of the overflows of wealth too vast to feel the deduction, and contributed to swell the pomp of a monarch, more ostentatious than really generous; and far more eager to obtain praise, than anxious to reward it. Of this, his conduct towards the great poet Ferdusi, the Homer of Asia, was a striking proof. The reader will easily pardon me for transcribing the whole relation from the authentic page of Sir William Jones, who, with much of the poetic fire of Ferdusi, at an early period of life, experienced, from a great European sovereign, a similar ill treatment with that hard.

" This most learned man, happening to find a volume of Persian history, of a very ancient date, read it with eagerness, and found it involved in fables, but bearing the marks of high antiquity: the most ancient part of it, and principally the war of Afrasiab and Khosro, or Cyrus, seemed to afford an excellent subject for an heroic poem, which he accordingly began to compose. Some of his episodes and descriptions were shewn to the Sultan, who commended them exceedingly, and ordered him to compose the whole history of Persia in a series of epic poems. The poet obeyed; and after the happiest exertions of his fancy and art, for near thirty years, he finished his work, which contained sixty thousand couplets in rhyme, all highly polished, with the spirit of our Dryden, and the sweetness of Pope. He presented an elegant transcript of his book to Mahmud, who coldly applauded his diligence, and dismissed him. Many months elapsed, and Ferdusi heard no more of his work: he then took occasion to remind the king of it by some little epigrams, which he contrived to let fall in his palace: but where an epic poem had failed, what could be expected from an epigram? At length the reward came; which consisted only of as many small pieces of money as there were couplets in the volume. The high minded poet could not brook this insult: he retired

to his closet with bitterness in his heart, where he wrote a most noble and animated invective against the Sultan, which he sealed up, and delivered to a courtier, who, as he had reason to suspect, was his greatest enemy, assuring him, that it was a diverting tale, and requesting him to give it to Mahmud, when any affair of state, or bad success in war, should make him more uneasy and splenetic than usual. Having thus given vent to his just indignation, he left Gazna in the night, and took refuge in Bagdad, where the caliph protected him from the power of the sultan, who demanded him in a furious and menacing letter.

" We are the more astonished at this unworthy treatment of the prince of Asiatic poets, because we are informed by all his biographers, that Mahmud himself was a poet, and, at an early period of life, translated into verse a sublime treatise on government, composed by the Brachmins of India.

" Of the power, indeed, of elegant poetry to attract and mollify him, we have already given a striking proof in the pacificatory verses addressed to him by the rajah of Calhinger. His historians record another instance of its effect in soothing his turbulent passions, which is too curious to be passed over unnoticed. Mahmud seems, like other poets, to have occasionally indulged in the pleasures of the flowing goblet. In a moment of intoxication, he one night cut off the beautiful tresses of his favourite mistress. In the morning he was extremely afflicted for the outrage he had committed. The distracted state of his mind shewed itself in his wild and furious gestures. Nobody dared approach the agitated monarch. At length a celebrated philosopher and poet of the court, addressed him in some beautiful lines artfully adapted to the sorrowful occasion. The sovereign's grief gradually subsided, and as the bard proceeded, he became so delighted with the effusion, that he ordered his mouth to be three times filled with jewels; an admirable mode of rewarding poetical merit, never, I believe, before or since practised! The Sultan then, in spite of his zeal for the doctrines of the Koran, called aloud for wine, and seating the favourite poet by his side, forgot his cares in the renovated pleasures of the banquet.

" Of his inflexible justice the following instance is inserted in Herbelot, from the NIGHIARISTAN, composed by Al Kaswani.

" A person, one day, in great agony of mind, abruptly rushed into his presence, while the king was sitting at his tribunal, and called loudly for Justice. Mahmud desired him instantly to declare his complaint. He said, that he was a man in but indigent circumstances, but blest with a handsome wife, whose beauty had unfortunately excited the passion of an omrah of great wealth and rank; that the said omrah, with armed attendants, came frequently, at



midnight, to his house, and after severely beating him, turned him into the street, while he gratified, by force, his libidinous desires. Tears of resentment and compassion started from the eyes of Mahmud, and he severely reprimanded the poor sufferer for not sooner preferring his complaint. The man replied, that he had often attempted it, but could never gain admittance. 'If,' said Mahmud, 'that omrah should ever trouble you again, let me know it without a moment's delay.' Then ordering the guard to admit him at any hour, however unseasonable, he dismissed him. The third night following, the former outrage being renewed, the complainant hurried to the palace; but the king having retired to the harem, was refused admittance. Encouraged by the promises of Mahmud, he now set up the most violent outcries, in hopes that the noise would alarm the court, and reach the ear of the king. The attempt succeeded, and Mahmud snatching his robe in haste, followed the poor man to his house, attended by part of his guard. When arrived thither, he immediately ordered the light to be extinguished, and cut the insolent omrah to pieces. After the execution, he commanded a flambeau to be lighted, and then looked earnestly at the face of the criminal; this done, he prostrated himself, returned thanks to God, and called for some refreshment. The house of poverty afforded no other than some barley bread and a little stale wine, which, however, the Sultan was contented with: and, on the point of returning to his palace, was, after the most fervent expressions of gratitude, humbly solicited, by the avenged husband, to declare, why he ordered the light to be extinguished; why he prostrated himself after the death of the omrah; and lastly, how the fastidious appetite of a great king could put up with so beggarly a repast? The Sultan, with great condescension, replied, that, after his first complaint, he conjectured that none of his numerous subjects, except his own son, would dare to commit an act of such horrible enormity in the capital where he resided; that determined to sacrifice so atrocious an offender to the justice of the laws, he ordered the light to be extinguished, lest compassion at the sight of so dear a relative, should arrest his hand in the execution of that justice; that, finding it was not his son, he prostrated himself with great humility before God: and that he had eaten cheerfully of his repast, however humble, because he had, on the instant of hearing his complaint, made a vow not to eat or drink till he had avenged himself on the base adulterer.

"Thus great, thus mean; thus formidable, thus contemptible; thus benevolent, thus cruel, was the potent Mahmud; whose empire extended from the shores of the Caspian to the mouth of the Indus; and from the Tigris to the Ganges. No mo-

hammedan prince before him, ever attained to so exalted a point of power and splendour, ever rolled in so much wealth, or was ever stained with so much blood. The liberal patron of the arts, at Gazna; at Delhi, the remorseless despoiler of their proudest monuments! affecting towards the Great Creator the most zealous piety, but acting towards his creatures with ferocious barbarity. So singular a compound of qualities the most opposite, has seldom occurred in the historic page; though, in these pages, but too many characters will hereafter pass in review, polluted with all the vices, unmitigated by the virtues of Mahmud."

The second volume, or part, of this comprehensive history, is separated into four sections; of which the first narrates the short and unfortunate reign of Mohammed, the immediate successor of the great Mahmud. The reign of Massud, the third of the Gaznavide dynasty of Sultans, succeeds. He is attacked by the Seljukian Turks, marches into Hindostan, where he takes numerous forts, and commits many ravages, but, on his return to Gazna, is defeated by the Seljuks, retreats toward Lahore, is deserted by a rebellious army, plundered, and at length butchered. Modud ascends the throne, and is eventually successful against the Seljuks. A second Massud reigns for six days, then Abul Hassan, then Abdurashid. He recovers southern Hindostan, and retakes Naugraut; but is dethroned and murdered by his general Togrol, who is also assassinated. Ferochzad repels the Seljuks, and behaves generously to his prisoners: his life is attempted in a bath, but he overcomes the assassin, and shortly after dies naturally. Ibrahim, a bigot, concludes a disgraceful peace with the Seljuks, in order to wage war with the idolaters of Hindostan: he takes Adjodin, and other strong places, which permanently extend his dominions. He reigns forty-two years.

From the second chapter we shall extract the episodic abridged account of the Seljukian dynasty.

"Although it was by no means my intention to mingle with this short history of the Gaznavide sultans, any extended account of the Seljukian emperors, yet as about this period the history of the latter is deeply connected with theirs, as well as with that of Asia in general, and as, in the end, the former empire was entirely subverted by the descendants of the latter, we cannot pass them over entirely unnoticed.



"The sublime post of EMIR-AL-OMRA, or general of the omrahs, which had been enjoyed by Togrol Bek, was, upon his death, conferred by the caliph, on Alp Arslan. Prayers were likewise read in his name, and he was publicly invested with the imperial regalia, as king of Bagdad; and he was even honoured with the title of Protector of the Faith. In military ardour he by no means degenerated from his predecessor, and in point of success, was far superior, since he may be said to have obtained the uncontrolled sovereignty of Asia. He overthrew, in a great battle, the sultan of Karazm, who had aimed at independence, and made the government hereditary in his family. In a still greater and more memorable engagement, he defeated Romanus Diogenes, the Greek emperor, in Armenia, at the head of 100,000 men, took him prisoner, and exacted from the miserable captive, by way of ransom, a million of crowns in gold, besides a vast annual tribute. Alp Arslan is also said, in consequence of this victory, to have got possession, among other rich plunder found in the emperor's tent, of a pearl of great magnitude and exquisite beauty, valued at 90,000 golden crowns, and known over all the East by the name of *the orphan*. He afterwards added Gurgistan, or Georgia, to his empire, and finally met his fate in attempting to conquer Turkestan, from the assassinating hand of an exasperated Charazmian chieftain, whom, after an obstinate resistance, he had compelled to surrender.

"Alp Arslan, partly by hereditary right, and partly by that of conquest, was the sole and absolute monarch of all the vast tract lying between the Oxus and the Tigris, comprehending Persia, or Iran, in its fullest extent, and was justly esteemed one of the most puissant potentates that ever reigned in Asia, of which Herbelot, from Khondemir records this remarkable proof, that there might be sometimes seen at the foot of his throne, no less than 1200 princes, or sons of princes, doing him the homage of vassals.

"Malec Shah, whom his father, with his dying breath, had appointed to succeed him, though not the eldest son, was immediately acknowledged his lawful heir and successor, at the head of the armies which he had commanded; and the caliph of Bagdad, not only sent him the instrument of investiture, confirming to him the title and power of sultan; but he likewise added thereto, the sublime title of Commander of the Faithful, which the caliphs till then had reserved to themselves, without conferring it on any other Mohammedan prince. Early in his reign, he conquered the whole of Syria, and marching into Transoxan Tartary, defeated Soliman, its monarch, with great slaughter, and brought him captive to Ispahan, at that time the capital of his dominions. The Seljukian empire was, in his time, one of the most potent monarchies that had ever been

erected in the East, extending from the borders of Egypt to a considerable distance beyond the Oxus. So high was his renown, an alliance with him was no longer deemed disgraceful. That honour which his predecessor so long refused his grandfather, was now solicited by the reigning caliph, Al Muctadi, the successor of Al Kayem; for he eagerly solicited and espoused the daughter of Malec Shah, a princess of the most transcendant beauty, on whose entry into the capital of Bagdad, such public rejoicings took place, as far surpassed every thing of the kind that had before occurred in the Moslem world. All the streets of the city were, on this grand occasion, illuminated with torches, and the caliph, to demonstrate his affections for his charming bride, prepared for her a most magnificent banquet, in forming the desert of which, according to an Eastern writer cited in Herbelot, no less than 24,000 pounds weight of sugar was consumed. Every other article of this most superb entertainment, was proportionably grand. This auspicious beginning, however, did not secure to his marriage any lasting felicity, for, two years afterwards, the princess, in spite of her sugared nuptials, became acrimonious and spleenful, left Bagdad in disgust, and retired to her father at Ispahan, where she died. Malec Shah was not only a great warrior, but the friend of science, and the patron of literary men. During the excursions which he frequently made to every part of his extensive dominions, he caused many noble mosques, colleges, caravanseras, and hospitals to be erected; and repaired the bridges, high roads, and canals, wherever he journeyed. His charity was unbounded; and he was inflexibly severe. Among other acts of piety and beneficence, he performed the pilgrimage to Mecca with incredible expense. Besides abolishing the usual tribute which the pilgrims paid, he laid out very large sums in building towns amidst the inhospitable deserts through which they passed, and ordered a great number of wells and cisterns to be made for their refreshment, and water to be conveyed to them from all sides. Such exertions are truly worthy of a great king, and they, as well as his great conquests, render the name of Malec Shah, by far the most celebrated and revered of the princes of the Seljukian dynasty. Malec Shah, however, though he raised the empire to the highest point of grandeur it ever arrived at, consisting, in his reign, of Syria, or, at least, the most considerable part of that vast region, Mesopotamia, Fars, Kerman, the Persian and Arabian Iraks, Chorasán, Charazm, Rum, or Anatolia, Great Bokharia, the kingdom of Kasghur, or little Bokharia, extending to the borders of Tibet and several other large provinces, yet, in reality, he laid the foundation of its future destruction, by dividing it, even in his life time, among his

relations and favourites, and permitting them to enjoy an unusual and almost an unlimited power in their several districts. These potent viceroys, by degrees, grew independent of the crown, and as many kingdoms were formed on the ruins of the great empire to which they were formerly an appendage.

“ His vizier, Nizam al Mole, was not less celebrated than his master for wisdom and for valour. He had been originally preceptor to Alp Arslan, and afterwards acted in capacity of vizier to both father and son. For thirty years this great man, as well by the exertions of his pen and his sword, proved himself to be what his name implies, the defender of the empire. Presuming, however, too much, in the decline of life, upon his unbounded influence with his sovereign, and exalted station, his conduct occasioned a warm expostulatory letter from the Sultan, in which he demanded of him, ‘ whether he were in reality his partner in the empire, or only his vizier.’ An intemperate reply of the vizier, in which he told the Sultan, that the empire owed its prosperity not less to the *inkborn* of the vizier, than the *turban* of the sultan, caused his immediate degradation, and, not long after, he was assassinated by a slave, at the instigation of the president of the divan, who succeeded to his high office. Before the vizier expired, he wrote a letter to the Sultan, couched in very different terms from the former, and highly becoming the situation of a great minister, whose period of glory was about to close for ever. After modestly enumerating his long services, he observes, ‘ I am now going to give an account of my administration to a greater sovereign than your majesty, the King of Heaven! I perish, in the ninety-third year of my age, by the dagger of an assassin. If I have had errors, forgive them; if virtues, reward them, by protecting my son.’ The palace of this great man was open to all learned and virtuous men, to whom, like his master, he always professed himself a patron; which is not to be wondered at, as he was himself, in a high degree, both learned and virtuous. Malec Shah survived his vizier only a fortnight, being attacked with a fever, the consequence of a surfeit at an entertainment after hunting, which, in a few days, carried him off. In a Persian poem, composed on his death, it is remarked, ‘ The old vizier dies in one month, and the young king follows him in the next. The power of God discovers to us the imbecility of princes, to the end that we should adore him alone, the King of all, and not attach ourselves too closely to any thing mortal.’ The life of this celebrated minister Nizam Al Mole, so famous over all the East, has been written by several of the best Oriental historians and biographers.

“ After the death of Malec, the great Seljukian empire was rent asunder by the am-

bitious contentions of his surviving family; and four inferior dynasties sprang up from its ruins: those of *Iran* and of *Rum*, or the Greek empire (though still denominated *Roman*), long upheld the grandeur and renown of the Seljukian name. The exploits of many of the warlike sovereigns of these dynasties, are, about this period, intimately blended with the events peculiar to this history, and the reader, on that account, will doubtless excuse this digression in regard to one of the most celebrated and powerful race of conquerors in the annals, and on the plains of Asia.”

The reign of the wise and politic Massud III. follows. Next that of Arslan, a short, bloody, and turbulent reign, terminated by the hostile interference of Sinjar. Chosro I. makes Lahore, instead of Gazna, his capital, and reigns seven years. Chosro II. is besieged in Lahore, and the metropolis is taken by stratagem. Mohammed of Gaur having thus extinguished the Gaznavide dynasty, imitates their plundering irruptions into Hindostan. Cuttub rises, and extends his ravages to Benares and other cities beyond the Ganges. Mohammed Gauri is assassinated after a reign of thirty-two years. Mahmud II. is conquered by the sultan of Charazm, who puts a period to the Gauride dynasty.

The third chapter introduces Gengis Khan, who overthrows the imperial cities of Samarcand and Charazm. Mohammed and his son Gelaeddin are defeated, and disappear. Cuttub and Eldoze once both slaves, become rival sovereigns. Aram, the son of Cuttub, is dethroned by Altumsh, a wise and warlike king, who maintains his power twenty-six years. Ferose, the sultana Rizia, a woman of great talent and courage, Byram, and Massud IV. succeed to the throne, and to deposition, Mahmud III. a prince distinguished for learning; and Balin, a courageous, generous, and wise sovereign, successively elevate the kingdom of Delhi to high felicity and glory. Rai Robad, one of those effeminate princes who fail not to originate in countries blessed with an enduring tranquillity and prosperity, sinks before domestic faction and foreign invasion, and is dispatched by an assassin.

The fourth and concluding chapter describes the Chilligies, a tribe of Afghans, who introduced to power Ferose, the invader of the Decan, and the accu-

mulater of immense plunder. Alla, his general, murders him, and usurps the throne: his youngest child, Omar, is proclaimed on the faith of a will forged probably by Cafoor, and set aside by the violence of Mubaric. He is deposed by confederated omrahs, who appoint Tuglick, a virtuous and prudent sovereign. Mohammed III. a sanguinary tyrant, projects the conquest of China. Ferose III. constructs canals and other magnificent public works, and after a long and useful reign, resigns the throne to his descendant. There are so few instances of benignant character in this list of sovereigns, that it is important to rescue from inattention the memory of excellence.

"In the year 752, Ferose marched into Delhi, and mounted the imperial throne. He immediately began to administer impartial justice to his people, who flocked from all quarters with their petitions.

"In the year 755, the king built the city of Feroseabad, adjoining to that of Delhi; and, in the following year, marched to Debalpoor, where he made a canal 100 miles in length, from the Suttuluz to the Jidger. In the year 757, between the hills of Mendouli and Sirmore, he cut a channel from the Jumna, which he divided into seven streams; one of which he brought to Hassi, and from thence to Beraisen, where he built a strong castle, calling it by his own name. He drew, soon after, a canal from the Cagar, passing by the walls of Siroutti, and joined it to the rivulet of Kera, upon which he built a city, named after him, Feroseabad. This city he watered with another canal from the Jumna. These public works were of prodigious advantage to the adjacent countries, by supplying them with water for their lands, and with a commodious water carriage from place to place.

"An embassy, about this time, arrived with presents, and new conditions of peace, from Bengal, which Ferose accepted, and soon after ratified the treaty. Bengal became, in a great measure, independent of the empire, paying only a small acknowledgment annually, by way of present. He exacted no other terms of the Decan; so that these two great members were now in a manner lopt off from the government of Delhi.

"Ferosé, who continued to have much at heart the improvement of his country, was informed, that near Hirdar, in the province of Sirhind, there was a mountain from which there issued a great stream of water, which fell into the Suttuluz, and that beyond that place there was a small rivulet called Selima, divided only by a rising ground from the large stream which we have just mentioned.

The emperor considered, that by making a cut through this eminence, the great stream might be carried into the rivulet, and so form a river to water the countries of Sirhind and Munsurpoor, from whence it might be carried to Sunnam, and so render great tracts of land fertile. He therefore marched immediately that way, and ordered 50,000 labourers to be collected together, to cut the passage. When the workmen were in this place employed in digging to a great depth, they found some immense skeletons of elephants in one place, and, in another, those of a gigantic human form, the arm bones of which measured one yard. Some of the bones were in their natural state, and others petrified.

"The emperor having finished this great work, built a fort at Sirhind, which he called Ferosepoor. He, from that place, marched towards the mountains of Naugracut, where he was overtaken by a storm of hail and snow. He however reduced the rajah of those parts, after sustaining some loss on his side, and confirmed him again in his dominions; changing the name of Naugracut to that of the city of Mohammed, in honour of the emperor. Ferose was told here, that the goddess, whom the Hindoos worshipped in the temple of Naugracut, was the image of Noshaba, the wife of the great Secunder, which that conqueror had left with them. The name of the idol is now changed to that of Jewallamucki. In the temple there was also, at that time, a fine library of the books of the Brahmins, consisting of 1300 volumes. Ferose ordered one of those books which treated of philosophy, astrology, and divination, to be translated into the Persian language, and called it the arguments of Ferose.

"The emperor, after the conquest of Naugracut, moved down the Indus, towards Tatta, where Iambani, who had been always a subject of Delhi, had rebelled, and fortified himself. The imperial army invested the city, but as provisions and forage became excessively scarce, and the rains had set in with great violence, Ferose was obliged to raise the siege, and march to Guzerat.

"He there spent the season in hunting, and, after the rains, he conferred the government of Guzerat upon Ziffer, and returned again to Tatta. Iambani capitulated, and delivered himself up to Ferose, who carried him, and the principals of his faction, to Delhi; but, after some time, he took him again into favour, and sent him to resume his former government.

"After various military exploits, mostly crowned with success, and many years spent in acts of beneficence and justice to his admiring subjects, but not necessary to be enumerated in this abridged history of his reign, in the year 787, age and infirmity began to press hard upon Ferose. Iehan, the vizier, having the sole management of affairs, be-

came very powerful in the empire. The emperor was so much under his direction in all things, that he had the effrontery falsely to accuse Mohammed, the king's son, of a design against his father's life, in conjunction with several omrahs. He brought the old man firmly to credit this accusation, and obtained his authority to secure the supposed conspirators. Ziffer was accordingly recalled from his government of Mahoba, and confined.

"A party was sent to seize the prince, who, having previous intelligence of the design against him, began to provide for his security, placing guards, and fortifying himself in his own palace. In this situation he remained shut up for some days; and, at last, having obtained leave for his wife to visit the king's zenana, he put on his armour, went into the close chair, and was carried into the seraglio. When he discovered himself in that dress, the frightened women ran screaming into the emperor's apartment, and told him, that the prince had come in armour with a treasonable design. The prince having followed them, presented himself to his father, and falling at his feet, told him, with great emotion, 'That the suspicions he had entertained of him were worse than death itself. That he came, therefore, to receive it from his own hands. But first he begged leave to inform him, that he was perfectly innocent of the villainous charge which the vizier had purposely contrived to pave his own way to the throne.'

"Ferose, sensible of his son's sincerity, clasped him in his arms, and weeping, told him, he had been deceived; and therefore desired him to proceed, as his judgment should direct him, against the traitor. Mohammed upon this went out from the presence, and ordered 12,000 horse to be in readiness. With this body he surrounded the vizier's house that night, who, upon hearing of the prince's approach, put Ziffer to death, and, collecting his friends, came out to engage him in the street. Upon the first onset, the traitor was wounded, and drew back to his house. He fled immediately towards Mavat, and the prince seized all his wealth, and cut off his adherents.

"Ferose, immediately after these transactions, resigned the reins of government into the hands of his son, and abdicated the throne. The prince, assuming the name of Mohammed, ascended the throne in 789, and immediately ordered the chutba to be

read in his own and his father's name. He settled the offices of state, and distributed honorary dresses among the omrahs."

The rest is a narrative of rapid decline and fall. Tuglick II. is assassinated. Abu Bicker is deposed. Mohammed IV. suffers from insurrection, and is succeeded by the infant Mahmud, under whom contending factions prepare the successful invasion of the great and celebrated Timur.

There are some portions of this work composed rather in the style of academical disquisitions than of historical narrative: these portions we should have wished to find separately, and in an appendix; only the inference derived from the investigation belonged to the author's text. There are also many concise observations of literary criticism, which would more neatly have been thrown into notes: but in this case, perhaps, the frequent blanks of narrative, and deficiencies of authorities, would have been more apparent. The style is of the Asiatic gorgeous sort, which, like a garment embroidered with chenille, and purfled with beads, and spangles, and foil, conceals the contour of the shape it should only have clad, and usurps the attention it should have drawn to the wearer. Yet, on the whole, it is a book of great merit and great value, which collects, from dispersed, from scarce, from foreign, from repulsive sources of information, what is known in Europe of the history of Hindostan, whose annals we now peruse with a compatriotic interest.

When this history has been dispersed in the East, and has received those emendatory criticisms which the contributors to the Asiatic Researches will no doubt bestow on it, at Calcutta, the author will do well to undertake a new edition of his collective labours. He may then consult more the conveniences of distribution, and the specifications of reference, and the neatnesses of phraseology, and confer on his vast toil a form worthy of the comprehension of his matter.

**ART. XVIII.** *The Asiatic Annual Register, or a View of the History of Hindostan, and of the Politics, Commerce, and Literature, of Asia, for the Year 1801.* 8vo. pp. 416.

THE Annual Registers of this country are well known. They contain convenient epitomes of the domestic history of the preceding year; as much foreign

history as is essentially blended with our own; the more remarkable occurrences and anecdotes, natural, literary, and biographical, not connected with the

general flow of event; and an anthology or selection of the more splendid passages, in prose or verse, published within the year. All the literary or critical part of these registers, might well be left to the reviews. A division of labour is more convenient to author and reader, than such cornucopian confusion. Neither department can be completely executed, where so severe an abridgment must be practised as to squeeze all the literary, as well as all the political history of the year, into a single volume. Old enterprizes, however, must be continued on the old footing; unless a centennial date, or some such solemn pause, supplies a pretext, or a motive for improvement: but, when a new undertaking arises, one is apt not merely to wish, but to claim a cessation of what has been found inconvenient and immethodical; and to wonder, that the editors of the Asiatic Register did not, at the beginning of a still recent enterprize, consecrate separate annual registers to the transactions of the speculative and of the practical world. How many men of letters, throughout Europe, take a mighty interest in the academical researches, and the translated poetry or prose of the East, who are heedless of the execution of the rebels at Jemalabad, and indifferent to the pensioning of the family of Sheik Ibrahim. How many men of the world would be content without Hindley's or Sadig's version of any of the songs of Hafiz, and would willingly leave the Tales of the Parrot to the inmates of the zenana; who read with commercial or humane curiosity, the ransom of the captives to the sultan of

Magindanao, and triumph in their national or family relation to some of the captors of Seringapatam.

This volume contains a continuation of the early History of India. (2.) A Chronicle of the principal events extracted, without comments, from the newspapers of the country. (3.) The Civil and Military Promotions, (4.) State Papers relative to the East Indies, (5.) Proceedings in Parliament and at the India House. These articles are all adapted for a political register. They are succeeded by (1.) Characters translated from Herbelot, &c.; by (2.) Miscellaneous Tracts, derived partly from the native authorities, partly from the European publications relative to Hindostan; by (3.) Poetry, chiefly translated from the oriental languages; by (4.) Accounts of books connected with oriental literature; by (5.) Correspondence on literary subjects. These articles are all adapted for a literary register.

We make no extracts from this very useful, convenient, and entertaining volume, because it is itself all extract, and professes to have exerted already the requisite attention to selection. Who would gather flowers out of a nosegay, or pick pearls from a bracelet? If we were recommending change, it would be to separate the work into two half-yearly volumes, the one political, the other literary; to abridge more severely the debates in the India House and in Parliament; and, above all, to secure a completer account of what the inhabitants of Hindostan write and think of their own affairs; of European information there is enough, of native information there cannot be too much.

ART, XIX. *St. Domingo, or an historical, political, and military Sketch of the projected black Republic, &c.* By MARCUS RAINSFORD, Esq. 8vo. pp. 69.

OF this pamphlet the most interesting portion describes a visit of the author to the camp of Toussaint l'Ouverture,

"We were permitted to land at the once famous city of the Cape; and the first object that excited our attention, amidst thousands of blacks of every description, was Toussaint, in familiar conversation with two private brigands. He came up to us very civilly, and enquired the news, from whence we came, and our destination? I accommodated my answers to the occasion, and to the character I was to support, and complained of severe treatment from the English; to

which he replied in terms of ridicule on the country, and politely took his leave.

"I then retired to the Hotel de la Republique, the usual resort of Americans, and was introduced to the table d'hôte, to behold, for the first time, a REAL SYSTEM OF EQUALITY!

"Here were officers and privates, the general and the sifer, at the same table indiscriminately. I had the honour of sitting near a fat drummer, who very freely helped himself from my dish, and addressed me with frequent repetitions of '*à votre santé, mon Americain.*' Toussaint dined here at the same time, but did not take the head of the



table, from the idea (I was informed) that the hours of refection or relaxation should not be damped by the affected forms of the old regime; and that no man should assume a real superiority but in the field. I met him again in the evening at the billiard table. At both places much hilarity prevailed; and the affability of the general highly increased the satisfaction of the company. I played and conversed with him with much pleasure, nor did the novelty of the scene, nor the want of etiquette (for there were several tables, at which all played with the same familiarity with which they dined) impair my enjoyment in the least; for, if there were not the refinements of European intercourse, there was no room for insincerity; and if delicate converse did not always offer itself, we were free from the *affectation* of sentiment.

"I was here informed that a review was to take place on the following day, on the plain of the Cape; and I was accompanied to the spectacle by some Americans, and others of my own country, who resided in the island under that appellation.

"In traversing this once superb town, which formerly 'would have ranked among the cities of the second class in any part of Europe, for beauty and regularity,' what a scene of desolation every where presented itself! On the site where elegant luxury had exhausted its powers to delight the voluptuary, remained nothing but ruins. On these were erected temporary houses for the American merchants, and little shops of the natives, which but exhibited the devastation with additional horror. The noble streets still contained the walls of many superb edifices of five and six stories high, and most beautiful structure; highly finished ornaments in many instances yet remaining to mock the gay beholders! nor was this all—in different parts of the ruin, the skeletons of their possessors were *visibly* mingled with the broken walls!!

- 'There in the ruin, heedless of the dead,
- 'The shelter-seeking peasant rears his  
'shed;
- 'And wonders man could want the larger  
'pile!"

"Through this dreadful scene I passed, to behold a review of the grandeur of which I had not the least conception. Two thousand officers were out, all carrying arms, from the general to the ensign, yet with the utmost regularity and attention to rank, none of that insubordination that had marked the leisure of the preceding day, being the least evident. Each general officer had a demi-brigade, which went through the manual exercise with a degree of expertness I had seldom before witnessed; and they performed, excellently well, several manœuvres applicable to their method of fighting. At a whistle, a whole brigade ran three or four

hundred yards, and then separating, threw themselves flat on the ground, changing to their backs and sides, and all the time keeping up a strong fire, till recalled; after this they formed in an instant again into their wonted regularity; this single manœuvre is executed with such facility and precision, as totally to prevent cavalry from charging them in bushy and hilly countries. Indeed such complete subordination prevailed, such promptitude and dexterity, as must astonish any European soldier, who had the smallest idea of their previous situation.

"After the review, I returned to the city, to review the remaining monuments of human ferocity, and brood over scenes where fancy herself had once been satiated. Arrived at one of the squares, I perceived, in the centre, a structure in wood, forming a regular ascent of steps to a kind of canopy, beneath which were two seats, and at the back an inscription, that, as it exhibited the tolerance and consistency of Toussaint, I was induced to keep in remembrance. There were two centinels to guard it, of whom I enquired if I might ascend the steps? They answered in the affirmative, but cautioned me not to touch the *cap of liberty* which crowned it, for it was SACRED TO SANTHONAX AND POLVEREL.

"My curiosity induced me to ascend, when I perused, beneath the cap, an inscription in French, the purport of which is faintly described in the above figure; I understand it is a quotation from their speech, in 1793, on the occasion already mentioned, when the blacks and mulattoes together carried them in triumph to the government house, and afterwards set fire to the city in eight different places!—then revelled in cruelty eighteen days! Of the carnage that flew through the island on the proclamation of freedom to the slaves, enough has already been said; but it is in the recollection of many Americans, that the view of the city, and the extensive plantations, sugar works, &c. in flames, was the most awfully grand ever beheld.

"After a long perambulation over these scenes of former horrors, I returned to the hotel, but with a mind so much impressed with what I had seen, that for a considerable time I could not divest myself of the most terrible ideas. I was, however, dissuaded from walking too much, lest I should be suspected not to be an American.

"For several weeks I continued among these people, amusing myself by observations on their manners, and by making a few draughts of their principal posts, with tolerable correctness; and, except the recollection of what had been, without any other sacrifice than my wish to be on duty, and the necessity of subscribing to every sentiment hostile to my country, I enjoyed the amusements and the habits of a capital, I remained unmolested and comfortable.

"From what I could perceive, the present productive system seems to be founded on first principles: every individual employs a certain portion of time in agricultural labour, and all take the field, from a sense of duty to themselves. A perfect consolidation appears in all their conduct, and I never saw a concession in them which did not come from the heart. More than once sixty thousand of them have been reviewed before me, at one time, on the plain of the Cape, in excellent discipline, and whose united determination against an invading enemy was victory or death! No coercion is necessary among them, and it is of course unattempted; the only punishment inflicted is a sense of shame, produced by slight confinement. Labour, also, is much abridged, that no want of sufficient leisure is felt; it would be no small gratification to the feeling heart, to see the peasant in other countries bound his toil by that of the labourer in St. Domingo.

"Of the character of Toussaint l'Ouverture, it will be expected that I should here say something; and I did indeed endeavour, during the short stay I made at the Cape, to ascertain the leading traits of that character, so far as to be enabled, at a future period, to judge of his views, of their probability of success, and of the motives that actuated them.

"These traits are certainly of the most favourable kind, and are such as must indisputably result from a mind the most elevated, and a disposition the most benign. Casual acts of justice may mark the reign of anarchy itself, and complacency sometimes smooth the brow of the most brutal tyrant; but when the man, possessed for a long period of unlimited power, of whose actions no venal journalist is the herald, has been charged in no instance with its abuse, but, on the contrary, has preserved a consistent medium of conduct, fortified by sound sense and acute discernment, deviating only to actions of magnanimity and goodness; he has past that test to which only, as human beings, we can recur in judgment on him, who, with all our own frailties, and without the adventitious aids of those born to rule, holds one of the highest seats in human existence.

"His government does not hitherto appear to have been stained by the influence of any ruling passion; for if a thirst of power had animated him alone, he would

long since have ceased to be a leader of insurgents; had avarice swayed him, he would have retired, early in the contest, with immense riches, to the neighbouring continent; or had a bloody revenge only employed his views, he would scorn to lead those who betrayed him, to the altar of the God of mercy, instead of the flames; or dismiss those in peace, to a sense of their crimes, whom *civilized* governors would have tortured on the rack!\*

"I shall only add, that, from every opportunity I enjoyed of observing the character of Toussaint, it appeared to me exemplary; he is reported by his countrymen, generous, affable, humane, and neither his habits nor his manners contradict their testimony; to foreigners he is liberal in an equal degree; and, above all, RELIGION and MORALITY appear to receive his unfeigned support in precept and in practice.

"In person Toussaint is of a manly appearance, to which his age is about to give a venerable aspect; his countenance is remarkably striking; but full of the most prepossessing suavity; he is a perfect black, and such a description of figure as might be supposed that of the *sable* mars.<sup>†</sup>

"He was stiled the 'general en chef,' and always attended by four aids-de-camp; his uniform was a kind of blue jacket, with a large red cape falling over the shoulders; red cuffs, with eight rows of lace on the arms; and a pair of large gold epaulettes thrown back on the shoulders; a scarlet waistcoat, pantaloons, and half boots; a round hat, with a red feather, a national cockade, and an extreme large sword, formed the rest of his equipment.

"He receives in public a very general voluntary respect, which he appears anxious to return, or rather to prevent, by the most grateful civilities; in short, though his manners have not the graces of the courtier, they possess the most winning affability, and exalted benevolence.

"To return to myself, after our vessel had undergone a thorough repair at the Cape, we cleared out of the harbour, and I once more set sail."

These facts are curious; they are framed in declamations more consolatory than eloquent, which display a tawdry taste in writing, common among Irishmen and Americans.

\* Among many other instances of the forbearance of Toussaint, in respect to those who had betrayed him, one is recorded to have happened while General Maitland was on the island. Four Frenchmen were retaken, who had deserted him with aggravated treachery! Leaving them in suspense as to their fate, he ordered them to be produced in church on the following sabbath; and while that part of the service was pronouncing that respects mutual forgiveness, he went with them before the priest, and impressing them with the flagitiousness of their conduct, discharged them without further punishment.

† "Both just alike, except the white,

"No difference, ———"

*Ode to the sable Venus, in Edward's history.*

The memoirs of the author (p. 23,) exhibit him as a man of spirit, who has grappled with difficulties.

A map of St. Domingo, and a por-

trait of Toussaint, decorate the work, which, from the advertisement, appears to have reached the third edition.

ART. XX. *Secret Memoirs of the Court of Petersburg, particularly towards the Close of the Reign of Catharine II. and the Commencement of that of Paul I. Translated from the French.* Vol. 3. 8vo. pp. 423.

THE preceding volumes of this work were received with great eagerness of curiosity on the Continent, and were on the point of exposing the city of Hamburg, where they were supposed to have been first printed, to some dangerous altercations with the Russian court. They are said chiefly to derive from a very intelligent agent of the French government, who probably resided in a capacity not unofficial at Petersburg, and to have been continued by a French officer formerly in the Russian service. The original volumes contain such particulars of the private life and manners of the more influencing persons at the court of Petersburg, as the translator, from motives of decorum, has often found it necessary wholly to suppress, or to leave veiled in the obscurity of a foreign language. Even in this improved or garbled form the work remains very interesting to the student of human manners; who may learn from it how much the progress of refinement and civilization, the consequent equalization of ranks, and the condensation of a reciprocally influential populousness, contribute to the purifying of manners, and to the diffusion of virtues. It remains very interesting to the statesman, who, in proportion to the absence of political liberty, must accommodate to personal foibles and inclinations, his mode of pursuing the good will and co-operation of foreign cabinets. It remains very interesting to the historian, who, though he may perhaps ascribe some touches in this sketch to the author's solicitude to blacken the anti-gallicans, will yet find in it a multitude of very curious and recondite particulars.

The first chapter narrates a Persian war, of which little had hitherto been known in Europe: it was instructive and inglorious.

The second chapter treats of the finances of the Russian empire very imperfectly: it appears, however, that the practice of rewarding favourites with gifts of lands and slaves gives occasion

to predatory expeditions for the purpose of taking captives, and is therefore a great impediment to the progress of civilization around the whole Russian frontiers.

The third chapter treats of the Cossacks, or rather Kozaks, a remarkable but oppressed tribe, concerning whom the author thus writes:

"After the death of Potemkin, the last protector of the Cossacks, the immense government of Ekaterinoslaf, to which a great part of their country was annexed, fell to the lot of the favourite Zubof. General Khorvat, his relation, was appointed his deputy, and went to reside at Ekaterinoslaf. This Khorvat, the son of a man who died in confinement for his crimes, was avaricious, debauched, despotic, and meretricious; in short, he was a real satrap. Other relations, other creatures of Zubof, were likewise put in office: vast tracts of land were given to them in the vicinity of the Cossacks. In 1792, when the Russians, with the traitors of Targovitz, fell on unfortunate Poland, the generals had orders to carry off all the families of peasants which they could lay hold of, and to send them into the deserts of Ekaterinoslaf and Ochakof. According to a moderate calculation of General W. the number of these families carried off from Volhynia and Podolia, exceeds twenty thousand. The conveyance of these wretched victims presented a horrid spectacle. At one time, troops of children, whose parents had fled or been murdered: at another, fathers and mothers, whose children had perished in the flames, or been dispersed in the shock of arms, or carried off by private robbers. Sometimes married couples became the prey of different ravishers, and separated for ever. Khorvat received a good share of this infamous booty, which was also participated by his brother and the other creatures of Zubof, Ribas, Altesty, Gribofsky, Janschin, and a hundred others. It is a well known fact, that Khorvat had 3,000 of these unfortunate beings, Altesty 800, Gribofsky 1,500, Ribas more. One prince Cantakuzene bought some hundreds of them from the Cossacks; and almost all the land-owners of those uncultivated regions did the same. General Kakofsky sent some thousands of them into the Crimea; but few arrived at their true destination; the greater part perished by the way in

the *steppes*, because no measures had been taken for providing for their subsistence. The lands of the great plunderers, though very extensive, could not suffice for these new colonies. They had at first asked for men to cultivate their deserts; they soon asked for new lands in order to employ their superabundance of people; and then it was that an eye was cast on those belonging to the Cossacks of the Don. Zubof, the favourite, contrived to represent things in so favourable a manner, that, without any other inquiry, from the recess of her cabinet the Empress, a friend to partitions, traced on a map the singular demarcation. This stroke of the pencil deprived the Cossacks of a great part of their property, their best pastures, and several *stanitzas* (little towns), which they inhabited for centuries. The tribes, so unjustly despoiled, ventured to murmur; they were driven from their possessions, and obliged to abandon the beloved banks of the Don and the Donetz (little Don), and to leave to the usurpers the pens which had inclosed their herds and flocks; the huts which had protected their families against the frosts; the fields moistened by the sweat of their brow; and the graves of their forefathers. Five or six thousand of these ill-fated creatures were conveyed into the deserts of the Kuban to replace the tribes exterminated by the Russians, or that had abandoned the country on their approach. These unfortunate Cossacks were intended to serve as a barrier against the incursions of the ferocious mountaineers, to be the forlorn hope of the empire. The women and children perished in great numbers on the road; the men revolted; a great many of them were butchered; the rest were dispersed in the deserts of the Kuban. It was in 1794, under the reign of the philosophic Catharine, that these different transplantations of people took place.

"The Cossacks themselves foresee that their total dispersion is in contemplation. They are discontented, dejected, and begin to desert the Russian armies and their fertile plains. Energy is diminishing, and martial spirit is becoming extinct among them, since the Tartars and the Turks, their eternal enemies, are no longer their neighbours; since they no longer fight as a national corps; since they are dispersed in the armies of Kamtschatka, and from the confines of China to the banks of the Vistula; since they have been enrolled in regiments, and subjected to a discipline different from that of their ancestors; since, notwithstanding their signal services, they are still treated like followers of the army, rather than actual soldiers.

"Russia has continually forty or fifty thousand Cossacks distributed in her armies. The tribes of the Yaik and of the Volga, as well as those of Siberia, have generally permanent stations along the line of Caucasus and of Orenburg, &c. The Cossacks of the Don are the most inured to war; and,

among their tribes, that of Tschuguief is the most renowned. It formed several regular regiments, celebrated for their bravery and their *esprit du corps*. Potemkin respected them highly, and had composed of them for himself a superb guard: the officers of this troop were well chosen, and often magnificently equipped. Yelovaisky, and a few others of their chiefs, had received some education; spoke French, and even German. Those of their generals who distinguished themselves particularly in the last war against the Turks, were Platof, Orlof, and Yesaef: the first, a very handsome man, had shewn himself devoted to Potemkin, and afterwards to Valerian Zubof, whom he followed in his disastrous expedition to Persia. He was, on his return, broken and degraded by the present Emperor. Denisof, another of their chiefs, of whom we have spoken in the first volume, had likewise acquired a great reputation in the Swedish war, and in the conquest of Poland. Being hoary from age, the soldiers called him *silver-head*, and had much confidence in him. His nephew, who bears the same name, has the command of the Cossacks sent into Germany and Italy.

"The Cossacks, except their officers, who have a very moderate allowance, have no pay, even in time of war. As we have already said, they are obliged to provide themselves with horses, arms, and clothing. Nothing is furnished them except oatmeal and flour. Frequently even nothing is given them but a sorry biscuit (*sukare*). Thence those hideous tatters, with which most of them are covered, when they have no opportunity of plundering, and which give them the appearance of beggars and robbers; thence the ruinous condition of their arms, and the bad state of their horses; thence the murders, robberies, fires, and rapine which every where mark their passage, and which, doubtless, would not be so frequent, if a government, less avaricious and less cruel, provided them with even the bare necessities of life.

"They are armed with a pike from fifteen to eighteen feet in length, which they hold vertically, resting on the right stirrup, and which they couch at the moment of attack. The Cossack makes a very dexterous use of this pike for leaping on his horse. With the left hand he grasps the mane, and, as soon as he has his foot in the stirrup, instead of placing his right hand on the crupper, as is generally done, the pike which he holds serves him as a prop; he makes a spring, and, in the twinkling of an eye, he is in the saddle. The Cossacks have no spurs, a large whip suspended to the left wrist supplies their place. Besides this pike, they commonly have a bad sabre, which they neither like nor well know how to make use of, one or two pistols in a bad condition, and a carbine which they seldom employ.

"Their horses are small, lean, stiff, by no

means capable of a great effort, but indefatigable: bred in the *steppes*, they are insensible to the inclemency of the seasons, accustomed to endure thirst and hunger; in a word, not unlike their masters. A Cossack will seldom venture to expose himself against a Turk or a Tartar, of whom he commonly neither has the address nor the vigour: besides, his horse is neither sufficiently supple, nor swift, nor sure footed; but, in the long run, his obstinate perseverance will tire the most active horseman, and harass the most frisky steed, especially if it be in a large plain, after a defeat. All the Cossacks, however, are not badly armed and ill mounted. Several keep the arms and horses which they may have been able to obtain by conquest in a campaign; but, in general, they had rather sell them, preferring their patient ponies and their light pikes. As for their officers, they are almost all well mounted, and many of them have good and magnificent arms, resembling, in that respect, the Turks and Poles.

"The Cossacks, if we except the Tschugueif brigade which I have first mentioned, never fight in a line. They are scattered by platoons, at the head, on the flanks, and in the rear of the army, sometimes at considerable distances. They do the duty of advanced guards, videttes, and patrols. Their activity and vigilance are incredible. They creep and ferret every where with a boldness and address of which none but those who have seen them can obtain an idea. Their numerous swarms form, as it were, an atmosphere round the camps and armies on a march, which they secure from all surprise, and from every unforeseen attack. Nothing escapes their piercing and experienced eye: they divine, as if by instinct, the places fit for ambuscades; they read on the trodden grass the number of men and horses that have passed: from the traces, more or less recent, they know how to calculate the time of their passing. A blood-hound follows not better the scent of his game. In the immense plains from Azof to the Danube, in those monotonous solitudes covered with tufted and waving grass, where the eye meets with no tree, no object that can direct it, and whose melancholy uniformity is only now and then interrupted by infectious bogs and quagmires, torrents overgrown with briars, and insulated hillocks, the ancient graves of unknown generations; in those

deserts, in short, the roaming Cossack never misses his way. By night the stars direct his solitary course: if the sky is clear, he alights from his horse at the first kurgan\* that chance throws in his way; through a long habit of exercising his sight in the dark, or even by the help of feeling alone, he distinguishes the herbs and plants which thrive best on the declivity of the hillock exposed to the north or to the south. He repeats this examination as frequently as the opportunity offers, and, in this manner, he follows or finds again the direction which he ought to take for regaining his camp, his troop, or his dwelling, and any other place to which he is bound. By day, the sun is his surest guide: the breath of the winds, of which he knows the periodical course, it being pretty regular in these countries, likewise serves him as a compass to steer by. As a new species of augury, the Cossack not unwillingly interrogates the birds: their number, their species, their flight, their cry, indicate to him the proximity of a spring, a rivulet, or a pool, a habitation, a herd, or an army. Those clouds of Cossacks which encompass the Russian armies for the safety of their encampments, or of their marches, are no less formidable to the enemy. Their resistless vigilance, their rash curiosity, their sudden attacks, alarm him, harass him incessantly, and incessantly controul and watch his motions. In general action the Cossacks commonly keep at a distance, and are spectators of the battle; they wait for its issue, in order to take to flight, or to set out in pursuit of the vanquished, among whom their long pike then makes a great slaughter."

The fourth and fifth chapters, which relate to the campaigns of the Russians against the French, contain some particulars not yet familiar in Europe.

A very amusing chapter of disconnected gleanings is appended, under the title of Historical Anecdotes; and some state papers, translated from the Russian, which throw much light on the spirit of Petersburg legislation, are annexed. There is more of party-spirit in this than in the two preceding volumes: but the reflections of the author, if stained by prejudice, are sharpened by penetration.

\* The Russians call *kurgan* those conic hillocks which are met with at certain distances in the deserts of Bessarabia, of the Dniester, of the Bog, of Azof, of Astrakán, and along the southern borders of Siberia. The spots that have been dug up, at different periods, attest that they are graves. In them are commonly found urns of coarse potter's ware, rusty arms, horses' bits, bones of dogs and horses, and sometimes buckles, hooks, small chains, and other ornaments in gold and silver. Some medals have also been found there, with Greek inscriptions to be decyphered, and others in languages unknown to modern scholars. It was in one of these hillocks that Suvarof placed himself during the terrible assault of Ismael, within a short gun-shot of the place. Thence it was, that in a ferocious ecstasy, with his eye fixed on a town covered with flames, and bathed in blood, listening to the furious shouts of the conquerors, to the groans of the conquered, to the tumult of carnage, he exclaimed, at intervals, in a hoarse and broken voice, *koli! koli!* (stab away! stab away!) This ridiculous and decrepid old man seemed to be enjoying a most delicious scene.



ART. XXI. *Histoire de la Destruction des Républiques Démocratiques de Schwitz, Uri, & Unterwalden; par HENRI ZSCHÖKE, Préfet National du Canton de Baie. 8vo. pp. 327.*

THIS eloquent and interesting history opens thus: "In the bosom of the Helvetic Alps was a small republic, which, in order to maintain its ancient liberty, ventured to struggle against a neighbour superior in force. We propose to give an account of the unequal conflict. Neither extent of territory, nor military force, nor influence over the destinies of the world, fell to the lot of this people: its misfortunes have rendered it interesting, its virtues, its courage, its energy; these are become worthy of the pen of history, and of the contemplation of the philosopher.

"Among the celebrated tribes, who first recovered that liberty, of which the very name was lost in Europe, were formerly distinguished the inhabitants of Schwitz. Their exploits won them the honour of giving their name to the rest of Helvetia. As faithful to the freedom they had conquered, as jealous of their glory, they yielded but to force, and abandoned a constitution, under which they had enjoyed five centuries of happiness, only when all resistance was become fruitless. But soon the fame of their misery equalled that of their past felicity.

"This circumstance, no doubt, will suffice to render worthy of our attention the final destinies of this republic of shepherds. If the circumscription of its strength and of its means has not called it to play a brilliant part in history, the manner in which it suffered and fell, will acquire for it the homage of the attentive observer.

"But before we pass on to the events which occasioned its extinction, let us cast a glance over the picture of what it was before this deplorable catastrophe."

The author then proceeds to a geographic, ethic, and historic sketch of the happy mountaineers, whose misfortunes he is to detail. The predisposing causes of these woes are analysed with great temper, gentleness, and equity. It is shown (in the thirteenth chapter) that the aristocratic, anti-jacobin spirit of the rulers of Bern, had excited great disaffection among the Vaudois, whom they had oppressed; and that to Steigner is in a great degree to be ascribed that refusal of all redress of grievances, that

haughty, unconciliatory, persecuting spirit, which more than any other cause prevented a timely consolidation and co-operation of the cantons in behalf of their collective independence. Like Ireland, like Holland, Switzerland would have been so united as not to attract an invader, had it been governed by the ardent friends of its liberties, and not by the sophists of the confederated princes. Among those, who, by the purest love of freedom and of their country, by disinterested hazards, by unshaken courage, by eminent talents usefully exerted; in short, by every title but their success, have deserved to be ranked with the Washingtons and Montgomerys of yon emancipated regions, stands foremost Aloys Reding. In the progress of the struggle of independence he became (p. 278) chieftain of the troops of Schwitz, and the soul of the army of the allied cantons. He studied the art of war in the service of Spain, where he had been a colonel. He was lately retired into a solitary valley of his country, where he devoted his leisure to friendship, to the Muses, and to the cultivation of his lands. He desired long before the revolution an amelioration in the federal system, and wished his country to enjoy a useful and real liberty. But his heart felt an instinctive antipathy to a revolution made by a foreign power, and a still stronger abhorrence against submitting to French domination. Such are the motives which induced him to take up the sword, and to shew himself worthy of the Swiss name, worthy of his brave ancestors. The loss he had lately incurred of a young and beloved wife, had left in his soul a profound melancholy, which made him, perhaps, the more covet the hazards and the dangers of battle. Precautious, loyal, brave, patriotic, able to preserve a cool equanimity in prosperity as in adversity, he became, in a short time, the favourite, and the hope of his nation; p. 282. All the frontiers of the ancient canton of Schwitz, except a small part covered by the Muttathal, were now exposed. It was necessary, therefore, to guard a line of twenty-five leagues with 4,000 soldiers, and to make head against French troops superior in

numbers, who were advancing on all sides. The last ray of the hope of saving the country darkened in such a state of things. "What is left for us now," said the very soldiers in the ranks, "but to die the glorious death of our forefathers?"

So many misfortunes had the effect of winding up enthusiasm to the highest pitch. Old men and children came to partake the glory of sinking with their country. Women, children, assisted to drag the cannon of Lucerne, which were at Brunnen, and bore them across rocks and along frightful roads to Rothen-thurm. They were mostly armed with clubs. Many of them wore, as a badge of their patriotism, a knot of white ribbon on the head. Wherever they saw a deserter endeavouring to elude by flight the danger of the country, they stopped him, forced him back to the frontier, and to his ranks in the army.

This interesting and feeble sex thus took charge of the interior police of the country, while their fathers, their husbands, their sons, their brothers, guarded the summits of the mountains, and stood firm in the presence of the enemy, and of death. These, intrepid and impassive as the rocks they stood on, courageously awaited the moment of devoting themselves for the country. They wished to renew, on the green heights of Morgarten, the sacred monument of the ancient valour of the Swiss, and to leave to their descendants, if not liberty, at least a memorable example of what the free can do to defend it. As Reding at the head of his band, so Leonidas formerly awaited at the Thermopylæ a certain and glorious end.

Aloys Reding, confident in the dispositions of his soldiers, turned toward them, and said: "Brave comrades, dear fellow-citizens, the decisive moment approaches. Surrounded by our enemies, abandoned by our friends, we have only

to determine if we will courageously imitate the example set by our forefathers at Morgarten. An almost certain death awaits us. If any one fears it, let him withdraw. No reproof from us shall pursue him. I would rather have a hundred men to be relied on at all events, than five hundred, who by flight would produce confusion, and uselessly sacrifice the brave who stand. As for me, I promise not to forsake you in the greatest danger. Death, and no retreat. If you share my determination, choose two men from among you to make it known, and let them swear to me, in the name of you all, to be true to the cause."

The soldiers, leaning on their arms, heard in silence, and with a religious awe, the words of their chieftain. Some of those manly warriors were seen to weep from feeling, and yet to come foremost, and begin the shout, soon universal: "We will stand by you to the last man."

Two men were appointed, who shook hands with Reding in the name of them all, as a pledge of fidelity in life and death.

The progress of the narrative, however honourable to Reding and his followers, terminates in the defeat and dispersion of the little army, and in the capitulation of such as could a second time be mustered; they yielded only to an irresistible force. The account is very animating; it is written with a purity and elevation of style, which adapts it for young persons; and we trust it will become a sort of school-book among the Swiss, who study French. A translation could hardly fail of being much read; and the distribution of a cheap edition would tend to diffuse that steady preference of independence to foreign subjection, which may soon here too be a matter not of theoretical speculation merely, but of practical conflict.

**ART. XXII.** *Short View of the Administration in the Government of America under the former Presidents, the late General Washington and John Adams, and of the present Administration under Thomas Jefferson.* By G. HENDERSON, Esq. 8vo. pp. 78.

THE author of this pamphlet seems to have visited America with tory prejudices, and to view with a sort of surprise all the marks of order, stability, pacifickness, justice, public spirit, and progressive prosperity, which he finds there; as if they were not the

natural consequences of a form of government, originating out of the people, and dependent upon it; too poor to bribe, and too weak to compel, the involuntary obedience of its subjects.

The facts, therefore, are unsuspicious.

"The Federal Government, or first general compact of the American States, under one supreme ruling power, was suggested in the year 1787. In the month of September of the same year, the Constitution was agreed to by the convention. This convention consisted of persons deputed to represent the several States. It was not before the summer of 1789, that the ratification of nine States could be obtained, and the President elected. Therefore it may be said, that the Federal system did not actually commence until this time, or early in the year 1790.

"I shall now endeavour to furnish a summary view of the principal features which render this administration remarkable. At the time of its commencement, which is above shewn, the shipping of the United States did not exceed *four hundred and fifty thousand tons*. In the beginning of 1800, it amounted to nine hundred and thirty-nine thousand.

"In 1790 the exportation of foreign articles brought into the United States for re-exportation, did not amount to *two millions of dollars*.—In 1800 it exceeded *thirty nine millions*.—In 1790 the exports of domestic produce, the growth of these States, scarcely amounted to *fourteen millions of dollars*.—In 1800 the exports of this kind amounted to more than *thirty-one millions*."

"The growing commercial consequence of the United States is very forcibly demonstrated by the increase of revenue derived from postage. In 1797 it amounted to about *forty-six thousand dollars*; in 1798 to *fifty-seven thousand*; in 1799 to *thirty-six thousand*; and in 1800 to *eighty thousand*! Previous to the year 1797, it is supposed the post-office did not produce, or never exceed, *fifty-three thousand dollars*.

"The entire revenue of 1801, the year in which the Federal system ended, it was calculated would amount to *eleven millions three hundred thousand dollars*. But should it have increased during that year, as it had done during the preceding years, it would have added another million to the above; making in the whole, somewhat more than *twelve millions*. To this may be still farther added, a surplusage remaining from the year before, of *two millions of dollars*: which gives a total sum at least *fourteen millions*.

"The various expences incidental to the civil department of the United States, from domestic and foreign establishments; the expense arising from the support of the army, navy, &c. &c.; with the interest growing out of the funded debt, amounted in 1801 to *eleven millions three hundred and fifty-nine thousand dollars*. This sum, deducted from the amount of the revenue for the same year, leaves a balance of *two millions six hundred and forty-one thousand dollars*.

"Exclusive of the interest on its debt, the total expence of the American government in all its relations, was estimated to require

for the year last mentioned, *five millions five hundred and twenty thousand six hundred and ninety-five dollars*. It was expected, however, that this would prove considerably more than would be required, some reductions being to take place, that it became no longer necessary for the United States to support."

Some particulars which, to those little versed in American affairs, may appear new and interesting, we shall also reprint.

"I shall finish this part of my subject with a short remark on one of the last acts that took place during the administration of Mr. Adams; one, while it afforded an additional scope for the industry of his enemies, was somewhat difficult of explanation from his friends. This was, his sending a second mission to France after the solemn declaration he had made, never to do so until assurances should be first received that the embassy would be treated with dignity and respect. It certainly rendered his vigorous preparations for defence inconsistent, if at all events he was determined to supplicate for peace."

Are there no men of this kind on the eastern bank of the Atlantic?—Our author neglects mentioning Mr. Alexander Hamilton, whose talents surely entitle him to a higher rank in the Federalist, or tory party, than Mr. Adams. Of Jefferson, the leader of the whigs, he thus speaks:

"Thomas Jefferson, the leader of the Anti-Federal party, who now fills the high and important station of President of the United States of America, is a person so well known to all Europe, that I shall not attempt to draw a character, which has already had such ample justice done to it, both here and in the United States, by others so much more adequate to the subject. I therefore aspire to furnish no more than a concise outline of the above gentleman. Mr. Jefferson is unquestionably a man possessed of very considerable genius, and endowed with a copious share of powerful intellectual ability.—As a scholar, in a country where yet but few can assert any extraordinary pretensions to scholastic attainments, he is enabled to claim a distinguishing pre-eminence.—As a writer, the *Declaration of American Independence*, which is ascribed to him, discovers him to be master of much elegance.—As an historian, or author, on subjects connected with our history, the *Notes on Virginia* display considerable ingenuity and research, though perhaps rather indicating too fond a disposition for indulging in the minute theories of Nature, than for accuracy in delineating her actual operations.—As a politician, Mr. Jefferson,

is considered by many of his fellow-citizens, as being more addicted to *speculative* than to *practical* plans of government; and his views in the science of legislation, very generally deemed much too narrow, and concentrated, to advance the interests of a great commercial nation, like that over which he is called to preside. The aversion he has, in most instances, shewn to treaty and negotiation, at least leads numbers to believe, that commercial concerns hold no conspicuous place in his consideration; and the unbounded and enthusiastic predilection he has on all occasions discovered towards France, induces an equal number to imagine he is little solicitous of acquiring the regard of the rest of the world.

"On the 4th of March, 1801, Mr. *Jefferson* entered on the duties of office. Many changes have already taken place, and more promise shortly to follow. The ministers to foreign nations, who received their appointments under the former administration, have some of them been recalled: their number is to be reduced; and a plan, it is said, has been proposed by Mr. *Maddison*, Secretary of State, that suggests the divisions of foreign alliance into three departments, which are to comprehend Great-Britain, France, and Spain: in each a minister is to reside, under whom Consuls and inferior agents are to be appointed, and to whom their communications are to be addressed.

"A general reduction of expenditure is also to happen, by abolishing a variety of offices. The civil establishment is to undergo an entire alteration in all its departments. The military is to be dismissed altogether. Most of the vessels of war are to be called into port; a few frigates only are to be continued in the service, and the rest sold.—Thus, in the United States may be found, and what in this age can be found in few other places, economy is the order of the day.

"It may yet prove, that the administration of Mr. *Jefferson* will disappoint the variety of opinion, which at present conjecture so liberally furnishes respecting it. Nor can it be consistently believed, that it will be so far wide as many have determined it will be found, of the enlarged prac-

tical systems of national polity, so wisely commenced, and so well understood by his predecessors, *WASHINGTON* and *Adams*: and which, while they add to the patriotic virtues of the first, contribute no less towards the distinguished reputation of the last.—America has gained a name under the former; it must not be supposed, that she is to relinquish it, or to feel its value diminished under the guidance of the latter.

"The election of the President of the United States is quadrennial, possessing the qualification of re-eligibility. A period much too lengthy in a bad, or impotent, administration; but that will ever be found of too short duration in a good and efficient one. Excepting what happened in the instance of the late General *WASHINGTON*, the growing state of party in America hardly seems to promise, that such re-election of its first magistrate will again frequently occur."

The American Constitution is not wholly consistent in entrusting the federative and executive powers (which *Locke* was for separating) to one individual president. It would be more natural to appoint three presidents, one every two years, and to let the oldest president go out by rotation. The prevailing party would usually have two, at least, of the presidents in its interest; so that the system of politics would remain as at present; but the danger of individual aggrandisement, of personal royalty, which the Americans seem to rate high, and to use as a cry of alarm, would be greatly diminished. The probability of inconstancy, and sudden change in diplomatic politics would also be diminished: and the probability of splitting into two distinct empires, if the northern states should, at any future period, with local unanimity, choose a federalist president; and the southern states, with equal unanimity, an anti-federalist. Of such geographical parties there is certainly some danger.

ART. XXIII. *History of Greece.* By W. MAJOR, L.L.D. 2 vols. 18mo.

THE history of Greece is very important as a lesson of experience. Almost every form of Government; almost every class of character, has there been intrusted with sovereignty. The absence of any complex system of political alliance, or international law, gave both to personal, and governmental passions, very free play; so that no sort of incident now occurs on the large scale, of which some precedent, some analogous

instance, cannot be found in Greece on the small scale. Precedent, indeed, is of no great use for the personal direction of a man of sagacity; but wherever the co-operation of numbers is concerned, it is to the adviser of incalculable value. Men are sheep like, and willingly follow a bell-wether: and there is no form of advice, which so immediately, and efficaciously, predisposes the most various and opposite tempers



and dispositions to concurrence, as the citation of a precedent: "Such men were in our circumstances, they acted thus and it answered." This didactic syllogism outweighs all the eristic sophisms of Aristotle. It is necessary, therefore, both for statesmen, and politicians, to be familiar with the history of antiquity; and though the school-boy pedantry of repeating on every occasion, as the French do, the most stale and notorious anecdotes in the *Selecta e profanis* may be ridiculous; even this is better than wholly to neglect them.

Dr. Mavor seems desirous of throwing into a compendious form what it is chiefly expedient to know of Greek history, and thus of providing those, who begin to forget their school lore, with a convenient remembrancer. We have no doubt the book will be generally useful: to what higher praise can human effort aspire?

There is a resemblance between the independent states of Greece, threatened and coerced by the overbearing power and insolence of Persia, and the independent states of modern Europe, threatened and coerced by the overbearing power and insolence of France. Between the personal character of the usurper Darius, strengthening his authority by an unexpected alliance with the manichean priesthood, and that of the imperious Corsican, there is also considerable resemblance. It may be less superfluous, therefore, to repeat this, than any other part of the history.

"The return of these Ambassadors occasioned a ferment in Athens. Universal indignation, not unaccompanied with a fear for the safety and liberty of their country, was immediately excited.

"When the news arrived that the Persians had in view the conquest of Greece, the Athenians and inhabitants of Ægina, with others of the Grecian states, wisely compromised some differences that had risen amongst them, and which had produced some inconsiderable engagements, that they might exert all their force against the common enemy.

"In the mean time, Darius desisted not from his design of undertaking an expedition against Greece, that he might gratify his revenge for the insults and injuries received from the Athenians. Mardonius was accordingly appointed commander of a fleet and army destined to attack Greece; but being unskilful, he lost many of his ships in a violent tempest, as they were sailing

round a point of land, formed by mount Athos; and his troops, in passing through Thrace, were attacked by the inhabitants of that country in the night, and great numbers of them slain. This expedition having failed by means of these two disasters, Mardonius was compelled to relinquish the enterprise, and to return home.

"Darius now, wishing to know which of the Grecian states he might consider as friends or foes, dispatched heralds to the several communities of Greece, to demand of them 'earth and water,' as tokens of their submission to his government. To this haughty claim of the Persian monarch, many towns on the continent, and most of the islands, acceded. But at Sparta and Athens, a determined refusal was not only given, but the public indignation was vented against the Persian heralds, one of whom was thrown into a pit, the other into a well, and they were told to take their 'earth and water' there.

"Darius finding that this limited undertaking would have great obstacles to contend with, before Greece could be conquered, increased his armament to five hundred ships, and five hundred thousand men; and gave the command to Datis and Artaphernes. This expedition accordingly set sail; and Hippias, now an old man, served as guide and conductor. The conquest of Greece being the only and the avowed object, it was resolved to avoid the circuitous rout, which Mardonius pursued. They therefore drew their forces into the plains of Cilicia, and thence passed through the Cyclades to Eubœa. As soon, however, as the Persian fleet was descried by the inhabitants of Eretria, they sent to demand the assistance of Athens. That state immediately ordered four thousand men to their aid. But the Eretrians were divided amongst themselves; and after resisting the enemy six days, the place was betrayed to the Persians, who pillaged and burnt the city, and sold the inhabitants for slaves, according to the command of Darius. Previously to this, Æschines, the son of Nathan, seeing all hope of defending Eretria useless, advised the commanders of the Athenian troops to return home, and reserve themselves for the defence of their native country. In consequence of this advice, they crossed the Oropus, and arrived safe in Attica.

"The Persian generals allowed very little respite to their troops, before they advanced against Athens. In this alarming situation, no measures had been concerted for general security; and the enemy passed in Greece, before any common defence had been proposed. The Athenians mustered all their forces, which, when joined by one thousand Platœans, did not amount to ten thousand men. These troops were commanded by ten general officers possessing equal power, amongst whom were Miltiades, Aristides,



and Themistocles, men of distinguished valour and abilities. But conceiving that it would be utterly impossible for this small number of forces to withstand the Persian army, they sent to Sparta, to request the immediate assistance of that state. The Lacedæmonians, on this emergency, readily agreed to the proposal, and ordered their troops to be ready to march; but at the same time declared, that, on account of a law, prohibiting the commencement of an expedition, except at the full of the moon, they could not depart within five days. In the mean time, Hippias having informed the Persians, that Marathon was an extensive plain, where their horse might be able to act with the greatest advantage, they marched thither. And the Athenians, being apprised of the enemy's motions, commanded their troops to the same place."

"As soon as the Greeks came within sight of the Persian army and the plains of Marathon, Miltiades determined on an immediate attack. In this he was joined by Callimachus, the polemarch; who, according to the laws of the Athenians, had the supreme power over the forces and generals. Each of the generals commanded by turns; but Aristides permitting Miltiades to command in his place, the rest followed his example. Miltiades accepted this compliment for the good of his country, but would not engage till it was his proper turn to take the command. When that day arrived, without waiting for more assistance, he disposed his troops in order of battle, and placed his forces principally in the wings. Finding the Athenians extremely animated, he commanded them to lay aside their missile weapons, to advance down the hill with great rapidity, and to engage the enemy in close fight. This order was instantly and cheerfully obeyed. The Persians, who had not been accustomed to receive the onset of the enemy, imputed this attack to the folly of the

Athenians, and their ignorance of military discipline; and what served to corroborate this opinion was, that neither horse, nor pikemen, appeared amongst them. The effect of the shock, however, proved the wisdom of the plan. For though the Asiatic horse was reckoned formidable in champaign countries, yet in this confined plain, and encumbered with a numerous infantry, it was unable to act with advantage. The battle was a long time contested; but at length the Persians, perceiving the center of the Athenian army weak, attacked it with great force, and broke through the line. This disaster those on the right and left were sensible of, but did not attempt to remedy, until they had put the enemies to flight. Then joining their divided forces, they met the conquering center of the Persian army, defeated it, and following to the shore the fleeing enemy, made a very dreadful slaughter. The Persians hurried on board their fleet; but the Athenians took seven galleys, and destroyed several others. The Persians lost, according to Herodotus, six thousand three hundred men, and the Athenians one hundred and ninety-two; but amongst the latter were some of the most eminent men in the commonwealth. Every one, indeed, seemed emulous to save their country, and to share the glory of the battle; and the highest praise is due to the valour of the Athenian troops. 'The Athenians who fought at Marathon,' says the Greek historian, 'were the first among the Greeks known to have used running, for the purpose of coming at once to close fight; and they were the first who withstood (in the field) even the sight of the Median dress, and of the men who wore it; for hitherto the very name of the Medes and Persians had been a terror to the Greeks.'"

The history terminates with the conquest of Greece by Sylla, during the war between Mithridates and the Romans.

ART. XXIV. *History of Rome, from the Foundation of the City, till the Termination of the Eastern Empire.* By W. MAYOR, L.L. D. 12mo. 3 vol.

THERE is a very good book of Mr. Beaufort's on the uncertainty of the first five hundred years of the Roman History. Yet even if this early history was wholly fabulous, it would be necessary to study it; because it serves, like mythology, to furnish the periods of orators with learned names and classical allusions. Still there can be no occasion to teach or to learn the dreams of modern antiquaries, and to consider that as historical certainty, which reposes on no plausible testimony. Such is the account (p. 3.) of the early civilization of Etruria, and of the vases made there. There is an error too (p. 2.) in the assertion, that the modern Geneva was

peopled by Ligurians; but this, perhaps, is a misprint for Genoa.

The Roman History begins to be certain, and consequently to be instructive, with the Punic wars. It was a misfortune for the ancient world, that the Romans prevailed in their conflict over Carthage. Syria was the medium, through which the arts, the commerce, and the science of the east, was gradually communicated to Egypt, to Greece, and to the rest of Europe. The Phœnicians, especially the Tyrians, were the messengers of beneficence; and by the colonies they founded around the whole Mediterranean, they diffused the principles of civilization, the rewards

of industry, and the means of splendour. Carthage, as Alexandria afterwards, owed to Tyre the model of a free constitution; the habit of adventurous navigation; the taste and the means for luxury and literature. When the Punic wars came, she was founding, as Europe in North America, factories among the rude nations of the north; and, probably, taught the inhabitants of Britain to work their tin mines, to salt their herring, and to separate for education from the community, a bardic order, whence the braints, or magistrates, and the druids, or priests, were to be selected. A great check was given to the progress of civilization, by the extinction of a power, which was thus carrying to America and to Thule, the profitable arts and novel productions of remote countries, with institutions, letters, laws, opinions, devised, perhaps, by the wisdom of Babylon. The barbaric Romans could destroy a civilization, which they could not attain; and interrupt an utility, which they had not the virtue to emulate: but it may be hoped, if ever a similar conflict should be renewed between a nation of armed ruffians, and of industrious merchants, that brute force will not again overpower the asylum of freedom and the seminary of civilization, but will be chained, by the public opinion of an interfering world, within the empire which it has a native right to plunder and trample into a desert.

The history of Marius and his party, is given with a cold want of participation.

"Marius, by these victories, having become very formidable to distant nations in war, soon after grew much more dangerous to his fellow-citizens in peace. Metellus, from being his first patron and promoter, was long grown hateful to him, for his superior influence in the senate; so that he earnestly wished to have him banished from Rome. To effect this, he suborned one Saturninus, who had fraudulently possessed himself of the tribuneship, to prefer a law for the partition of such lands as had been recovered in the late war; and to oblige the senators to take a solemn oath for putting it into execution, in case it was passed. The law was soon enacted, by the interest of Marius; but when the senate came to confirm the observance of it, Metellus, who considered it a renewal of the ancient disturbances which had been so fatal to the constitution, endeavoured to persuade them to reject the measure with disdain. At first they seemed inclined to follow his advice:

but the influence of his rival being superior, they gave way, and Metellus was obliged to go into voluntary exile.

"This success only served to increase the arrogance of Saturninus. Being made a tribune a third time, he filled the city with clamour and commotion. Memmius, who was of the opposite party, was killed in one of these frays, as he canvassed for the consulship; and Glaucius, the prætor, was tumultuously chosen in his stead. This seemed as a signal for a general encounter. The senate were resolved to curb the insolence of the tribunes, and the consuls were ordered, as in dangerous times, to provide for the safety of the commonwealth. Marius, who was one of them, found himself in the disagreeable situation of heading a strong body of the senators and patricians, against those very people whom his own intrigues had put into commotion. Saturninus and his followers were forced into the capitol, where, for want of water, they were compelled to yield. Marius still wished to save them, but was unable: a large body of Roman knights broke into the forum, and cut them to pieces; while the prevailing party, elated with their success, recalled Metellus from exile.

"Marius being thus doubly mortified by the demolition of his party, and the restoration of his rival, left Rome, under pretence of performing a vow; but, in reality, with hopes of kindling up new wars in Asia, where alone his military talents could have scope for his exertion. With this view, he went to the court of Mithridates, at that time the most powerful monarch of the East, hoping either to be dismissed with scorn, or received with hospitality. In either case he expected to find his account: if injuriously dismissed, Marius would have a colour for declaring war against him; if kindly received, he would be in a better condition to judge the strength of his enemy. Mithridates received him with great kindness, and dismissed him, laden with presents, to Rome.

"Meanwhile, the strength which Marius had given the popular party was not to be destroyed by a single blow: Drusus, the tribune, who opposed the popularity of Gracchus, seemed now determined to pursue his example. After much tergiversation in principles and objects, this man threatened the great with the revival of the Licinian law; and that the allies and confederates of Italy, who were the present possessors, might share an equivalent to what this law was likely to deprive them of, he gave them hopes of being admitted denizens of Rome. These promises did not fail to produce their effect; the Latin towns began to look upon him as their protector, and came in crowds to the city to support him. Great contentions arose in consequence of his endeavours. Deliberation had been long banished from the assemblies of the people; their laws were

enacted or rejected by clamour, violence, and sedition. On one of these occasions, Drusus, being warmly engaged in promoting the law for enlarging the freedom of the city, was stabbed by an unknown person, who left his poniard in the wound: Drusus had just strength enough to avow, with his dying breath, the integrity of his intentions; and that there was no man in the commonwealth more sincerely attached to its interests.

"The Italians being thus frustrated in their attempt to gain the freedom of Rome, by the death of their champion, resolved upon obtaining by force, what the senate

seemed to refuse them as a favour. A. C. This gave rise to the Social war, in 90. which most of the states of Italy U. C. entered into a confederacy against 658. Rome, in order to obtain a redress of their manifold grievances. Messengers and hostages were privately sent and interchanged among them; and upon having their claims rejected by the senate, they soon broke out into open rebellion. The state now saw a hundred thousand of its soldiers turned against itself, led on by approved commanders, and disciplined in the Roman manner. To oppose these, an equal number of men was raised by the senate, and the conduct of the war committed to the consuls; with whom were united Marius, Sylla, and the most experienced generals of the time. The war commenced with great animosity on either side, but the Romans seemed to have the disadvantage at first. Rutilius, the consul, fell into an ambuscade, and was slain. Upon this defeat, the army which he conducted was given to Marius, who rather might be said, not to forfeit his ancient fame, than to acquire new reputation by his conduct.

"After a lapse of two years, the Social war having continued to rage with doubtful success, the senate began to reflect, that, whether conquered or conquerors, the Roman power would equally be annihilated. In order therefore to soften their compliance by degrees, they granted the freedom of the city to such of the Italian states as had not revolted; and then offered it to such as would soonest lay down their arms. This unexpected generosity had the desired effect; the allies, with mutual distrust, offered to treat separately: the senate took them one by one into favour, but gave the freedom of the city in such a manner, that, not being impowered to vote until all the other tribes had given their suffrages, they acquired very little weight in the constitution."

The conduct of Titus, in Syria, is not censured with sufficient asperity: it was extremely cruel, and often base. The destruction of Jerusalem is thus narrated.

"Vespasian continued some months at Alexandria, in Egypt, where, it is said, he

performed miracles in curing a blind and lame man, by touching them. Before he set out for Rome, he gave his son Titus the command of the army that was to lay siege to Jerusalem. As he approached the metropolis, he was met, at the distance of many miles, by the senate, and half the inhabitants; who gave the sincerest testimonies of their joy, in having an emperor of such great and experienced virtues. Nor did he, in the least, disappoint their expectations; being equally prompt to reward merit, and to pardon his adversaries; to reform the manners of the citizens, and set them the best example in his own.

"While his father was thus receiving the homage of his subjects, Titus carried on the war against the Jews, with vigour. This obstinate and infatuated people had long resolved to resist the Roman power, vainly hoping to find protection from heaven, whom their impieties had utterly offended. Their own historian represents them, as arrived at the highest pitch of iniquity; while famines, earthquakes, and prodigies, all conspired to forebode their approaching ruin, and to fulfil the predictions of our Saviour and the prophets. Nor was it sufficient that heaven and earth seemed combined against them: they had the most bitter dissensions among themselves; and were split into two parties, who robbed and destroyed each other without mercy, while both of them, at the same time, boasted of their zeal for the religion of their ancestors.

"At the head of one of those parties was an incendiary, whose name was John. This fanatic affected sovereign power, and filled the whole city of Jerusalem, and all the towns around, with tumult and pillage. In a short time, a new faction arose, headed by one Simon, who gathering together multitudes of robbers and murderers, who had fled to the mountains, attacked many cities and towns, and reduced all Idumea under his power. Jerusalem, at length, became the theatre in which these two demagogues began to exercise their mutual animosity; John was possessed of the temple, while Simon was admitted into the city; both equally enraged against each other; while slaughter and devastation followed their pretensions.

"Jerusalem was in this miserable situation, when Titus came to sit down before it with his conquering army, and began his operations within about six furlongs of the place. It was at the feast of the passover, when the place was filled with an infinite multitude of people, who had come from all parts to celebrate that great solemnity, that Titus undertook the siege. His presence produced a temporary reconciliation between the contending factions within; so that they unanimously resolved to oppose the common enemy first, and then decide their domestic quarrels. Their first sally, which was made

with much fury and resolution, put the Romans into great disorder, and obliged them to abandon their camp, and fly to the mountains. However, rallying immediately after, the Jews were forced back into the city; while Titus, in person, shewed surprising feats of valour and conduct.

"Jerusalem was strongly fortified by three walls on every side, except where it was fenced by deep valleys. Titus began by battering down the outward wall, which, after much fatigue and danger, he effected; all the time shewing the greatest clemency to the Jews, and offering them repeated assurances of pardon, on submission. But this infatuated nation refused his proffered kindness with contempt, and imputed his humanity to his fears. Five days after the commencement of the siege, Titus broke through the second wall, and soon after made preparations for battering the third wall, which was their last defence. But first, he sent Josephus, their countryman, into the city, to exhort them to yield; who, using all his eloquence to persuade them, was only reviled with scoffs and reproaches. The siege was, therefore, carried on with greater vigour than before; and several batteries for engines were raised, which were no sooner built, than destroyed by the Jews. At length, it was resolved in council, to surround the whole city with a trench, and thus prevent all relief and succours from abroad. This, which was quickly executed, had no effect to intimidate the citizens. Though famine and pestilence, its necessary attendants, began now to make the most horrid ravages within the walls, yet this desperate people still resolved to hold out. Though obliged to live upon the most scanty and unwholesome food; though a bushel of corn was sold for six hundred crowns, and the holes and sewers were ransacked for carcases, that had long since grown putrid, yet they were not to be moved. The famine raged at last to such an excess, that a woman of distinction in the city, boiled her own child, and eat it. When this horrid account came to the ears of Titus, he declared, that he would bury so abominable a crime in the ruins of their state. In consequence of this resolution, he cut down all the woods within a considerable distance of the city, and causing more batteries to be raised, at length battered down the wall, and in five days entered the citadel by force. Thus reduced to the very verge of ruin, the remaining Jews still deceived themselves with absurd and delusive expectations, while many false prophets imposed upon the multitude, declaring they should soon have assistance from God. The heat of the battle was now, therefore, gathered round the inner wall of the temple, while the defendants desperately combated from the top. Titus was anxious to save this beautiful structure, but a soldier casting a brand into some adjacent buildings, the

fire communicated to the temple; and, notwithstanding the utmost endeavours on both sides, the whole edifice was quickly consumed. The sight of the temple in ruins, effectually damped the ardour of the Jews. They began to perceive, that heaven had forsaken them; while their cries and lamentations re-echoed from the adjacent mountains. The more resolute, however, still endeavoured to defend the upper and stronger part of the city, named Sion: but Titus, with his battering engines, soon made himself entire master of the place. John and Simon were taken from the vaults, where they had concealed themselves: the former was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, and the latter reserved to grace the conqueror's triumph. The greatest part of the populace were put to the sword, and the city was entirely rased by the plough; so that, according to our Saviour's prophecy, not one stone remained upon another. Thus, after a siege of six months, Jerusalem was totally destroyed; having flourished, under the peculiar direction of heaven, above two thousand years. The numbers who perished in the siege, according to Josephus, amounted to above a million of souls, and the captives to almost a hundred thousand. The temporal state of the Jews ended with their city; while the wretched survivors were banished, sold, and dispersed into all parts of the world, where they have ever since remained, in their posterity, a monument of the divine wrath, and an evidence of the truth of revelation.

"All ranks were zealous in bestowing due honours on Titus, many of which he modestly declined; but his return in triumph, which he did with his father, was marked with all the magnificence and joy that was in the power of men to express. Every thing esteemed valuable, or beautiful, was collected to adorn this great solemnity. Among the rich spoils, were exposed vast quantities of gold, taken out of the temple; but the book of the holy law was not the least remarkable in this grand exhibition. This was the first time that ever Rome saw the father and the son triumph together. A triumphal arch was erected upon this occasion, on which were described all the victories of Titus over the Jews, which remains almost entire to this day. Vespasian likewise built a temple to peace, wherein were deposited most of the Jewish spoils; and having now calmed all commotions in every part of the empire, he shut up the temple of Janus."

This history is continued to the fall of the eastern empire: it is succeeded by a separate dissertation on the rise and fall of Carthage, which deserves to be illustrated by the British antiquary with more care than has hitherto been bestowed on its very imperfect history.



## GENERAL POLITICS.

ART. XXV. *Essai sur l'Art de rendre les Revolutions utiles.* Paris. 8vo.

POLITICS have their metaphysics, as well as chemistry and medicine. It is possible to express, in abstract or general terms, those perpetual truisms, or laws of nature as to social man, which comprehend a multitude of individual observations or particular facts. The apparent exceptions can be classed, and these again reduced into a theoretic form, which passes at first for an hypothesis, and at last for an axiom. It is by this sort of progressive generalization, that all human science necessarily advances: to philosophize is to reduce detached facts under some common principle: to discover truth is to invent that form of proposition or expression which shall not require subsequent change.

The art of rendering revolutions useful then, is to deduce from the various specific examples of them, the general laws by which they are governed; so that men may know beforehand what is the natural and probable progress of party opinion, and party conduct, and be able to estimate what degree of public oppression, or public misery, or public apathy, or public enthusiasm, is to be awaited for the successful introduction of them. The French revolution has thrown a great deal of light on this subject, and forms a most valuable addition to the mass of human experience. Of no former revolution have the phenomena involved so many agents, or been inspected and recorded by so many competent observers: from no former experiment therefore, can the philosophy of revolutioneering, be expected to derive so important an improvement.

Human institutions, like a forest, seldom attain in less than a century all the perfection of which they are capable, and seldom retain more than a century their vigour and soundness. To let them decay on the soil where they grew, and to rear the analogous institutions elsewhere, is the process of unassisted nature; but to cut them down before the timber is good for nothing, and to make room for the rising underwood to branch out and strengthen in its turn, is probably the wisest process of the social man. Nations obey the fate of their institutions, and wither with them, when they prop and

plumb and plaster too carefully their decaying establishments; but recover on the contrary a juvenile and vernal invigoration, by the excision of mouldering branches, parasitical plants, and crowded scantlings, and stifling shade. Even those venerable oaks of the Druids, planted by the fowls of heaven before property put up her pales, may themselves one day require the axe; either because the wood is wanted for naval constructions, or on account of the breadth of ramification injurious to every contiguous growth.

General reasonings, says Mr. Hume, seem intricate merely because they are general; nor is it easy for the bulk of mankind to distinguish, in a great number of particulars, that common circumstance in which they all agree, or to extract it, pure and unmixed, from the other superfluous circumstances. But however intricate they may seem, it is certain, that general principles, if just and sound, must always prevail in the general course of things, though they may fail in particular cases; and it is the chief business of philosophers to regard the general course of things. One may add, that it is also the chief business of politicians; especially in the domestic government of the state, where the public good, which is, or ought to be their object, depends on the concurrence of a multitude of causes; not, as in foreign politics, on accidents and chances, and the caprices of a few persons.

The work before us is an attempt to ape Montesquieu. It is separated into short chapters, and these into sententious paragraphs. Every thing is said in a condensed oracular form. Answers are given in metaphor and allegory. To antithesis and brilliancy of turn, precision of thought, and clearness of induction are gladly sacrificed. *Frappe-fort* is the author's motto; he oftener strikes hard than home. It is prose to be read aloud; while listening, one assents; when reconsidering, one hesitates. The periods are turned as if for a wall-bill; so as to strike at the first glance, and to have said all while the runner reads. The work is like a collection of placards, and of placards to prop the government of Bonaparte.



Let us translate a few chapters.

" I. THE PEOPLE.—The strays of the people are excused by their ignorance.

The people is willingly led: they do as readily the ill as the good commanded them: they obey, they disobey without examination. Their blunders are the lessons of sovereigns, who would be wrong to think the people made for them.

The people have a lust for change: this desire it is for governments to direct, and to prevent its becoming the pandar of disorder.

III. SOVEREIGNS.—It is not surprising that the spirit of innovation should have misdefined a king: for thirty years it has been the fashion among sovereigns to disguise themselves as subjects.

A long peace led them to live without precautions for the future: they perceived it in the moment of danger.

Undoubtedly the error of the philosophers about kings is remarkable; but that of kings about philosophers is still more so. It is monstrous, and the mother of monsters, of all those evils which have afflicted the earth.

Kings ceased to be kings, as soon as they ceased to be awful. They thought that so much wealth, and so many luxuries were given them to be enjoyed, not to be hid behind. But in fact the majesty of thrones has no other object, than to conceal from the eyes of the multitude those exceptionable personalities, which are so often the birthright of kings. Never was the veil more necessary, than at the end of the eighteenth century.

This was the grand secret of kings. Their task was to act a part on an immense theatre. They disdained the trappings of the stage, and wanted to appear what they really were. Men soon saw in kings nothing but bad actors.

Under kings as they used to be, revolutions were impossible: under kings as they are, revolutions are natural events.

Sovereigns, monarchs, or despots, if you will to be just, suppress in all your anti-revolutionary precautions whatever has the semblance of terror and excessive rigour."

This chapter on sovereigns contains an indirect panegyric of Bonaparte, and ascribes to prudence and calculation, that behaviour to which his qualities naturally guide him. Bonaparte is not much the gentleman; he is therefore not at ease in the company of gentlemen, as

among them he experiences a conscious inferiority. In circles where manners make the man, he is not the natural primate. Military society is indeed very unfavourable to polish of manners: in a well-organized army, officers are frequently taken from the ranks, and even where they are not, it is the idle, the ignorant, the dissipated son, who is selected for the army; so that the chance is much against meeting there, with men of education. The intercourse of the military with the softer sex, is a good deal limited to the low-born and unchaste; having the reputation of men of intrigue, the wife, the mother, keeps them aloof; hence, their manners towards ladies are apt to retain too much of that protrusive familiarity, which is natural toward an inferior, who is the object of desire, but which is the very reverse of chivalrous worship. Moral courage is much connected with animal or personal courage, it abounds therefore in the army; but this quality of mind, although a cause of frankness and sincerity, is also a cause of impudence and insolence; in so much that the violent remedy of duelling (almost every recurrence to which results from the breach of good manners) has always been found prevalent in armies, and is necessary there, to keep reciprocal conduct within the bounds of decorum. Habits of peremptory command, again are unfavourable to the artifices of urbanity, which studies to confer, as if it asked a boon; and which disguises a command in the humble garb of a petition. This somewhat barbaric character of his profession, Bonaparte carries to the extreme, he is naturally heedless and despotic as the thunderbolt; his graciousness is stage-trick, his affability all performance. Presentations at his levee are rehearsed, and he arrives lessoned what attentions to vouchsafe. His aversion, like his good will, is got by heart; and his very indignation is the voice of his country. His condescension is duty, never inclination; merit with him is measured by celebrity: his agents will apologize when he neglects those of whom he ought to have heard; but he never anticipates the verdict of the public. He values qualities, like Machiavel, by their power, not their utility; he can be hostile to a woman, and benevolent to a terrorist. Hence his flatterers choose to place the perfection of king-craft, in *representative* majesty; in expressing the

national will, and subduing the symptoms of personal feeling. And in fact there is much that is defensible in this; for the great use of government by bodies corporate, which is commonly called freedom, consists in the universal substitution of public to personal motives of action.

XVI. IGNORANCE ALONE WOULD RE-ESTABLISH A FALLEN GOVERNMENT ON ITS OLD FOUNDATION.—“Who would not laugh at the architect, who, besides the rotunda at Rome should reconstruct on the old plan a gothic church, such as the barbarians had built there. It would be taken for a foil intended to disgust by contradiction.

And shall we, in the presence of acknowledged principles, of political economy, propose to a nation the rigorous task of exemplifying such a government as ought not to be imitated?

This advice is the acmé of ignorance and dishonesty: were it to prevail, it would be the triumph of a few individuals over common sense and general interest.”

XXII. CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION.—“The revolution of France had only two direct causes; the one positive, the other negative.

The first was the superfluity of merit, science, and talent in the middle class; the second, the ignorance and false philosophy of government.

Had either been wanting, neither would have operated; the absence of the first would have left the second without danger; talent in the government to direct its force, would have disappointed all the efforts of the middle class.

There is some novelty and some truth in the remark, that when education becomes very common, so that the number of speculative persons at leisure, to interfere about the affairs of government, is considerable—this renders a provision for their formal interference, an elective constitution, necessary. Democracy, therefore, is the natural result of progressive instruction, and civilization; and what remains to be considered, in countries that are still to constitute, is, by what forms of gradual rotation, or by what infusions of hereditary authority, the versatility and instability of democratic legislation and favouritism, may best be precluded. The proper government of barbarians, is military despotism; courage and force is necessary to

compel the obedience of the rude. The proper government of civilized men, is voluntary selection; wisdom and confidence should suffice, to obtain the obedience of the instructed.”

From the twenty fourth chapter one learns that the civil constitution of the clergy, enacted by the constituting assembly of France, was the work of the Jansenists. The French Jansenists, therefore, answer to our evangelical christians, who are also for a modified and cheap establishment.

In the twenty fifth chapter this writer describes, under the name of the Illuminated and the Martinists, a regular sect of Swedenborgians, who had announced, he says, the discovery of the true church of christ in the centre of Africa, and who had composed sixty volumes of commentary on the Apocalypse, which promised to elect the gratifications of sensual love, as a part of the felicity of heaven. The writer adds, no doubt erroneously, that this sect was distinguished for licentious morals, a charge as common, as it is commonly false against new religions. He says that Depremenil was one of its members.

The thirty-second chapter on the States General, contains, among much common place, one really important and valuable observation: that the States General would have done well, with their views, to provide against their own dissolution; not by voting themselves a permanent body, like the long parliament, but by enacting the progressive renewal of the whole deputation, by the half-yearly dismissal or extinction of a sixth, eighth, or tenth part. In this case the glory of giving its constitution to France, would very quietly have been left to the original and only extant body of representatives, who might have gone on altering as often as the opinion of the majority shifted. But by dissolving themselves, and bequeathing to their successors an apparently inferior, and merely administrative task, they excited envy, and occasioned a vain competition for the glory of giving its constitution to France in all the successive legislatures. The legislative body decreed its convention. The convention made three different constitutions, accordingly as the different parties got the ascendancy. At length the usual remedy for anarchy, military despotism was resorted to, and the most

celebrated general in the service was sent for to be king.

It would apparently answer better to the people in such emergencies, to select generals of a mild, clement, equitable, moderate character, who might be expected, like Washington, to resign when the necessity for a dictatorship ceased. Why not prefer an Essex or a Fayette, a Fairfax or a Moreau, to a Cromwell or a Bonaparte? In the first place, there is always a secret apprehension lest the mild men should not apply a sufficient remedy to the disease: the influence of mercy is undervalued by the multitude; they would not select a Cornwallis to crush a rebellion; they have not learnt of Shakspeare, that when kingdoms are the stake,

"The gentlest gamester is the soonest winner."

In the second place, a great number of the busy men in politics are so in order to better their condition in life. These men are better accommodated by a regular, ambitious, selfish character, in the chieftain, by a man who seizes power because he likes it, and will keep it his whole life long, than they would be by a disinterested patriot. From the selfish usurper they get, in the first instance, for a great service, a great reward: they are well with him, and, without modifying their plan of conduct, they remain, during his life, leading men in the community. The disinterested man feels, it is fancied, less gratitude for what is to him less an object: he will undertake the sway while it is a task of difficulty and danger; and he will resign it back to the people when the temper of freedom is returned. His supporters or introducers have then new friends to seek, new individuals to court, new upstarts to panegyryze: in short, the will to benefit being restrained by many patriotic considerations, and the power to benefit being less by the voluntary abridgment of its duration, it is the natural calculation of all the competitors for governmental patronage, to prefer an Avidius Cassius to a Marcus Antoninus; a Bonaparte to a Moreau. The hustle of anarchy, therefore, tends to terminate not in a rotatory, but in a permanent chief magistrate.

In chapter thirty-six, this sentence occurs.

"A half-way party is always the

most convenient; the moderate have less courage than the exaggerants, and therefore suit the majority."

In chapter thirty-nine this is asserted.

"It is but too true, that there have been very honest revolutioners of the most exaggerated sentiments, men of blood, terrorists even, who, for the two doctrines of liberty and equality, incurred guilt, and gave and received death with equal enthusiasm. We have seen men, virtuous before the revolution, plunging into the most hideous terrorism; becoming moderate when they thought terror no longer necessary; resuming their ancient habits of virtue and moderation, and making sacrifices to the revolution, not gaining by it."

The author justly observes, that the 4th of August was the critical and characteristic day of the French revolution: it is the day on which all the feudal tenures and feudal dues were abolished by acclamation, without any other indemnity than the suppression of tithes. This day extinguished the privileges of primogeniture and entail, the remains of vassalage, which were numerous and tyrannic, the system of copyhold tenure, and all sorts of fees to lords of manors; so that all the landed property in the country became, in an instant, freehold, and saleable wholly by the holder, although previously entailed, or in trust, or settled. It all became, like personal property, equally dividable, in case of death, between equal relatives, male or female; and mortgagees who, in many cases, could only sequester the income, almost universally became partial proprietors. Montesquieu founded this antipathy to the feudal system. The club of 1789, an institution prior to that of the jacobins, was very assiduous in propagating the antipathy to the feudal system. After the institution of the jacobins, the members of the club of 1789, caused themselves, one and all, to be inscribed in the register of jacobins, and the two clubs assisted each other in dispersing those writings of the *economistes*, or physiocrats, which tended most to diffuse and embitter an antipathy to the feudal system. The peasantry were become so extremely eager for emancipation from the gratuitous services claimed of them, that all the *chateaux* of the nobility and large land owners, who were known to be friendly to the feudal system, were, on

this 4th of August, attacked, and set on fire in all quarters, and the proprietors themselves, under the name of *aristocrates*, were, in many places, murdered. This insurrection against the feudal system, which, for the extent of its mischiefs and proscriptions, probably exceeds any single subsequent massacre, has made little noise; because it was patronized by men of rank. It is when the populace break loose on their own account, that they get thoroughly abused. From the very beginning it was a vicious character of the French revolution, that its conductors disdained the trouble of attempting to untie the gordian knot of property, and chose to cut it with the sword. The simplifying of their landed tenures might have been attained, if it was worth attaining, by a regular process of indemnity; and the same eventual subdivision of land, might have been brought about by the progressive operation of law, which has resulted suddenly from the altered tenure, the confiscations, and the sales. It is, no doubt, eminently useful, to have broken down the distinction between real and personal property; as this distinction often operates to defraud creditors in favour of an elder son: but the other expunctions of the feudal system may more patiently be awaited, without exclaiming very loudly against the indolence, or iniquity of legislation."

In the chapter relative to the committee of public safety, these two passages occur.

"The revolution owes its consolidation to terrorism. This arose in France at a time when anarchy was making the greatest progress, when the revolutionary spirit was no longer general, when there was no force within to resist the enemy without, so complete had been the disorganization of the army, produced by the unskilfulness of the constituting assembly; at a time too when the treasury was empty, when there was no financial resources, which are the soul of war, and while the coalition was in full strength, which, though it served the revolution by its savage spirit, would have had a different effect without terrorism.

"It is to terrorism that France owes, in its topographical position, that majestic and formidable appearance which she has acquired by propping herself on

the Rhine, the Alps, the Mediterranean, the Pyrenees, and the Ocean. The armies of Robespierre traced these limits, and did, in an instant, what Louis XIV. dared not even project during forty years of warfare."

We have no faith in such speculations. The battles of Jemappe and Fleurus had sufficed to secure the independence of France, long before the reign of terror. There was no probability, that men or means would be wanting to protect all that is valuable in country, without any irregular violence. Of what use were such excessive armies as the guillotine frightened into the field. They had to overrun Italy, Egypt, for maintenance; and, at length, in favour of their anti-jacobin general, they quench the liberties of their country.

A strange anecdote is repeated at p. 207, as if Danton had offered to the English ministry to save the king for a specific sum, which they refused to pay. Perhaps they thought it a swindler's trick: perhaps it is a newsmonger's fable, intended, at the time, to diminish the regret for Danton.

The second volume is written in a more prosing, and less epigrammatic style than the first: the author seems tired, but chooses to go on: in the first volume he had to narrate, to comment, to attack; in this he attempts to design, to teach, to inculcate: it is easier to pull down, than to upbuild; to disorganize, than to constitute; to refute, than to demonstrate: it might be expected, therefore, that a criticism of the defective theories and practices of others, would surpass, in its execution, the schemes of automatic regulation. Even in his original, or rather personal proposals, his inferences are obviously influenced by the times: he recommends the celibacy of the clergy, because it has been parsimoniously retained; and the hereditaryness of the executive power, because it is secretly ambitioned. The end and aim of preventing its becoming a vacant prize for idle generals to fight for, might also be attained by vesting it in a prial of kings, and changing one away alternately every deal. But our author's commerce aims not at the rewards of the company, but at fishing from the pool.

Let us translate the 115th chapter, on education.



"The several nations of Europe have the common character of wanting a decreed system of national and relative education.

"The greater part of books of education, contain individual dreams applicable to individuals; but one seeks in vain there for true systems of national education. Governments appear to think themselves dispensed from all attention to them.

"In what the moderns call education, one meets only with extremes. The human mind is reared in a state of perpetual contraction, or strained to absolute exhaustion. To confound the physical and the moral forces of man, is to forget the main purpose of education. The early years should exclusively be given to physical cares. All that is mechanical belongs to this period of life. The stage of adolescence should be consecrated to the formation of the moral man. Let these two fundamental maxims be kept in view and respected, and we shall soon see more men robust, hardy, and mechanical; (*mecaniciens*;) and more men of information and learning, who have reason and judgment.

"It is still contended, that the dead languages ought to be taught in colleges; but dead languages are sciences, and ought never to have been classed with elementary instruction.

"No where do laws exist concerning domestic education; as if a child educated by a preceptor, was no longer a part of the nation; as if it were indifferent to the country, whether the rich receive an uniform education conformable to the principles of the government.

"True philosophy will not have profited by the circumstances of the times, if no colleges of pedagogues are established, if the education of girls is no better attended to, than that of children under seven years.

"The ancients had principles of education which rendered men robust, strong, valiant, learned; submissive children, good fathers, good husbands. But there was unity in their education; they knew the advantages of national education. The education of mothers of families was not committed to bachelors, who had never seen the world. It was not required of a child to talk before it had learned to think.

"Squeeze dry every book of the moderns on education; you will not get out of one a method to teach your pupil to think. All teach him to be a copier, an ape. How few men are themselves. One may say of every body: he is a man of our own times; the copier of such a one, who lived perhaps two thousand years ago. But we no where read, that the antients, whom we copy, copied other antients: they had the nobler ambition to set, not to follow examples.

"Human nature, as it grows older, is condemning itself to a dull monotonous mere vegetation. How far more interesting it was to see the Romans succeeding the Greeks, and both be great with every character of originality."

Why is government to interfere with education? Nothing can be more dangerous or more tyrannic than a spirit of needless regulation. National educations are by their nature indiscriminate, and alike for all; but in proportion as societies grow civilized, the division of labour increases, and, of course, the necessity for discriminate and appropriate superintendence. Among savages, national educations would be rational; because all men, in rude ages, want to learn the same arts of life: among us, on the contrary, it answers better to excel in the minutest subdivision of human employment, than to be moderately skilled in many things. The French inscribe all their boys on the army-list, and compel every one who cannot raise five and twenty louis, to serve in his turn. What is the consequence? The whole nation is courageous and limber, but libertine and idle: they never settle to work, and make such artizans as our militia, who, in every manufacturing town, are the refuse among journeymen. Only those manufactures flourish in France, where, as at Lyons, and in the silk-stocking factories, a large proportion of women are employed; or where, as at the Gobelins and Seve, artists of a refined character, confer the value on the produce. The mass of the people are spoiled, by serving in the army, for workmen: and commerce is wounded at the root.

Something, however, may be done, chiefly by the example of the rich, to improve the children of the poor. Warmer, looser, neater clothing can be given. They can be encouraged to prefer those



plays and games which exert the muscles, and prepare habits useful in after life, to sedentary and unprofitable exertion; running, jumping, swimming, rowing, to flying kites, knuckling marbles, chuck-halfpenny, or hop-crease. The arts of reading, writing, and cyphering, can be taught cheap, or gratuitously, or premiums can be given to the children who acquire them easily, or well: but this is better left to voluntary patronage, or, at most, confided to local administration, by allowing parishes to elect a schoolmaster, and pay him in part out of the rates. Unless the poor have something to pay themselves for learning, they do not attend to it, and care for it: they are apt to consider gratuitous schools as a tax on the time of their children, and to treat instruction as a public burden, like parish-road-duty.

With respect to science of the higher order, profuse endowment is not the wisest course. What is Oxford, as a seat of instruction, compared with Edinburgh; or Cambridge, with what Göttingen has been? Unless a large part of the emolument of the lecturer derives from the contribution of the pupils, all lectureships gradually sink into sinecures. Those of Paris, indeed, are still in fashion; and, while Chaptal continues minister of the interior, may be filled with men well selected; but courses of lectures often repeated to promiscuous audiences, will appear dull, will next be quitted, and then dropped; and the professor, for past services, will be suffered to retain his pension, and, perhaps, to bequeath it to some other decayed author of equal pretensions, and equal inutility. It is thus that human institutions continually tend to depravation; and, consequently, the fewer institutions there are, and the more every want is supplied by the voluntary contributions and exertions of the living, the greater the probability that every want will be supplied in the best practicable manner.

Our author is the panegyrist of originality. Can he suppose national educations favourable to the greatest possible variety of human character? Insulate men; expose them to very different circumstances; let this schoolmaster teach only the living, you only the dead languages; here let the lives of Plutarch, there the golden legend present models

to boyish imitation: above all, let not the army, at the age of strong impressions, drill into uniformity the soul and body of every lad; and perhaps that apishness, which our author sees in the character of his countrymen, may begin to wear off.

The concluding section of the work is consecrated to the praise of the republic of modern Rome, which this truly popish writer considers as a model for other states, on account of its mild, pacific, and religious administration.

VI. THE POPEDOM.—“It has been possible to define the government of Rome; but no satisfactory definition has been given of the popedom. By approximation it may be called a picture composed of monarchy and religion, which, by the magic of that universal royalty which is concentrated at Rome, personifies to every one his sovereign in the pope.

“Every stranger at Rome thinks himself in his country; so perfectly does the papal government fulfil the purpose of universal paternity. There is no traveller who does not acknowledge to have felt this sensation in the ancient and modern metropolis of the world.

“Of all sovereigns, the pope is the only one who truly exercises sovereignty in his own person, by allying the most imposing majesty with the most universal condescension.

“Every one carries to him direct his complaint, the expression of his troubles, the tribute of his gratitude and respect. Nothing can be added to the idea of his majesty, when, upright in his triumphal chair, supported by angel figures, surrounded with all the attributes of his double royalty, he seems to take in heaven the blessing he scatters on the Christian world. This sublime scene is repeated no where. The presence of all the kings of the earth, in all their pomp and gorgeous magnificence, would add, it is true, to the mass of respect, but not to the grandeur of this august ceremony.

“The Pope may be said to be always an aged man, over whom the passions have no longer much empire; so that his elevation to the pontificate easily introduces into his soul all the virtue which ought to characterize a royal pontiff. Nor have they in fact displayed any other failings than those inseparable from human nature. Besides,

unless one were to suppose in the Pope a profound contempt for the prejudices of his people, the circumstances with which his dignity is accompanied, are more than sufficient to repress entirely the very minutest propensity which might occasion a scandalous remark.

"A Pope is too constantly surrounded by beings with whom he can have no intimacy, not to be immediately detected and exposed, if he indulged any vicious, any ridiculous turn. If the cardinal's hat was a pale between him and the pleasures of the world, the tiara is a sepulchral wall.

"A Pope always eats alone, he takes no step unaccompanied: his distractions are serious things: his dignity never abandons him; if the occupations of his double sovereignty were not sufficient for his full employment, every Pope would abdicate in order to cease to be dead."

This is pursuing almost to rashness a character for originality: it endangers that of judgment.

What stronger proof can be afforded of the vanity of human wishes, than to see the Parisian infidels thus becoming the panegyrists of popery; and after spending half a century in destroying the church, reviving and recommending its institutions with all the industry of piety, and with all the earnestness of faith? Bonaparte, it seems, is a sincere catholic; he has been, who in France has not? the hypocrite of infidelity, in order to escape the sneer of fashion:

but it is the road to his favour to render honourable the profession of religion, in order that he may freely and publicly indulge his secret propensity, and provide for his memory that clerical imbalsamation, which perfumed and hallowed for ages the reliques of Constantine. A coronation at Rheims, by Pius VII. would be the worthy termination of the very Christian majesty of his career: the Pope Zachariah conferred on the usurper Pepin, an hereditary title to the sovereignty of France.

The writer of this work seems peculiarly conversant with the statistical condition of the papal dominions: if those are about to be converted into a satellite republic, he would be a proper prefect of department for the sacred territory: and there are many symptoms in his work, of such being his real destination. We do not place his philosophy with the dreams of Plato, but with the speculations of Gallienus, who, when emperor, set apart a city of Campania, in which to realize his idea of a perfect commonwealth. We counsel the Romans to examine, whether they would like the re-organizations he proposes; and to address their refutations to the real judge of the controversy. The tendency of every suggestion is to assimilate the government and laws of Italy with those of France, and thus to prepare a transalpine Gaul for eventual consolidation with the Gaul on this side the Alps.

## EUROPEAN POLITICS.

ART. XXVI. *On the State of Europe before and after the French Revolution, being an Answer to l'Etat de la France a la fin de l'An VIII. By FREDERIC GENTZ, Counsellor at War to his Prussian Majesty, &c. &c. Translated from the German by JOHN CHARLES HERRIES, Esq. 8vo. pp. 515.*

THE German author of this well reasoned work has imbibed the principles of Doctor Adam Smith, and has applied them with acuteness and propriety to the refutation of many opinions advanced by M. Hauterive, in his *Etat de la France, a la fin de l'An 8*. The scribe of Talleyrand had endeavoured to excite continental jealousy against the maritime power, and flourishing commerce of Great Britain, in order to pre-dispose certain powers in the French interest, to shut their ports against English shipping. Mr. Gentz, with far more infor-

mation and temper than his antagonist, endeavours to show that all commerce is mutually advantageous, whether it buys or whether it sells; and that commerce the most so, which is carried on with the richest nation; because it is most favourable to the obtention of capital, without the cheap use of which no kinds of industry can be put into active motion. It was highly expedient that a foreigner, and a Prussian, should be the promulgator of these truths; because they would else be liable to the suspicion of sophistical nationality; so that

the country owes much gratitude to Mr. Gentz for the undertaking, as well as much admiration for the talent displayed in the execution. The diplomatic part of the work is far less important to the continental popularity or interests of this country, than the reasonings about its trade, and stocks, and colonies; but it will be read here with more pleasure, because the topic is newer to our literature. Our ministers are not great in diplomatics, and even our pamphleteers do not know how to criticize them; for as Mably very justly observes, in his *Principes des Négociations*, "Le partage de la puissance publique n'est point fait en Angleterre avec les proportions nécessaires pour donner à tout l'état un intérêt commun, et une conduite constante à l'égard des étrangers. Dans le ballancement perpétuel qui se fait entre le prince qui veut étendre la prérogative royale, et ses sujets qui veulent conserver leur liberté; au milieu des intrigues de quelques hommes ambitieux, qui, en feignant d'être attachés à un parti, ne tâchent en effet qu'à tourner les passions publiques à leur avantage particulier; l'intérêt de la nation ne doit point être envisagé long-temps du même œil."

Let us hear Mr. Gentz on Prussia, a power which he knows intimately, having been employed there in the service of the government, and a power which it would be wise in this country to view with altered eye, and to prefer, as an ally, to Austria.

"I think I have proved that the consequences of the aggrandizement of Prussia, with respect to the *internal relations of Germany*, and those which formerly existed between France and the empire, are either not such as the author describes them, or ought certainly not to be considered so unfavourable as he appears to think them. I conceive the constitution established by the treaty of Westphalia, as far as it was in its nature capable of it, to have derived additional confirmation and support from the elevation of Prussia; and it now remains for me to examine, whether the influence of that event upon the general system of Europe has, in fact, been so detrimental as the author's representation would incline us to believe.

"Because Prussia, in order to improve, and afterwards to maintain, her situation, had recourse to a new system of war and government, because she invented new tactics, and had recourse to the art of accumulating treasures; and because fear or jealousy induced

the surrounding nations to adopt, on their parts, the same instruments of power; therefore, it is said, has Prussia, by her principles and example, been the cause of those unnatural efforts, and of that total enervation of all the European states, which has been the consequence thereof. To maintain great armies, and to fill their coffers, they oppressed their subjects so much, by levies of men and money, excited such universal discontent, and strained all the springs of power so immoderately, as to occasion the general disorder which ensued, and 'of which the war against the revolution was only the last result.'

"Whether this statement of the case is really true; whether the general efforts were so overstrained; the oppression so intolerable; the debility so great and universal; and whether the revolution, with the war excited against it, was really the consequence thereof, will be examined in another place. The question here is only whether, and how far, all these effects, if they do exist, and so far as they are supposed to exist, have been occasioned by the elevation of Prussia.

"It is evident that Prussia, with a territory comparatively small, and intersected on all sides, could never have risen to a state of the highest rank, and been able to maintain herself there, without new and extraordinary resources. Whether the system of amassing treasure, and that of military conscription, are the best, according to general speculative ideas, is a question I have nothing to do with. The situation, the wants and the objects of Prussia considered, they were wise and useful for her. For Prussia they laid the foundation of a power which she could otherwise never have attained; of a greatness, not merely dazzling and transitory, but solid and durable; and, what is more, the example of Prussia has proved, that a truly good administration, that a high degree of industry and wealth, that the prosperity of the state, and the happiness of individuals, are by no means incompatible with such foundations of power. Prussia has really united them all: a fact which must put every theory to silence. At the breaking out of the French revolution, (for that is still the period to which all our considerations are at present directed) there existed no state in Europe, at once so powerful and so happy as that of Prussia; governed with so much energy and wisdom; so prepared for every foreign undertaking, and so safe from all internal commotion; so capable of the greatest exertions, and so guarded against all disorganization. If it be true that Prussia pointed out to all Europe the way to ruin, it must at least be confessed, that it took great care not to be itself the first to proceed upon it.

"This ruin did not, however, originate in imprudent and untimely imitations of the Prussian system of administration. Such an

assertion is immediately refuted by history. The first and principal part of that system, the *amassing of treasure*, was not imitated by any one power of the first rank; was not even attempted. And though certain forms of military conscription, and particular principles of tactics, may in some instances have found imitators, it is nevertheless an undeniable fact, that every thing which essentially characterizes these methods, has remained exclusively peculiar to Prussia. The strength of the Prussian army was in due proportion to the rank and influence universally conceded to that state since the seven years war; nor did it give occasion to any unnatural efforts, even among its immediate neighbours, much less in countries at a distance from it.

"If it be really true, that many governments in the eighteenth century exceeded their strength in the efforts they made, the cause of this evil must be looked for in more early and less remarkable revolutions. The origin of the extensive military system, and, of course, of all the consequences resulting from it, is to be found in France. The mighty armies, the brilliant administration, the splendid enterprizes, the resources, and the system of finance of Louis XIV, were models for all the states of Europe. At the time of the elevation of Russia, the system founded by Louis XIV, had arrived at maturity; the great outlines were laid down, which every nation was obliged to fill, in order to maintain its importance in the general system. It is the most remarkable circumstance in the fate of Prussia, that she was exalted by the superiour genius of one man, to a situation which seemed to have been originally denied to her. As soon as she had attained this place, there no longer remained any choice with respect to her future conduct, she was compelled to find the means of maintaining it in a lasting and honourable manner. The elevation of Prussia has therefore, in no respect, been productive of pernicious consequences. It has, in no shape, tended to subvert the system established by the treaty of Westphalia. As to the first fundamental object of this treaty, the internal constitution of the empire, so far has it been from destroying it, that it has, on the contrary, more than ever confirmed and secured it. With regard to the next principal object which it had in view, the relations between France and Germany; it has occasioned no other changes in these, than such as were generally beneficial, and not essentially prejudicial to France; such as France herself desired, and contributed to effect by her own political measures. It is equally untrue, that Prussia has disturbed the general balance of Europe; she has only kept pace with the continual progress made by other nations, without forcibly or unnaturally hastening it; she has only displayed in a peculiar degree, the art of making this progress

with more regularity, more order, and more firmness than others, perhaps than any others engaged in the same career.

"If after all this we consider that Prussia, from the moment when she was firmly established, became a bulwark to all the west of Europe, against the attempts of Russia, and a necessary counterbalance to that empire, after its intervention in the general affairs of Europe; that a power so happily situated in the centre of the rest, and in the midst of their principal connections, presented a constant barrier to every violent usurpation; that if the safety of France could require any additional support, it received a new one from the elevation of Prussia; that the powers of Europe, if duly sensible of their true and common interests, must have found it necessary to create such a state, if fate or genius had not anticipated them; if we further consider what extensive benefit has been produced during half a century, by the influence of a nation governed with so much energy and wisdom, with respect to the general cultivation of mankind, industry, literature, the art of government, and every thing exalted and valuable among men; and what useful lessons, what glorious examples, it has afforded to its cotemporaries, and to posterity. It will not be easy to conceive how the elevation of Prussia can ever be ranked among the immediate, or even collateral, causes of the decay and disorganization of Europe."

The following sketch of Danish administration is very just.

"The government of DENMARK, in the same period, was characterized by measures which, though less splendid, were certainly not less praise-worthy in their nature. It united, by a policy equally wise and liberal, the two extremes of all ministerial wisdom. It increased the revenue of the state, while it enriched its subjects: it confirmed its own power, while it gratified a just and reasonable love of liberty. The abolition of the last traces of villanage, the improved cultivation of the country, the wise laws enacted for fixing the relations between the peasantry and the proprietors of land, the liberty of the press, the harmony which reigned between the different orders of the state, the reciprocal confidence between the people and the throne: all these internal improvements form one of the most pleasing pictures which the page of history will have to hand down to posterity."

It is melancholy, it is humiliating, to look back on the conduct of Great Britain toward a power so innoxious and so feeble. Unmindful of the honourable protection formerly granted to Lord Molesworth, an English ambassador has been heard to complain at Copenhagen of the liberty of the press. *Hinc ille clades!* For surely,



unless vindictive feelings had pre-existed, it would have been thought worth while to negotiate for the covert separation of Denmark from her habitual ally, and the guardian of her independence, Russia. If, however, it was just to quarrel and to attack, it was surely expedient to have profited by the hostilities; to have occupied Iceland, Greenland, St. Thomas, Tranquebar, all which could conveniently have been annexed to the colonial possessions and dependencies of Great Britain.

It is well observed by our author, at p. 129, that the different sovereigns of Europe have severally had an interest in the extension and consolidation of the Prussian power, and that its growth is to be ascribed to this peculiarity in its position. Still the growth of Denmark, or of any other German landholder, might have been rendered equally subservient to such purposes of convenience; so that the personal merit of the sovereigns must be called in to solve the secret of its wonderful growth. The observations on the partition of Poland are very just, and deserve extraction.

"While I thus condemn the *principle* of the Polish partition, I may be permitted to differ widely from those opinions of its *consequences*, that prevail among the political writers of the present day, especially with regard to its influence on the balance of power. After attentively considering the subject, I am persuaded the partition of Poland was very far from being prejudicial to that balance; which, in a certain point of view, it even contributed to preserve; and that it has rather been favourable than adverse, to the maintenance of peace and tranquillity in Europe.

"The following are the grounds of this opinion:

1st. "The condition of Poland presented such a contrast to that of its three powerful neighbours, as was highly unfavourable as well to the foreign relations, as to the domestic welfare of the former. Two of those powers had made very considerable progress in every branch of national wealth and civilization; and the third, though by no means so far advanced (in some respects even behind Poland), was at least evidently in a state of improvement. Poland, on the other hand, was restrained from any material advancement, by a constitution which was a continual source of anarchy; which, indeed, was nothing more itself than constituted anarchy. And though the spirit of reform had been powerfully excited in this kingdom, in the last ten years before its abolition, though it at length produced the plan of a

more regular form of government, and had even proceeded to put it in execution; still it is evident the disproportion between its strength, and that of the surrounding states, would have continued; and considering the start those nations had got before it, the lapse of time would probably have served to increase, rather than diminish, the difference. The necessary consequence of this disproportion, was the continual dependance of Poland upon one of its neighbours; and the consequence of that dependance was the continuance of domestic faction, foreign cabal, and intestine dissensions. Such would have been the fate of that unhappy country, whatever the nature of its new constitution. This focus of disorder, formed in an active, ingenious, ardent, and not unwarlike nation, must necessarily have kept the north of Europe in constant uneasiness and alarm, would have multiplied the plans and counter-plans of cabinets, and have made it absurd to reckon upon ten successive years of peace. This focus has vanished. The great mass of territory between the Oder and the Black Sea, the Carpathian Mountains, and the Frozen Ocean, is now governed by three sovereigns, who have at least no constant principle of disorder, jealousy, and division, between them; who are at liberty to devote themselves, each according to his means and penetration, to the civilization and improvement of their respective countries; and who need only subdue their own ambition, in order to live in peace and amity with each other. All this is, indeed, but a feeble and melancholy consolation for the deeply-wounded spirit, the too just indignation and regret of a POLISH MAGNATE; but the judgment of every impartial politician, will pronounce it a great and important advantage; an advantage which all the north of Europe, and perhaps Poland itself, will in less than a century have felt and acknowledged.

2dly "The partition of Poland has not destroyed the equilibrium between the powers concerned in it; their reciprocal relations have become by so much more stable and secure, as they have at least in one, and that a very important respect, been rendered more simple and permanent. The share allotted to each has been in due proportion to its former relative strength and extent of territory: in their common plan of aggrandizement, they provided against the preponderance of one over the others. With respect to the maintenance of peace among them, it appears to me rather a favourable circumstance than otherwise, that the points of contact are so numerous between their respective territories. These were formerly divided by a country which none of them could consider a safeguard, because it was no where fortified, and not easily defended; but which they all occasionally used as a magazine, or a place of arms; while, by making it the theatre of their military operations, they at once eco-



nomized and multiplied their respective resources. The slightest misunderstanding now endangers the immediate interest of all the three states; wherever the war breaks out, it must be carried on in their own country; and the suffering party bears all the mischief and destruction that attends it. In this state of things, the desire of remaining at peace must surely be more serious and effectual than it was before.

"The balance of power was not merely uninjured by the Polish partition; that event even tended to strengthen and improve it. The equality of the partition was only apparent; for the weaker parties were in fact much greater gainers by it than the stronger. This circumstance, the most important of all, deserves to be more attentively examined.

"I argue from the two following principles: if two or more nations of very unequal magnitude, are increased in an exact *numerical* proportion (that is, with respect to their territorial extent, their population, revenues, &c.) the *political* result will always be more advantageous than in that proportion to the smaller state; and if two states, of which one has its territories sufficiently rounded, while the other yet wants that compactness, extend their territories in an equal degree, the advantage of the latter is without comparison more considerable than that of the former.

"It will be easy to decide upon the consequences of the above partition, if these principles be admitted, and I think the truth of them is evident from the very nature of the things themselves. The advantage which Prussia derived from the measure, exceeded what accrued to the others. If Prussia, for example, acquired as many hundred square miles as Russia did thousands, the real increase of strength resulting from these respective additions, was the most important for Prussia. Hitherto all the exertions of that state, the strength of its armies, the number of its fortresses, its magazines, its accumulated treasures, its preparations for defence, had either exceeded, or dangerously encroached upon the true basis of its power. That Russia was enabled by this acquisition to add 20 or 30,000 men to her armies, was of far less consequence to her, than it was to Prussia (without any considerable addition to her military establishment) to secure new sources of riches and revenue, and to give new strength to the overstrained springs of her bold and artificial machine. With respect to the rounding of her territories, she was, perhaps, a still greater gainer. Austria acquired no more by the province of Galicia, than its intrinsic value; for Austria had long since been a compact and rounded state. But Prussia only became such by her share of the partition of Poland, which connected her provinces, till then divided and dispersed. The boundaries of her terri-

tory were now in one continued line, and the detached parts of her dominions were now blended into a solid mass, more capable of uniform activity and effectual resistance. If, while one state is merely increased, another is at once increased and improved in its situation, it certainly cannot be doubtful which of the two is the greater gainer."

On the conduct of the anti-jacobin war, Mr. Gentz rightly observes,

"Some evil genius seems to have perplexed the councils of every cabinet, and paralyzed their political and military energies; for it has been their fate to meet the most trying difficulties with pitiful projects, half measures, weak and incapable instruments, and a deplorable deficiency of every thing the magnitude of the occasion required. They too late, if ever, learned the character of their enemy, and how to combat revolutionary weapons and resources. There was no plan, coherence, or uniformity, in their proceedings; no two of them were of one opinion. Their unfortunate dissections, the fatal influence of their private interests, their want of unanimity and concert, the tardiness and indecision of their measures, redoubled the strength and courage of their enemy. Capable at most of a weak and partial defence, unequal to a vigorous and uniform attack, they formed no effective coalition, but were merely a reluctant assemblage of ill-according parts. They were, in short, unfortunately for the interests of Europe, any thing imaginable, except what the subtle declamations of the enemy, and the easy credulity of the age, have represented and believed.

"The issue of a war so conducted, between such parties, could not be doubtful, and, in fact, was exactly such as had been predicted by all men of judgment and penetration. The first of its unfortunate results, was the entire failure of the original and only object of the coalesced powers. While they were all wasting their strength, and many of them hastening to ruin, the revolution was triumphant; the most scandalous enormities remained unpunished; the perpetrators of the most atrocious crimes that ever disgraced the earth, ascended the throne of Louis XIV, assumed a plenitude of authority, to which the power of that mighty despot bears no comparison, and drowned the monarchy of France in the blood of its last defenders. But this was not all; they overran the neighbouring states; they devoured the substance of the richest countries in Europe; they carried the symbol of their tyranny, under the name of the use of liberty, through an hundred provinces; they extended their territory on all sides by conquest, by forced alliances, or by compulsory treaties; and when all this was accomplished, resistance no longer possible, the dominion

of the revolutionary rulers established, and the balance of Europe irrecoverably lost; the single hope that yet remained, that of seeing the monstrous edifice fall to pieces of itself, suddenly vanished; the scene changed, and this colossal fabric, these new resources, these territorial acquisitions, these forced connections, this military power and terrible preponderance, were all consolidated in the hands of a regular, skilful, and comparatively popular government. The old revolutionary system was demolished as a useless pile. No principle of rule was now acknowledged, but the will and ambition of the reigning party, and the genius of its chief; and this government thus strengthened and consolidated, gave laws to a great part of Europe."

The grand mistake of the confederates, was to imagine that, in order to oppose most effectually the French power, opposite principles to those which constituted that power, ought to be brought into play. Ever since the American war, eleutherism had been the fashion of Europe; it was in order to come at a freer, or more democratic constitution of government, that the people of Avignon, Savoy, and Milan, of Bern, Flanders, and Holland, were so many of them disposed to open their gates to the invader. Without the undivided allegiance of the common people, none of the contiguous countries had a chance of resisting the inroads of France. The magistrates were sure that the abhorers of French doctrines would resist; the difficulty was to secure the co-operation of the abettors: to this there was clearly no road but compromise; no road but the concession of the more specious claims. Any concessions would have excited the hope of further acquisition; and this hope of obtaining redress at home, and by internal means, added to the ineradicable partiality for one's natal soil and habitual sovereign, must have decided the liberty-mongers to act along with their countrymen. But even if a domestic jacobinization had been necessary to arm Switzerland, Flanders, and Holland, against France; that ought to have been preferred to aristocratic grounds of defence, which by their very nature secured the disaffection of the numerous classes, who are, in a case of invasion, the only important ones.

Mr. Gentz thus sums up the present prospects of Europe.

"I will here briefly recapitulate the foregoing observations, and present the follow-

ing results of this view of the present relations between France and Europe; which, though indeed only my individual opinion, is founded throughout upon facts.

1st, "France has extended her limits on all sides, by military or revolutionary operations. She has destroyed the independence of the neighbouring states, either by regular conquest, as in the case of Flanders, Savoy, the Rhine lands, &c. or under colour of alliance, as with Holland, Spain, Switzerland, and the Italian republics; or finally, by the right of power only, as in the subjection of all Italy, as far as the Adige. The ancient constitutions of all these countries have been demolished, and France has established an empire upon their ruins, which has no parallel in Europe.

2dly, "This total obliteration of her former limits, this destruction of every safeguard of her neighbours; this military force, alike extraordinary in extent and efficacy, and far exceeding even her territorial aggrandizement in proportion; these have given a preponderance to France, against which no continental power, not even the greatest, can contend with any chance of success.

3dly, "Were France to abuse this prodigious preponderance, and not content with her present acquisitions, were she to prescribe too hard conditions to the rest of Europe, a general league would be the only means of resisting the danger.

4thly, "Such is the geographical, military, and political situation of France, that no league against her could be in the least effectual, in which Austria, or Prussia, or both, are not engaged.

5thly, "In every future war of Austria or Prussia, separately against France, the probability of victory (to say no more) is on the side of the latter: and even the alliance of either with a third state, would not form a counterpoise to France, if the other remained neuter; they could, at the most, only lessen the disproportion.

6thly, "Austria and Prussia must, therefore, act in concert, to afford a hope of effectual protection to Germany in any future war.

7thly, "But an intimate alliance between those two powers, is the most improbable, the most difficult, of all political combinations. Thus vanishes the basis of every federative guarantee against France, as soon as we have discovered it.

8thly, "In the whole sphere of federal relations, there is no alliance (in the common acceptation of the word) that can form a counterpoise to France. This can only be accomplished by the means always dangerous and uncertain, of a coalition, whenever the necessity of an active resistance shall arise: and as every coalition against France must be general, (because the whole of Germany, and consequently all the allies of the leading powers of the empire, must necessarily be

engaged in it); so the only refuge that remains to Europe against France, is the most dangerous, the most uncertain, the most intricate and difficult of all political measures."

We do not partake Mr. Gentz's despair. Wherever a whole people are bent on defending themselves against invasion, they either effect it, or render the invasion so costly in men and treasure to the invader, that it becomes on his part an imprudent enterprize. Thus the Greeks withstood all Persia: the Swiss all Austria; the Hollanders all Spain; and so did the Portuguese. It follows, that any country which is governed as well as it can be, in its then stage of culture and information, is nearly secure; and that negligent legislation, and a contempt for the allegiance of the lower classes, are the usual causes of that indifference to the commonwealth, which can alone facilitate foreign usurpation. The Roman empire, while its laws, police, and administration, were on the whole desirable, continued to extend: when its

taxes, and military levies, became oppressive to the remoter provinces, it began to yield to the barbarians. Why are the Dutch colonies diminished? not that they could not resist, but that they chose to accept British supremacy. It is so with the conquests of France. They ought to be progressive, while they bestow the best continental government. Let Germany awake, and give herself a better constitution, and to the citizens of her comprehensive family, offer a milder legislation, a purer tolerance, a more profitable industry, a richer literature, a more liberal and rational religion, and a representation selected in a higher, in a virtuous order of talents, and the frontiers of France will wester again, and the Rhine will flow as of old, between German banks; and the Strasburgers will melt down in scorn those jubilee-coins which, after a century of subjection to the master of Paris, they struck with the inscription

"*Cui se subjectam Argentina gaudet.*"

ART. XXVII. *L'Empire Germanique réduit en Départemens, sous le Prefecture de l'Electeur de B—.* 8vo.

IF the German empire was to be divided into departments under the prefecture of the House of Brandenburg, it would have little to regret in the ancient order of things. Those imperial cities, indeed, which are governed by elective corporations, and possess an independent sovereignty, which enables them to harbour and protect a free press, would ehange their condition for the worse, by submitting to Prussia. But those puny feudal sovereignties of the German princes would have reason to rejoice in their consolidation with an empire whose laws are so wise, whose protection is so efficacious, whose administration is so skilful, and whose sovereign teaches, by example, frugality, and the domestic virtues.

This author endeavours to prove that such an attraction and annexation of the petty states of the empire, is the secret object of the whole conduct of the House of Brandenburg; that even Hanover is not secure of the melancholy privilege of being the last devoured; and that Austria is entitled to oppose, by every mean in its power, this wise-acre cabinet; which, to every spendthrift

prince, lends money on the mortgage of a parish; which watches every land-fall like a legacy-hunter; which takes villages in pledges; and acquires sovereignty, like the Medici, by its pawn-broking; which cribs whole counties by chicane; and conquers provinces by getting law-suits at the Diet.

The pamphlet concludes by recommending to those princes, who are likely to be the victims of the system of indemnity, to take up arms "in concert with (p. 77) the chief of the empire, whom they have deserted; with Holland regularly pillaged by the commissaries of the French government; with Switzerland, occupied and trodden under foot by its armies; with Piedmont, snatched from the mild sway of its sovereign, and doomed to the sword of special commissions; with Italy, every where oppressed and desolated; with England, who measured herself so long alone against the common foe, and who alone came out of the struggle without any losses but her voluntary sacrifices to peace; with all Europe, oppressed, ravaged, tormented, and insulted; with a threatened and an indignant world."

ART. XXVIII. *A Political Essay on the Commerce of Portugal and her Colonies, particularly of Brazil, in South America.* By J. J. DA CUNHA AZAREDO COUTINHO, Bishop of Fernambuco, and Fellow of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon. Translated from the Portuguese. 8vo. pp. 204.

THIS translation is inscribed, probably by permission, to the Earl of Liverpool; and, in the very dedication, contains the following suggestion:

"At the present crisis, when it may become a measure of policy and expedience, for Great Britain, to take under her protection the colonial possessions of Portugal, her overpowered, but faithful ally, every information, that relates to these colonies, must be highly valuable to the British administration. The delusive peace just concluded between Portugal on the one side, and France and Spain on the other, it must be obvious to every one, who is capable of reflecting on the subject, is only designed, by the latter powers, to avoid throwing the colonies of that country into the arms of Great Britain."

The original was inscribed to the Prince of Brazil by the author, who is a native of that country, and is published at the expence of the Academy of Sciences at Lisbon.

At page 5, the following fact is mentioned; it is strongly characteristic of that lazy inattention to the known arts of life which, in all the English colonies, have been so carefully infused, and so animatingly preserved:

"This superb country produces animals of every description. The number of cows is so great that they are, for the most part, only slaughtered for the sake of their skins. This is proved by the many thousand hides annually exported. Milk is, of course, no less abundant. The portion of meat, which suffices for the nourishment of the inhabitants, bears no comparison with the quantity that is lost. Birds and wild beasts, particularly tygers, profit of this circumstance. Dearness of salt is the sole cause of the loss thus occasioned.

"Nature, however, produces a great deal of sea-salt in Brasil. In Bajo, near Cabo Frio, and Cabo de St. Roque, this useful article is gathered in such abundance, that whole ships might be loaded with it."

Similar proofs of the deficient commercial exploitation of these colonies perpetually occur. So at p. 12 the author says: "A handkerchief is sold for more at Rio Grande than a fat ox."

Many paragraphs recommend the encouragement of the fisheries. Probably as many fish are caught as the inhabitants choose to eat. It is not probable that Europe could be supplied from a

new country, where all the forms of employing capital are very productive, and the wages of all labour very high; and consequently where the trade of fishing would be burdened with two heavy drawbacks of profit. The Indians of Brazil, our author thinks, are peculiarly adapted to make good sailors.

The following passage celebrates some barbarous heroes, whom our epic poets may be glad to hear of:

"The conquest of the government of St. Vicente, in Brasil, by the Portuguese, is wholly due to the celebrated Indian Tebiresa, that of Baja to the gallant Tabira, that of Fernambuco to the mettlesome Itagiba (implying in the Indian language iron-hand), and the great Piragiba, who, on account of his zeal in defending the Portuguese, was presented with a dress and tent of the Order of Jesus. The acquisition and subjection of Paro and Maranhao was chiefly the work of the famed Tomagica, and other Indians, who served in the army of the Portuguese in their wars against the Dutch; as likewise the effect of the exploits of the invincible Camaroa, who immortalized his name, in the war waged, by the Portuguese, against the Dutch, for the re-conquest of Fernambuco."

The whole sixth chapter, which contains an account of the incipient civilization of a tribe of Indians, called Wetaatzes, furnishes a new proof that benevolence alone disbarbarizes the savage. It is by applying European art in a manner conformable to their own habits and wishes, that a taste for more convenient lodgment, apparel, and accommodation, can alone be generated. By building a bathing-room such as the Wetaatzes wanted, they are led to assemble, and it becomes a bazar, a perpetual fair for profitable interchange.

"1. The Indians of Ouetacazes have, like almost all other nations of Brasil, their faults and vices. But, on the other hand, they are endowed with virtues, worthy of the imitation of the most polished people of Europe. They distinguish themselves, in an eminent degree, by their love toward each other, and even towards strangers, who are their friends. All property is common. Their gratitude and fidelity to benefactors is peculiarly sincere and affecting: they often sacrifice their lives for them. The long intercourse which I have till now had with the Indians of



Ouetacazes, and the fidelity which they have at all times evinced toward my family, enable me to speak, on this topic, with all the conviction and feeling of my own experience."

"2. Though this people, the implacable enemy of the Portuguese, and all other European nations, nay, even of all the tribes of Brasil, retain still their independence; yet they live at least with their neighbours, the inhabitants of the provinces called *campos dos Ouetacazes*, and *Minas Geraes*, in perfect friendship. The many acts of kindness and benevolence which my ancestors conferred upon them, brought about that wonderful reconciliation, which force of arms could never effect. I am still in possession of the acts made, and the negotiations carried on, under my own eyes, for the purpose of concluding a treaty with those Indians.

"3. Domingos Alvarez Pesanka, my mother's grandfather, and governor of the country of the Ouetacazes, at last, wholly gained over this invincible nation, by loading them with benefits, granting them certain liberties and immunities, and treating them in the most hospitable and affectionate manner.

"4. No sooner had this governor concluded treaties of friendship with those Indians, than, in order to render his well-acquired popularity more considerable, and to establish a greater intimacy between them and the Portuguese, he provided them with settlements at Santa Cruz, on the eastern bank of the river Paraibo do Sul, at the distance of one league from the town of San Salvador; and caused to be erected for them a large and spacious building, which was entirely fitted up and furnished according to their own taste. This edifice stands quite close to the water's edge, so that they may bathe themselves, according to custom, every morning and afternoon.

"5. This same building, which now serves them as a warehouse, is always crowded with strangers, who come from beyond the mountains, to deal with the inhabitants of this province.

"The chief branches of their trade, which consists wholly in bartering commodities, are wax and honey, of which there is here great plenty; birds and quadrupeds of the forest, and especially a certain kind of clay, of which pots and vessels are made, so strong as to resist the most violent fire. If they have not goods enough of these sorts to barter for swords, tools, salt, &c. &c. they fell trees, a business in which they excel in dexterity.

"Each of them works just as much as is necessary to procure any commodity he has a particular wish for. Thus an Indian of Ouetacazes will work two or three days, until the produce of his labour shall be sufficient to barter for a sword, or some other tool, or a piece of iron, a metal the most indispensable, and most valuable, to the Indians.—

They never have occasion for any wearing apparel,

"6. If any covenant or treaty be made with the Ouetacazes, let them be treated, on such occasion, with the fairest candour and greatest integrity, still a certain mistrust remains in their minds, which prevents them from finally entering into any engagement, however beneficial to them, without having previously taken the advice of their benefactor, or his sons, who have always treated them with the greatest candour. The moment these assure them that they may contract those engagements without risk or danger, they immediately come to a conclusion with the other contracting parties. They give to their benefactors such very frequent proofs of gratitude in this way, that they are fit patterns of imitation with regard to this virtue.

"7. Scarce had the Ouetacazes vanquished the people of Coropoko, before they made them members of their own state; so that, at present, they form but one nation, under the common name of Coroados, or shaved-heads. They inhabit an extensive tract of country of one hundred leagues in length, extending from the northern bank of the river Paraiba, to the southern border of the river Xipoto, in the neighbourhood of Villa Rica.

"8. When the inhabitants of Minas Geraes began to open mines, and dig for precious metals, in the environs of their country, those Indians attacked them; and, notwithstanding all the efforts made by the invaded, notwithstanding the loss on their part of a great many men, and the expenditure of a large sum of money, they were never conquered or expelled. Tired, at last, of that cruel and long protracted war, they themselves craved peace of those very Indians in 1757. The latter, however, though the inhabitants of the fields of Ouetacazes were their friends, would not conclude a peace, otherwise than with the consent of father Angelo Pesanka (my mother's brother), who, after the death of the governor before-mentioned, had become their patron.

"9. Satisfied with this condition, the inhabitants of Minas Geraes, especially senhor Silverio Teixeira, then inspector of the royal treasury at Villa Rica, sent a letter to father Angelo, entreating him to put a speedy termination to that cruel and bloody war.

"Father Angelo granted their request. He immediately set out, accompanied by those very Indians, who faithfully conducted him through those parts of the country, where no vestige of a Portuguese was to be found. Being arrived at the borders of the country of Minas Geraes, a peace was concluded there in 1758, which has been kept inviolate, and without the smallest infringement or change, till this very day.—



" 10. Soon after, in 1767, when Luis Diogo Lobo da Silva was governor of Minas Geraes, the Cujeto Indians, more commonly called Botocudos, and Gamelas, appeared there, and committed dreadful ravages upon the possessions of the inhabitants of Arrajal de Antonio Dias, on the northern bank of the river Pereicaba.

" 11. Being attacked by those new enemies, the people of Minas Geraes had again recourse to the governor. But, notwithstanding he gave them all the assistance in his power, they were baffled in every attempt to dislodge them. But no sooner had father Angelo summoned the Indians of Ouetaçazes to fight in defence of their friends and allies, than they rushed with such fury upon the Botocudos and Gamelas, that they forced them to a precipitate retreat as far as the Amazon river; and, since that time, these dangerous foes have never dared to molest the people of the mines.

" 12. Those very Botocudos and Gamelas became the heralds of the fame and reputation of the patron of their conquerors. His fame resounded from mouth to mouth, as far as the banks of the Meari, in the vicinage of Maranhao, where this event is still fresh in every body's memory. It will serve as an unperishable monument of the good faith and gratitude of the Indians of Ouetaçazes, who cherish the memory of their patrons, in the remotest part of their country, and even in the midst of their enemies.

" This warlike nation serves as an impenetrable bulwark to their neighbours, the inhabitants of Campos dos Ouetaçazes and Minas Geraes. They live free from alarm, and in the most perfect security. The invincible Indians of Ouetaçazes, our brave friends and allies, afford them the fullest protection against every attack of other races of Brasilians, who are hostilely disposed."

Many curious facts concerning the commercial wants of Brasil are scattered in this work, which merit the attention of those persons, who fit out vessels for the South Sea whale fishery, some of

whom carry on, it is said, an important contraband trade with the Portuguese and Spanish settlements.

Our author very properly recommends to open the ports of Brasil for the exportation of timber. In fact, they should be opened for all trade whatsoever, and the profit of the patron-country, instead of being obtained through the medium of commercial monopoly, ought to be pursued through the medium of taxation.

The second part of this work speculates concerning the practicable amelioration of the African and Asiatic colonies of the Portuguese. The author every where displays much of the appropriate information, a patriotic spirit, a flowery style, and a disposition to make those slight unalarming reforms, in the right direction, which would certainly benefit both the giver and the receiver. A bolder policy, and a deeper consideration, would probably begin to speculate on the eventual absorption of Portugal by Spain, on the extinction of its independence, its glories, and its name. Next would arise a doubt, whether the descendants of those who won their independence with Braganza, are all bound to resume the servitude they spurned; and whether that degree of approbation and aid would not be readily afforded by the maritime nations of Europe, which might be requisite to enable the transatlantic settlers, in their own name, and by their own right, to open their ports to the ships of every nation, and to establish that liberal system of unfettered commercial intercourse, which is certainly most conducive to the speedy enrichment, and consequent civilization and activity of an empire.

### THE LATE WAR, AND TREATY OF AMIENS.

ART. XXIX. *Eight Letters on the Peace, and on the Commerce and Manufactures of Great Britain.* By Sir F. MORTON EDEN, Bart. 8vo. pp. 132.

THESE excellent letters do great honour to the writer; they display the education of a scholar, the urbanity of a gentleman, and the information of a statist. They are addressed to the editor of the Porcupine, in which paper they were originally inserted, and form a victorious reply to Mr. Cobbett's Letters to the right honourable Henry Addington on the Peace with Bonaparte.

The first letter treats of the preliminaries; the second of the state of San Domingo; the third, of the balance of power; the fourth, on the conquest of Egypt. Sir Frederic Morton Eden estimates its value very justly; but we lament to hear him applauding the expedition against Copenhagen; of which both the conduct and the principle are surely open to criticism.

"In estimating the probability of future security, we do not appear to have attached sufficient importance to the events of the last campaign. The force of nations depends as much on their moral character, as on their territorial and financial resources. A people who think themselves inferior to their adversaries in military skill and martial prowess, are already half conquered. Doubt is the beginning of despair. Most of the successes of the French are ascribable to energy and confidence. *Possunt quia posse videntur*. The charm, however, which led them on from victory to victory, is at length, I trust for ever, dissolved. They now must know that, even with superior numbers, they are not more formidable to us in the field than on the ocean. That a French army of equal force ever successfully withstood the British bayonet, no fair instance, I believe, can be adduced. From the nature, however, of a continental war, few opportunities have occurred for large bodies of our troops to act unconnected with foreigners. But the expedition to Egypt has proved that, in discipline, valour, endurance of fatigue, patient persevering exertion, the veterans of France may be excelled by the youth of Britain. Our army has added a never-fading wreath to the laurels won at Blenheim, Minden, and Quebec. Posterity will read with astonishment, that less than 14,000 of our troops, many of whom had been nearly a twelvemonth at sea, landed in a country above 3,000 miles distant from their own, a country too strongly fortified by nature, and garrisoned by 28,000 French, the flower of those victorious legions who had spread terror through Italy, and unquished the best troops of Austria. By three battles, and two sieges, we re-conquered Egypt in less than six months, and sent home 23,000 Frenchmen,

disgusted with schemes of Indian conquest, and humbled by defeat. They will record our triumphs in every department of the republic, and teach their countrymen to remember for many years to come, that the last events of the war were disastrous to France, and glorious to Great Britain. Our exploits at Aboukir, Alexandria, and Cairo, by impressing the French with correct notions of our means of defence, will add security to peace. The Invincibles, who fled before us in Africa, will not intimidate us in Europe.

"If a northern confederacy should again be formed to invade our maritime rights, which have been formally recognised by the convention of Petersburg, the Sound will form no barrier to our fleets, the harbours of the Baltic will furnish no protection to an armed neutrality. In 1780 we were insulted with impunity: in 1800, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia, again attempted to insult us; but the lesson they have received from the battle of Copenhagen will prevent the attempt from being repeated."

The fifth letter relates to the commerce of Great Britain, and the trade with the conquered islands. The sixth, to the trade with neutral powers. The seventh, to the trade with the British colonies: and the eighth and last, to the trade with the belligerent powers.

After reading such a pamphlet, and comparing it with the official harangues of modern ministers, one cannot but admit that the measures of government are sometimes more efficiently and satisfactorily defended from the press than in the house.

ART. XXX. *Remarks on the late Definitive Treaty of Peace, signed at Amiens, March 25, 1802.* By WILLIAM BELSHAM. 8vo. pp. 52.

THE antijacobin war (for so that war, whose wounds are yet to heal, may with strict propriety be called) was conducted with the usual unskilfulness of noisy anger. Our ministers were rich in words, and poor in deeds of injury. Our naval victories, brilliant beyond the example of history, or the hope of reason, were so contrived, that not one of them added an island, a province, or a friend, to the empire. Of our military expeditions, not any, except those to Holland, Egypt, and Malta, were justified by policy, or could have been productive, directly or indirectly, of national advantage. The opportunity of occupying the vast plains of Louisiana, was neglected for the feverish shore of Saint

Domingo. Dunkirk, Quiberon, Ferrol, Corsica, Minorca, were snatched at, like flies by children, to be winged and let go. Portugal, our ally, was meanly abandoned. Holland, our ally, was made to furnish our acquisitions. The equivocal neutrality of Denmark, a satellite and prompted power, was captiously converted into hostility. Abandoned by all our allies, even the hired; cankered by our exorbitant expence; degraded by our very acquisitions; it required all the hereditary diplomatic skill of Lord Hawkesbury to negotiate a respectable peace.

His coming into office was surrounded with every disadvantage. Not one of his colleagues was known to Europe by the experience of statemanship, or the

splendour of talent. Not one could prop the decayed popularity of government by transferring any of the domestic parties who were united in opposition to the war. Their obscurity could not but infuse the suspicion abroad, that they were not intended to be nice; and that internal causes had rendered it expedient to accept an inglorious peace. Who then but must feel grateful for the exertions which obtained even a treaty of Amiens?

Of the result of these exertions, Mr. William Belsham here undertakes the entire defence. It is the design of his remarks, he tells us,

“ To demonstrate to the candid and impartial reader, that the terms of the late treaty are just, honourable, and equitable: and that the ministers who concluded it, deserve the praise and gratitude, and not the disapprobation and censure of their fellow citizens.”

This is in a high degree accomplished by reprinting the treaty in an abridged form, and accompanying each article with appropriate defensive comments. Difficult articles to defend were the sixth and seventh; we shall reprint them with the appertaining justification.

VI. “ The port of the Cape of Good Hope remains to the Batavian republic in full sovereignty, as it did previous to the war.”

“ There was a minister of state—a phrase by no means synonymous with that of statesman—who, at the period of the conquest, or rather the capture of the Cape, declared, ‘ that the man who should dare to surrender back that settlement, whenever peace was concluded, ought to be impeached.’ Yet peace is concluded; the *quondam* minister has been reminded of this declaration, and the peace-makers remain unimpeached.

“ This declaration partakes of the rashness and presumption of that famous address in the war of the succession, by which the crown was advised to listen to no terms of pacification, not founded on the basis of the restitution of the entire monarchy of Spain to the house of Austria, and of the equally famous vote in a subsequent war, by which it was declared, that no peace should be made with Spain till the pretended right of search in the American seas, was explicitly and unequivocally renounced. Yet the peace of Utrecht left the Spanish monarchy in the possession of the House of Bourbon; and that of Aix-la-Chapelle contained not a syllable respecting the right of search. When will vanity and presumption submit to learn lessons of moderation and discretion? Those who have exclaimed so vehemently in this and other instances, against the stipulations of the present treaty, seem to have taken for granted that England had it in her power to dictate

the terms of it;—an extravagant and ridiculous supposition! The fact is, that we had no option but to relinquish the Cape, or to continue the war. Even had it been in our power to have retained the settlement, it is extremely doubtful whether the advantage would have balanced the expense. As the Cape is virtually declared by this article to be a free port, the advantage is wisely secured, unincumbered by the attendant expense.

VII. “ The territories and possessions of her most faithful majesty are maintained in their integrity, such as they were antecedent to the war; with the exception of Olivenza and its district; part of the province of Alentejo eastward of the Guadiana, transferred to Spain by the treaty of Badajoz; and also of that part of Portuguese Guiana situated to the north of the river Arawari ceded to France.”

“ This proved the most contentious article in the treaty, and that which it was found most difficult finally to arrange and settle. It therefore requires some consideration and explanation.

“ According to the tenor of the preliminary articles, signed in London October 1, 1801, Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity. But whether that integrity was to be understood to refer to its state before, or subsequent to the treaty of Badajoz, then actually concluded, was not specified—perhaps not even agreed upon. But what greatly increased the embarrassment relative to that feeble and helpless kingdom, was the treaty signed between France and Portugal at Madrid, within two days of the signing the preliminaries in London, conformably to which the whole of Portuguese Guiana, northward of the Orellana, or the river of Amazons, was ceded to France, together with the free navigation of that mighty stream. England had no express or exclusive authority to treat for Portugal; and if Portugal herself thought proper, for whatever reason, to relinquish any part of her territory, France might with great plausibility urge, that England had no right to interfere in order to prevent it. And, on the other hand, if England, as the victorious power, had a right to insist upon the cession of Trinidad from Spain, either by way of security or indemnity, Spain had the same right to insist upon an indemnification from Portugal. In short, peace could not be obtained unless Portugal made some sacrifices in order to purchase it.

“ By the cession of the district of Olivenza, the river Guadiana became the boundary of that kingdom; and the loss of territory was so small, that the power of Portugal could scarcely be said to be diminished, or rather her impotency to be in any sensible degree increased by it.

“ The cession to France was a matter of far greater consequence. By extending her territory to the Orellana, and acquiring the free navigation of that vast river, the founda-

then would be laid of a great Gallic empire in South America. This, therefore, was deemed an object worthy of the interposition of Great Britain to prevent: and upon this important point the negotiation had nearly broken off. Happily, however, a compromise was at last found; and the French government had the laudable moderation ultimately to recede from this alarming claim, and to consent that the most northerly branch of the Arawari should be the boundary of their dominion in that quarter of the globe. By this means, though France obtained an addition of territory, the grand point was conceded to Portugal, or rather to England, as will be evident to every unprejudiced person on the bare inspection of the maps; the river Arawari no more emptying itself into the river of the Amazons, as has been ridiculously pretended, than the river Humber empties itself into the Thames; both rivers running in nearly parallel directions, and falling at length into the same ocean.

"For this essential service, the court of Lisbon expressed its high sense of obligation to the British government, although it has been made the topic of the most unjust and preposterous reproaches, by a disappointed and furious faction at home—a faction, the prevalence of whose wild and malignant politics is equally to be dreaded and deprecated, as having a direct tendency to make the world a scene of everlasting animosity, contention, and bloodshed."

This may satisfy the multitude, surely not the statesman. Where is Great Britain to find an ally in future wars, if the interests of her allies are thus sported with in her treaties? Is it clear that the Cape could not have been bought with Malta? or the integrity of Portugal with Trinidad? and that we had in fact no option but to relinquish such objects, or to continue the war? *Pleraque in summa fortuna auspiciis et conciliis magis quam telis et manibus geri solent.*

ART. XXXI. *The Letter of the Honourable C. J. Fox to the Electors of Westminster, dated January 26, 1793, with an Application of its Principles to subsequent Events. By R. ADAIR, Esq. M. P. 8vo. pp. 86.*

THE letter of Mr. Fox to the electors of Westminster, is in every one's recollection. This is a re-publication of that letter; and an application of the principles contained in it, to subsequent events. It has for its object to shew, and it succeeds in shewing, that had Mr. Fox's advice been acted upon, great evils would have been avoided by the country. The most interesting part of the original matter is the indirect refutation of Mr. Marsh's account of the origin of the war.

Among the remarks annexed, occurs the following.

"After all, of what is it that BONAPARTE, that military and political prodigy, stands accused?—of being the perpetrator of crimes? or the author of unheard of oppressions and miseries? Has he waded through slaughter to a throne? or has he shut the gates of mercy on mankind? NO: the whole of the charge amounts to this—that he has not done all the good which his accusers think he might have done in his present station, or which, in their opinion, ought to have been done. But if France is happy, why should we vent our unavailing discontent in gloomy or intemperate invectives? If France is pleased, why should we be displeased? A man must flatter himself strangely, if he imagines that he either could or would have acted, upon the whole, better than Bonaparte has done, in the inconceivably difficult situation which he has, by such a wonderful series of events, been imperiously called upon to occupy."

We cannot approve these daring forms of justification. Suppose Mr. Belsham's large letter *no* had been printed *yet*; would not all the previous interrogations have been answered with superior probability and precision? It is surely not of useful tendency to ascribe all sorts of virtues to the successful; to embellish a Septimius Severus into a Scipio; or to saint the criminality of a Constantine. Titus, by prosecuting libellers and rewarding flatterers, has descended to posterity as a benefactor of mankind; and has buried the memory of his Syrian enormities under the chiselled marble of expensive panegyric. It is better to render praise inseparable from virtue: and to make desert the condition of immortality.

As a specimen take this passage.

"But the greatest error of all, was the silence which was observed at this period towards France. Again let us look to dates. On the 27th of December M. Chauvelin had required of ministers 'a frank and open declaration as to their intentions with regard to France;' and had offered, beforehand, explanations on certain points, on which the French government conceived that a rupture might take place with Great Britain. On the 29th, ministers sent off their plan of alliance, and the detail of its purposes, to Russia; but they kept back their answer to



M. Chauvelin until the 31st; and even then Lord Grenville confined himself in it entirely to the unsatisfactory nature of the explanations offered by the French council to the objections they had themselves anticipated. 'The frank and clear explanation of his views,' instead of communicating through M. Chauvelin to France, he reserved to be communicated by Lord Whitworth to Russia. Now let us only suppose that Lord Grenville had opened to M. Chauvelin the substance of this dispatch of the 29th, instead of sending him the angry answer he did on the 31st, and will it then be denied that the country would have derived these three advantages from such a proceeding; first, that by a fair possibility, and supposing for the sake of argument ministers to have been pacifically inclined, it might have led to a re-establishment of the good understanding with France? Secondly, that it would have removed the chief difficulty in the way of future peace, by clearly ascertaining the object of the war? And thirdly, that we and the rest of Europe, if France had refused us the satisfaction required, would have found a common tie of alliance, and a principle of steady and vigorous co-operation?

"To have communicated these proposals to France, therefore, was not only the duty, but certainly would have been the policy of ministers, had they really intended to limit their warlike exertions to objects of a nature purely defensive, and those secured, fairly to leave France to the settlement of her internal concerns. For what would then have been

their conduct? Having to choose between two principles of war, they would have chosen in a manner so decisive and unambiguous, as, in pursuing that for which they declared, to preclude the possibility of resorting afterwards to that which they disclaimed. The substance of the dispatch to Russia, therefore, instead of being coldly mentioned at that court, and that court only, where it appears to have died away in a whisper, would have been addressed to Austria, Prussia, and the German states, as offering the basis of an alliance on the condition of their renouncing *in limine*, all project of imposing a government upon France. Had this line been adopted and vigorously pursued by Great Britain, accompanied by explicit declarations that such, and such only, were the terms on which her ministers could consent to embark her in a continental war, what must have followed? Inevitably one of these consequences,—that if France, upon notification of our terms, had accepted, and the German powers refused them, we should have remained most honourably at peace; or that if those powers had accepted, and France refused them, we should have had such an alliance against her, as Europe never yet assembled together against any danger, or any usurpation. That both France and the other powers would have rejected these terms for any length of time, supposing Great Britain to have been in earnest, will be believed by no man who recollects how many millions it has cost us during the late war, to bring even Austria into the field."

ART. XXXII. *Probable Effects of the Peace, with respect to the Commercial Interests of Great-Britain, being a brief Examination of some Prevalent Opinions.* 8vo. pp. 76.

DURING war it always happens that the commerce of sea-ports flourishes more, and of inland towns less, than during peace.

The commerce of sea-ports, consists in the transfer of raw materials—hemp, timber, corn, coal, sugar, cotton, &c. The demand for such articles is increased during war, either by the direct waste and consumption of fleets and armies; or by the indirect wastes of maritime capture and detention, which renders necessary the accumulation of larger stocks in reserve for immediate consumption. Hence the demand for shipping to remove these articles increases, freights, &c. rise, and all ship-owners make larger returns and gains.

The commerce of inland towns consists in the manufacture of forbearable articles, cloths, and stuffs of wool and cotton, hosiery, hattery, cutlery, pottery, &c. The demand for such articles is diminished during war, either by

direct exclusion from the inimical countries, or by the indirect exclusion resulting from the poverty and desolation of the friendly belligerent countries, and from the heavier percentage, which even neutral customers incur for freights, insurance, convoy, and advance of capital.

Hence it happens that every war can be made to appear to better the commerce of the country, by procuring, and printing, lists of ships that go and come; and by invoking the necessarily favourable testimony of the inhabitants of London, Liverpool, Hull, Cork, and the other sea-ports.

It also happens that every peace can be made to appear to better the commerce of the country, by procuring and printing the registers of those who levy excise-duties on articles manufactured for the foreign market, such as calicoes, porter, &c. and by invoking the necessarily favourable testimony of the inha-



bitants of Manchester, Leeds, Nottingham, Birmingham, and the other seats of manufacture.

These are the regular resources of statistical sophistry: but our author is not yet fully master of them, and wanders so much from the straight road to proof, and from the promise of his title-page, that one almost suspects the beginning of his pamphlet to have been planned for our consolation during war: and the latter part added in order to reconcile us to peace. Much stress is laid on estimates of exports and imports. Formerly exports were untaxed, and were probably overstated at the custom-house by the vanity of the merchant.

Imports all pay a duty, raw materials excepted, and were consequently understated. No reliance, therefore, should be placed on the precision of the old registered amounts: other statistical documents are annexed, which also ought not to be argued upon, without much previous discussion of the items.

The doctrine is taken for granted, at page 25, that high wages of labour are injurious to manufactures; whereas this increases the motive to substitute machinery for human labour, and thus eventually cheapens the manufactured article.

This pamphlet is thrown into the awkward form of question and answer.

ART. XXXIII. *A Word to the Alarmists on the Peace.* By a Graduate of the University of Cambridge. Svo. pp. 29.

THIS pamphlet is rather to be praised for the rationality and propriety, than for the novelty or eloquence of its sentiments. A short extract will suffice.

"The spirit of practical and rational freedom which was once thought the vital principle of the British Constitution, has been artfully confounded with the licentiousness that would subvert it; and it is, I fear, a fact that cannot be denied, that many of those who profess the greatest attachment to the British constitution, can see nothing valuable in it, but what it has in common with the most despotic governments in Europe, and look with suspicion on those privileges which were once thought its greatest and most glorious distinction.—It can hardly be wondered at, when we consider how apt mankind are to go from one extreme to another, though it is to be lamented that many of those who were once the most enamoured of political theories, are now the advocates for principles whose tendency is

to banish all liberty from the earth: they expected to see a sudden and decided melioration of the state of society, from the effects of the French revolution, forgetting that every change in Europe which has produced any permanently beneficial consequences to mankind, (such as the abolition of the feudal system, the revival of learning, and the reformation) has been gradual in its operation, and has never been the immediate effect of a violent revolution: their disappointment has not only made them give up their former opinions, but induced them to acquiesce in the notion, that the whole sum of existing abuses is incapable of diminution, and is a necessary part of the order of things.

"It is impossible not to observe the progress which principles such as these have made in the public mind, within a few years, or that the alarm which has been propagated of the introduction of French principles, has produced in too many instances something worse than indifference to the genuine principles of the British constitution."

ART. XXXIV. *Observations and Reflections on the Impropriety of interfering with the Internal Policy of other States.* By the Rev. W. BENSON, A. M. Svo. pp. 18.

THESE observations are politically unimportant; but are suffused with a fragrant oil of piety and benevolence,

which adapt them to be read in christian families, on a Sunday after tea, instead of a sermon.

ART. XXXV. *Address to the Inhabitants of the United Kingdom, on the Termination of the War with France.* By the Rev. THOMAS ROBINSON. Svo. pp. 32.

THIS sermon, for we know not why it is otherwise entitled, has considerable merit for warmth and zealotry of style, and for abundance of allusion to the Hebrew classics: it congratulates the people of Leicester on the termination

of the war; not only for the reasons usually given, but also "because Christian missionaries will now have access, and meet with a cordial reception where they have been hitherto excluded."

ART. XXXVI. *An Appeal to Experience and Common Sense, by a Comparison of the present with former Periods.* 8vo. pp. 50.

FOR the purpose of dissipating that despondence which some politicians, either affectedly or really, indulge, the author of this pamphlet has taken a retrospect of public affairs from the peace of 1763; and endeavoured to show, that our present situation is not without parallel, and that our financial difficulties are not invincible. War he represents as a disease, necessarily leaving a considerable degree of weakness, after the symptoms of danger have disappeared; and requiring the gradual use of restoratives, as well as the aid of time. "There cannot be the least reason for supposing," he continues, "that what happened at the conclusion of the American war will not happen now; and there cannot be a shadow of doubt that the same measures of Government, adopted wisely, and temperately pursued, will, in aid of industry and capital, as completely restore the finances, and re-settle the trade, commerce, and manufacture of the nation." He ridicules the apprehension which some persons entertain, that France will rival us in our manufactures, as well at home as abroad: and brings forward some evidence to shew, that France was never less likely

to become a manufacturing rival than at the present moment. Were she even to start with her former advantages, those advantages which she no longer enjoys, of cheap labour and abundant capital; yet it is contended that the chances are infinitely against her from the progress we have made during the war—in the mode of working our manufactures, in saving of expence, and in the accumulation of capital. Leaving trade and manufactures, our author glances at the state of agriculture, &c.; he tells us that no less than 1124 acts of parliament have been produced since the commencement of the war, for making roads, bridges, canals, harbours, inclosures, draining, &c. and other local improvements; and that in the eight years preceding the war only 750 of these salutary acts were passed.

This is a strong fact, which proves that our attention is not to be diverted by external hostilities from profiting by those resources which are to be found within the bosom of our country.

The pamphlet gives, altogether, a consoling, and we trust not too flattering, a view of our situation.

ART. XXXVII. *Brief Memoirs of the Right Hon. Henry Addington's Administration, through the first Fifteen Months, from its Commencement.* 8vo. pp. 262.

"THE office of prime minister," says Sully, "though at all times laborious, is not always loaded with difficulties: and the good fortune of those is to be envied who are called to it at a conjuncture, when the whole stream of affairs running on in a calm and regular course, they have nothing to do but sit quietly at the helm, and content themselves with a general inspection." Such might, if he had pleased, have been the good fortune of Mr. Addington. The successor of obnoxious men, his very entrance into office was hailed with congratulation; he was popular not positively, but comparatively. A sable cloud turned forth its silver lining on the night; and the light it cast was taken for inherent radiance.

Mr. Addington came into office the 14th March, 1801; but, instead of trusting to the gloss of new honours, he, already in a single month, had supported

Mr. Pelham's motion for a renewal of the bill which suspended the Habeas Corpus act; and had moved for the continuance of the sedition bills. In May he disqualified the clergy from sitting in parliament. In June he praised the wisdom and salutary effects of the income-tax. So much for the introductory session.

In the following October the preliminaries of peace negotiated between Lord Hawkesbury and Mr. Otto, were signed and made public. In discussing the speech from the throne relative to this event, Mr. Windham objected to the terms of peace: Mr. Addington, in defending them, disclaimed all imputations of necessity which compelled the nation to any sacrifices. In November, he funded eight millions of exchequer bills; and announced the inadequacy of the civil list to its exigencies. He withdrew the restrictions on the distilleries,

the bread-assize, and the law which compelled paupers to wear badges. He also moved for a loan of five millions to be raised by exchequer-bills. In February he announced an intention of selling off crown-lands for the purpose of liquidating civil-list arrears, and moved for a committee to consider the relative accounts. He solicited a large grant for army-extraordinaries, nearly four millions. He disclaimed any intention of interfering in behalf of the heir-apparent. On the 19th March he declared his opinion of the income-tax unaltered: but on the 29th proposed its repeal. He announced, at the same time, the peace and a new loan. In April he introduced a new manner of funding, imitated from the American deferred stock; thus shifting to the minister for 1808 the burden of his own expenditure. He added to the assessed taxes, to the beer taxes, and taxed exports and imports. He again restricted the payments in cash by the bank of England. He consolidated certain acts of parliament for the redemption of the national debt. He announced a lottery; and caused a triumphal proclamation to be made of the definitive treaty of peace. On the 22d June he moved a string of financial re-

solutions: soon after which the session of parliament terminated, and was succeeded by a dissolution.

To this period extend the documents of our very chronological author. We have endeavoured to transcribe faithfully the register of every or all remarkable interference of Mr. Addington; and find the whole characterized by that fluctuating indecision, which must ever distinguish a man whose abilities, however respectable, are unequal to his high station; and who, unsupported by party-attachment, and destitute of natural connexions among the leading families of the aristocracy, has been placed in office, solely by the fiat of the sovereign, and is continued there principally by the weight of ministerial influence.

This pamphleteer, however, is so good-naturedly inclined, that he finds matter for praise in the timorous indecision of versatile adjournments; and blazons even the eloquence of the minister into a trophy of national celebrity. He interpolates his paragraphs with strange disconnected common-places from Cicero and Barruel, from Livy and Mr. Miles, from Tacitus and the True Briton. His opinions are of the anti-jacobin school; and his panegyrics worthy of his patron.

ART. XXXVIII. *Review of Public Affairs, since the Commencement of the present Century.* 8vo. pp. 100.

THIS review is drawn up with satisfactory propriety of style, and sufficient plausibility of argument. The author seems to be one of those flatterers of destiny, who think, that whatever is, is right; and who like victories and negotiations, and ministers and peaces, whenever they occur. Whether his good humour outweighs his discrimination; or whether patriotism tends to candour; or whether the constellations are really all in auspicious conjunction, must be left to the decision of time. Of the peace, the author thus speaks.

"The name of peace is so grateful to the ears of most men, that those whose dispositions are little adapted to the enjoyment of that blessing, nevertheless do not venture to abjure it openly as such; but they commonly make themselves amends for this restraint imposed on them, by attacking, without mercy, the particular articles of such treaties as restore repose to their country; like physicians, who, not daring to express regret at the recovery of a patient under the hands of another practitioner, take care to pronounce,

that he might have been sooner, or more completely cured, or that he will certainly experience a speedy relapse.

"Such has been the fate of the treaty of London; and its terms have been censured with such indiscriminate violence, that if it is but fair to allow, that some of its opposers really thought they were serving their country, by directly declaring their disapprobation, others may, perhaps, be suspected of having been actuated by motives very different.

"Notwithstanding the frequency and warmth of their attacks, and in spite of the extraordinary pains taken to represent every article in the most disadvantageous point of view, the treaty has been sanctioned by the approbation of both Houses of Parliament, and by the rejoicings of a great majority of the nation. These circumstances would be alone a sufficient justification of the preliminaries, and a complete and satisfactory proof, that in this important transaction, managed by lord Hawkesbury, with so much talent and address, government has abundantly fulfilled its duty to the country. Those who declaim the most warmly against the treaty, were the very persons, who, with more just-

ness of reasoning, had never ceased to assert, that the object for which we had engaged, and for which we had persisted in the war, was the preservation of our liberty, our constitution, and property. According to this principle, so often brought forward by them, had we gained nothing else by the treaty, it should still be considered as advantageous; for every peace has ever been so considered, which accomplished the object for which the war had been carried on. By the treaty of London, we have not only preserved unimpaired our independence, our laws, our national honour, our faith towards our allies, and our original possessions in the four quarters of the globe, but have besides, acquired two colonies, the attainment of either of which would, from their importance, have fully justified a long war, and have been considered as a complete satisfaction to the successful party. How that can be called a bad peace, by which nothing is lost, and much is gained, is difficult to comprehend. Common sense would surely apply to it an epithet directly the reverse."

The author then proceeds to discuss what precise epithet is fittest for this peace. He weighs, as scrupulously as if he were writing a book of synonyms, *glorious* against *bouourable* and *advantageous*, and *proud* and *advisable*; and inclines to the middle term *advantageous*. Had we to choose the epithet, we should be for applying to the peace that, which Talleyrand, with idiomatic sneer, applied to the minister, viz. *respectable*. It is just such a peace as it is worth the while of both parties to respect, rather than go to war again, without having provided either party with those colonial accessions, which would have been most conducive to the permanent interests of its commerce, and consequently, most favourable to internal popular anxiety, for the continuation of tranquillity.

#### BRITISH POLITICS, AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

ART. XXXIX. *The Constitution of the United Kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland, Civil and Ecclesiastical.* By FRANCIS PLOWDEN, Esq. Barrister-at-Law. 8vo. pp. 563.

TO delineate with accuracy the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of this realm, is a labour of such high responsibility, that no man should undertake it without being deeply impressed with the magnitude and importance of the subject, and without a rigid determination to proceed with perfect impartiality and freedom. He writes, not for the temporary purposes of a party; *pingo in eternitatem*, must be his motto; and he should feel himself elevated on a height, to which the petty squalls which agitate the political horizon ascend not.

Mr. Plowden has devoted a few preliminary chapters of this work to a disquisition on the origin and rise of civil society, the natural rights of man, and what portion he parts with in the imaginary transit from a state of nature to a state of civility. These subjects have been so repeatedly treated of, that we should not, perhaps, stop to notice them here. One remark, however, is worthy of attention; with respect to man, his state of nature is a state of society; it never was intended by his Creator, that

The bare earth should be his resting place,  
It's roots his food, some cliff his habitation;

it never could be the intention of his Creator, that he should stray wild in the

woodlands, and roam the forest, like a beast of prey, for a precarious and hard fought-for sustenance. Mr. Locke has established the commencement of social nature at the commencement of recorded time, at the formation of our first parents. Notwithstanding, however, that moralists and philosophers are, we may say, universally agreed, that man is a social being, they have all, in their ingenious speculations, on what they call the origin of society, reverted to a state of being, which certainly had never any other existence than in their own imagination; they have all chosen, for the sake, perhaps, of exhibiting the benefits of society more strongly by the force of contrast, to consider man as having previously existed, in what they improperly term a state of nature; that is to say, a state of wildness. In this visionary state they have theorized upon his natural or wild rights; in such a state all men must be equal; "all power and jurisdiction must therein be reciprocal, no one having more than another, there being nothing more evident, than that creatures of the same species and rank, promiscuously born to all the same advantages of nature, and the use of the same faculties, should be equal, one

\* Locke upon Civil Government.

amongst another, without subordination or subjection."

They proceed to infer, that these wild bipeds, these men in a state of nature, called, perhaps, a council, and there deliberately resigned this, that, and the other right, which from experience they had found was of little use to themselves, and of great inconvenience to their neighbours; on the resignation of these rights, they became alienated from them and their posterity, for ever and for ever.

"Some philosophers, to avoid pleonasm," says Mr. Plowden, "have omitted to say, in express words, that this state of nature in which they considered man in the abstract, never had an actual or real physical existence: and this omission has, perhaps, occasioned the error of some modern illuminators, who from ignorance, have confounded the two states, or from malice, have transplanted the properties of one, into the other."

There is much truth, as it appears to us, in the remark: this metaphysical existence, which, in the pride of theory, philosophers have conceived; this "airy nothing," to which, if not "a local habitation," they have given "a name;" has misled the ignorant, and may have been taken advantage of by the ill-disposed. The one have believed, and the other may have corroborated them in the belief, that more of these natural, or wild rights, have been sacrificed upon the altar of civil society, by means of that influence which the priests of the temple are ever supposed to have, over the deluded worshippers in it, than were necessary for the preservation of those that remained, or were equivalent to others which were received in exchange.

It may be suspected, that advantage has been taken of this misconception, that the vulgar have been taught to entertain a very extravagant idea of these primitive and natural rights, which, on the very hypothesis that supposes them, can only be the rights which all animals, *fera natura*, enjoy; and that, unsatisfied with the disinheritance which their wild forefathers could have no power to make, they have been stimulated to recover, by means which have destroyed much peace upon earth, and much good will among men, those ideal rights, which they conceive have been so long, and so unjustly alienated from them.

We agree with Mr. Plowden, then,

as subordination is necessary for society, and God made man for that state, that authority must be coeval with society itself: we agree with him also, without doubt, in acknowledging the real basis of the political and civil power, or sovereignty, which exists in each state, to be the original agreement, compact, or contract of the society, or community, which forms that state: in other words, that sovereignty originates in the people, and has its support in their implied consent. "The chief question is not, says Hoadley (Mr. P. has quoted the sentence) whether there was ever such a contract formally and actually made, but whether mankind had not a right to make it; for if they had, civil government, in the ordinary course of things, could be rightfully founded upon nothing else but this, or what is equivalent to this, a tacit consent of the governed. And since the latter must be of the same effect with the other, this may be sufficient for our present purpose, unless persons think fit to call also for the original draught of a tacit consent."

In the chapter which treats of the *Sovereign Power of a State, and of Passive Obedience and Non-resistance*, are some assertions, perfectly unfounded, which we cannot pass over without notice: "Nothing is more clear, than that our constitution is formed of true liberty, which consists in the preservation of order for the protection of society, not in the abandoned licentiousness of confusion and anarchy. The liberty of a nation is ever proportioned to the perfection of its government; the perfection of government is known by its energy, and that is nothing more, than the efficacy and facility, with which the executive power can enforce the laws.

"The laws are the direct emanations of the sovereignty of the whole; the consent of every individual of the community, is formally included in every law; and the contempt and violation of them is, therefore, more properly insulting to the nation, who have made the laws, than to the magistrates, whose duty it is to execute them. In this great truth is engendered the peculiar vigour of our constitution. Because our laws are framed, *totius regni assensu*, as Fortescue observes, therefore is the whole kingdom indispensably bounden to the observance of them. From this assent of each individual, arise the right and interest, which the community possesses



collectively and individually, in the actual performance of the covenant and engagement, which, at the passing of every law, each individual enters into for the performance and observance of it.

"Although the government itself be said to be founded in the original compact between the governors and governed; yet the subsistence of the government depends not only upon the continuation of that original contract, but in this mutual and reciprocal covenant, engagement, or contract of every individual, to abide by, and enforce his own voluntary act and deed; for it is a first principle of our constitutional policy, that every law is the free, unbiassed, and deliberate act of every individual member of the community."

It is scarcely possible to believe that any man should seriously assert, in treating on the British constitution, that the laws are the direct emanations of the sovereignty of the whole; that the consent of every individual of the community is formally included in every law: and that it is a first principle of our constitutional policy, that every law is the free, unbiassed, and deliberate act of every individual member of the community. Bishop Horsley was nearer the truth, when he asserted, that the people have nothing to do with the laws—but to obey them. His expression, indecorous as it might be, was the more correct of the two: he perfectly well knew, and how Mr. Plowden should be ignorant of, or have forgotten, is more than we can account for, that a very large majority of the people of this country, have no elective franchise; have no voice in the election of any member to the great deliberative and legislative council of the kingdom. To state, therefore, that the whole kingdom is indispensably bounden to the observance of our laws, BECAUSE those laws are framed *totius regni assensu*, is to lay down a position which is pregnant with incalculable mischief. If the foundation on which obedience is built be sandy, when the winds blow and the rains descend, it will fall, and the consequence may be dreadful. The community of British subjects is bound to obey the laws of the realm, because that community has made a virtual deposit of its original sovereignty, including, of course, the power of legislation into the hands of

the king, lords, and commons, in parliament assembled; and because from this assembly, all laws emanate. Although this deposit, however, is not to be resumed at the caprice of a few dissatisfied individuals, far be it from us to contend, that the deposit is irrevocable: certainly not; and we entirely agree with Mr. Plowden, that God has left to mankind the free disposal of sovereign power or authority; that he has left it to the free choice of men into how many communities they shall divide; what modes and forms of government they shall adopt; and when and how they may change and new-model them. Elsewhere Mr. Plowden says, "it would throw me out of the scope of this work, were I to enter into an historical investigation of facts, to which the principles of our constitution have been at different periods applied. But if there be one principle more explicitly avowed than another by this community, it certainly is this, that the sovereignty of power ever did, and now does, and ever must unalienably reside in the people, not only to make, and form, but to alter, change, new-model, qualify, and improve the constitution and government."

Here sovereignty is placed on its proper foundation: consistently with this view of the subject, Mr. Plowden says, "A king alone can possess the executive power of legislation in this realm; and the recognition alone of the nation can vest this power in him: the most irrefragable title of hereditary descent can give him no particle of it."

In the chapter on the *House of Commons*, Mr. P. digresses on the subject of parliamentary reform: the arguments which have been adduced in favour of, and in opposition to that measure, are very fully and very fairly stated. If we may draw any inference from the superior vigour and animation of Mr. Plowden's style, when he is laying down the arguments of the advocates for that much-agitated measure, we are disposed to think, that he himself is not insensible to the abuses which have crept into the representative system, or solicitous for the perpetuation of them. Remarks of the following complexion cannot be too frequently enforced, or too deeply impressed: "Members of parliament were originally chosen to *serve* in parliament, and such is still the formal language of

elections. They were considered as the *servants* of their constituents, and accordingly received *wages* from those who employed them. Even the attendance of the barons, who were the most honourable members of the state, though not paid for, was due to the king as a *service*. Unfortunately, the system is reversed, and may now be thought incorrigible. There is no instance, in which original right, founded in common sense and sound reason, and supported by long usage, has been more successfully invaded, or more completely dispossessed of its station, than by the fact as it now stands.

"The only remedy for a disorder, which poisons the constitution of parliament at its source, is to reinstate the constituent and the representative in the places that belong to them, and in their natural relations to each other, according to the simplicity of the ancient constitution. Were the nation to pay their representatives, and liberally too, in proportion to their actual attendance, even money, to a considerable amount, would be saved.

"But the question is, whether it would be better for the public that they should be paid by the people, or rewarded by the crown; that they should be retained to defend, or corrupted to betray.

"It is fundamental and essential in a prudent government, that every real charge should have a direct benefice annexed to it; that no serviceable officer should be exercised, without an avowed proportionate salary. The men are not to be trusted, who offer to serve for nothing. Their views may be remote, or money may not be their principal object. In whatever shape they are paid, whether they take their equivalent in power or in profit, in specie or in kind, it must be some way or other at the public expence; and, whatever pretences they may set up, the safest and cheapest course, is by avowed and immediate payment. He, who faithfully performs the service he undertakes for a certain acknowledged reward, and will not betray it for a greater, does all that ought to be expected of him. The traitor and the hypocrite are generally righteous over much. Every measure, that tends to make the office of a member of parliament more and more a *service*, and less and less an object of competition, is

a step gained towards securing the independence and integrity of the House of Commons." p. 132.

An allowance, and a liberal allowance too, should invariably be granted to every man in a public capacity, proportionate to the time and trouble which the duties of his office may require. In France and America, the members of the national councils receive a salary for their labours; such was formerly the good practice in England; a contribution was levied on the counties by the king's writ, for the maintenance of their members. This contribution was afterwards enforced by act of parliament, in the reign of Richard II.\* It ought to be recollected, however, that in those earlier periods of our history, the same dignity was not attached to parliaments, which is in these later times; and personal attendance, far from being considered as an honourable privilege, was regarded as a most troublesome and heavy obligation: the unbecoming zeal and anxiety which our contemporaries display, to procure a seat in that assembly, was equalled by the unbecoming zeal and anxiety with which our ancestors endeavoured to avoid it.

The inferior barons considered themselves particularly indebted to James I. of Scotland, for an exemption from personal attendance, and for permission, in lieu of it, to elect representatives; they eagerly took advantage of the former privilege, but the latter—of so little consequence was it esteemed!—lay dormant, except in one or two instances, during the space of one hundred and sixty years! James VI. first compelled them to send representatives regularly to parliament.

This disinclination, then, on all parties to attend as members of the national council, will readily account for the salary originally annexed to such attendance; the cause and the effect have ceased together; and it is no uncandid suspicion, since daily and universal experience tells us it is founded on truth, that official characters, if not officially paid for their trouble, will take care to recompense themselves in some dirty, underhand manner, and generally, in a very excessive proportion to their services.

Mr. Plowden has devoted a long chapter to the revolution of 1688, in

\* 12 Richard II. chap. 12.

which he has ably reverted to the causes which led to that memorable event, and discussed the principles upon which it was constitutionally effected. "The Revolution," says he, "gave no rights to the community, which the community did not before possess; but by affording an opportunity of calling these rights into action, like all other practical examples, it threw light upon the principles from which the rights themselves originated."

We are now come to the second part of the volume before us, which is occupied in delineating the ecclesiastical constitution of this realm. This branches off into numerous chapters, where the nature and extent of ecclesiastical authority, of religious establishments, &c. are explained at large; and various subjects, connected with spiritual jurisdiction, are amply discussed. The discussion, indeed, is extended to a very unnecessary length: the line of limitation, which separates the civil from the ecclesiastical jurisdiction, has long since been so distinctly marked; so well defined; its continuity is so unbroken and complete, that the boundary of the two powers is no longer a subject of argument.

Mr. Plowden has entered deeply into the ecclesiastical history of his country: as an historical memoir, therefore, this portion of his work is valuable; but a simple delineation of the ecclesiastical constitution, as it at present exists, might have been very accurately taken with much fewer strokes of the pencil, than the artist has here employed on the subject.

The Roman Catholics will consider themselves under obligation to Mr. Plowden, for the very liberal interpre-

tation which he has given to the doctrine of infallibility: we cannot spare room to quote his remarks, and they would be injured by abbreviation. The Roman Catholics of the United Kingdom, are a very numerous, and we believe, a very loyal body: the bulk of them have sworn, 'that they do reject and detest, as an unchristian and impious position, that it is lawful to murder and destroy any person or persons whatsoever, for, or under pretence, of their being heretics or infidels: and also that unchristian and impious principle, that faith is not to be kept with heretics or infidels: and that they do renounce, reject, and abjure the opinion, that princes, excommunicated by the pope and council; or any authority of the See of Rome; or by any authority whatsoever, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects, or any person whatsoever.' This solemn and voluntary renunciation of reputed tenets, fraught indeed with deadly mischief, ought surely to exonerate them from that suspicion, and relieve them from those consequent disabilities, which were imposed for the purposes of security, and instantly become unnecessary, and therefore unjust, when the danger, against which they presented a shield, has no longer existence.

Mr. Plowden has closed his volume with an appendix, in which, for the purpose of shewing "what parts of the constitution have been affected by the union; what innovations have been made in the legislature; and what alteration in the laws," he has copied the articles for the act of the union of Great Britain and Ireland, which was passed on the 2d of July, 1800.

ART. XL. *The Spirit of Anti-jacobinism for 1802; being a Collection of Essays, Dissertations, and other Pieces in Prose and Verse, on Subjects Religious, Moral, Political and Literary.* 8vo. pp. 415.

MOST of the pieces contained in this volume, have only that transient value which is derived from being cotemporary with the incidents and personages mentioned or alluded to. Of the poems, Sir Aaron, or the Flights of Fanaticism, is considerably the best. Like the Spiritual Quixote, it will, no doubt, detach or deter several persons from that supererogatory devotion, which is the natural result of a lively faith, but which appears to lessen the cheerfulness and happiness of its practisers. It is however,

as are several of the poems, somewhat indelicate and obscene. Of the prose, an Essay on the British Constitution, which occurs at p. 253, is, on every account, the most remarkable composition, whether we consider the legal learning, or natural ability displayed. But it is a most dangerous and alarming paper, on account of the flagrant doctrines it asserts or implies. It is one more of the many unequivocal symptoms, which are every day stealing into conspicuity, that an anti-constitutional conspiracy, or con-

federacy, to get under the mixed monarchy of Great Britain, and to substitute an unmixed and simpler monarchy there-to, is not only in complete and systematic activity, but is already nearly sufficiently strong in secret assurances of support, to venture on the printed avowal of the tendency of its views, and the evulgation of its mischievous, if not treasonable intentions. We will give two short extracts.

"With the exception, therefore, of the advice and consent of the two houses of parliament, and the interposition of juries, the government and the administration of it in all parts, may be said to rest wholly and solely on the king, and those appointed by him. These two adjuncts of *parliament* and *juries* are subsidiary and occasional; but the king's power is a substantive one; always visible and active. By his officers, and in his name, every thing is transacted that relates to the peace of the realm, and the protection of the subject. The subject feels this, and acknowledges, with thankfulness, a superintending sovereignty, which alone is congenial with the sentiments and temper of Englishmen. In fine, the government of England is a *monarchy*; the monarch is the ancient stock, from which have sprung those goodly branches of the legislature, the lords and commons, that at the same time give ornament to the tree, and afford shelter to those who seek protection under it. But these are still only branches, and derive their origin and their nutriment from their common parent; this may be lopped off, and the tree is a wee still; shorn indeed of its honours, but not, like them, cast into the fire. The kingly government may go on, in all its functions, without lords or commons: it has hertofore done so for years together, and in our times it does so during every recess of parliament; but without the king, *his* parliament is no more. The king, therefore, alone it is, who necessarily subsists, without change or diminution; and from *him* alone, we unceasingly derive the protection of law and government.

"These words naturally resolve themselves into three propositions:

"That the monarch of this kingdom was historically, prior to, and the actual former of the lords and commons of Parliament, as, 'the monarch is the ancient stock, from which have sprung those branches—the lords and commons';

"That the lords and commons at present exist, as parliamentary bodies, only by the monarch's authority, as 'those—branches—derive—their nutriment from their common parent,' the monarch;

"And that, though the lords and commons were annihilated by violence, yet the monarchy might stand, maimed indeed, but still existing, as 'those—branches—may be lopped off, and the tree is a tree still,' and 'the kingly government may go on, in all its functions, without lords or commons.'

"These are propositions, however odious they may sound to the untutored ear of false liberty, no ways noxious in themselves, I affirm as a lawyer, knowing the constitution, no ways injurious to the free quality of our government; no ways libellous upon either the substance or the spirit of our free constitution."

"Men, indeed, look now for the constitution, not where only it is to be seen, in the front of our statute book, but in whig glosses, and republican comments upon it, that show it merely in a distorted form. They look not up to the sun, flaming in the forehead of heaven, as fearing indeed to face it there; but choose to view it in its downward aspect, 'shorn of its beams,' and exhibited in the muddy mirror of a pond. Well then may they mistake the nature of our sun, and fancy it to be as powerless and insignificant as such mirrors represent it. The monarch is, in fact, the *sun* of our system. The parliamentary estates are only his *SATELLITES*, deriving their light from him; dispensing it as he dispenses his; moving in orbits of their own yet all referring to him; and bound in those orbits to a regular attendance upon him. And that lawyer, who can believe the parliament to have a power of legislation in itself, prior in origin to the existence of the monarchy, independent of it, and leaving merely that constable's staff, the power of execution, to the monarch himself, in my opinion, is just as much sunk in sottishness and idiocy, as that astronomer would be, who should assert the very light of the sun, to be merely the light of these *satellites*, dispensed by them from their own refulgent orbs, and having the sun only for a sort of conveyance of their light to the universe."

Collections of such tracts, may, with strict propriety, be called the spirit of anti-jacobinism: it is so that the party has thought, and taught from the beginning.

ART. XLI. *The Income Tax Scrutinized, and some Amendments proposed to render it more agreeable to the British Constitution.* By JOHN GRAY, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 84.

THE income-tax was in its principle so iniquitous, and in its practice so inquisitorial, that it is no small praise of the British constitution, for this measure

to have been found incompatible with it; insomuch that the minister who laid it on, was dismissed with his tax into penal oblivion. To the various magis-



trates, commissioners and clerks, who lent their instrumentality to carry this tax into execution, a considerable degree of odium continues to attach; and we believe that an attempt to revive it would be accompanied with that paralysis of the executive and administrative organs and members of the body politic, which is the most incurable symptom of approaching dissolution. It requires, therefore, no inconsiderable moral courage in Dr. Gray to affix his name to a pamphlet, which promises even a qualified defence of so enormous a levy.

Expenditure is a tolerably fair criterion of individual means. The annuitant is expected to live more humbly than the capitalist of equal income: the father of many children, more humbly than the father of fewer children: the professional man, whose resources are personal, than he who has a business, or machinery, or a farm, to bequeath to his successors. Society estimates with tacit equity, these relative circumstances; and pursues with efficient disapprobation both the miser and the spendthrift. The taxation of income confounds all these distinctions: it extorts from the proprietor of short annuities, as much as from the proprietor of an equal income in perpetual stock: from the professional man, as much as from the proprietor of machinery, for manufacture of equal earnings. On the miser, whom it is the interest of the state to encourage, it bears very hard; on the spendthrift, whom it is the interest of the state to discourage, it bears very soft. And all these forms of taxation are accompanied with a vexatious inquisition, inconvenient, if not fatal to commerce; with an annual mutability of expensive ascertainment, and highly favourable to fraud in the collection; and with a subornation of perjury; oppressive precisely to the virtuous and meritorious.

" Nothing could have led, says Dr. Gray, a parental legislature, like that of Great Britain, to have sanctioned such inquisitorial researches as are now complained of, but a neglect of investigating what was the natural fund of both private and public supply. Many evils have flowed to the kings and people of this island, from the neglect of this investigation, and this neglect has particularly been promoted for above a century past, by the forwardness of money lenders and money coiners, to obtrude the representative of wealth, and even the representative of that representative for wealth itself; so that at length, in the midst of a glut of imaginary

wealth, we lately suffered a deficiency of natural wealth, and were obliged to apply to other nations to feed us. It is recorded as a wise saying of queen Elizabeth, that the way to get at the purses of the people was, first to win their hearts. But this maxim, though an excellent one, would, I think, have been more complete with the following addition, namely, and to contrive, by an unremitted attention to the augmentation of natural wealth by agriculture and the fisheries, so to fill the purses of the people as to make them overflow. Were the maxim of queen Elizabeth, with this addition, to be acted upon by the legislature, the amount of the income-tax would even increase, though the profits on home trade, and the profits on the funds, were not to be considered as making any part of the taxable capital.

" The evident consequence of having considered the profits on home trade, and the profits on the funds, as forming part of the national income, has been a considerable augmentation of the political evil attendant upon the financial system that has been adopted for above three hundred years past, of separating the public supplies from the territorial income, and drawing them from articles of consumption. This system, which originated in the reign of Charles II. instantly occasioned an artificial rise in prices, at that time the subject of complaint; and having been persevered in ever since, has dragged along with it, as a necessary consequence, a continued augmentation of prices, till at length these are become to many classes of men in society equivalent to a double taxation, particularly to the land-proprietors.

" The nation in general may be said to be now panting under the weight of this double taxation; therefore, it seems an object of the highest political moment to diminish it, and to prevent it from ever again swelling to its present size."

Some interesting remarks of a general nature occur. (1) On the necessity of endeavouring to render the territorial income more productive, that is, on the expediency of a new tax on the rental of landed property; why not on the rental of houses also? (2) On the means of rendering the fisheries more productive, (3) On rendering money less productive. This appears to us a political paradox: whenever money becomes so unproductive as to diminish sensibly the means of maintenance, of those who subsist by lending money; that is, of bankers, and capitalists, and stockholders, a disposition to national inquietude sets in; wars are indirectly encouraged, and in order to raise the price of interest, the community is made to incur a grievous shock in the progress of opulence. (4) It is recommended to



alter wholly the system of artificial money: as if the British system of artificial money was not, before the bank-restriction, nearly as perfect as it can be. The only expedient alteration would surely be to withdraw gradually, and without shock, the subsisting chartered monopolies, or patent machines for paper-coinage. (5) To establish an unerring rule for connecting for ever (Man and for ever!) in a just proportion the public supply with the national income. The public supply ought always to be proportioned to the public wants, not to the private means of the people. That is the most meritorious government

which divides with industry the smallest share of its earnings.

From this analysis it is apparent, that Dr. Gray has rather fixed on the income-tax as a topic to which he could attach his political suggestions, than as a measure which he is very eager to prop, to modify, or to revive. His remarks display information and patriotism, but have, perhaps, the fault of Sir James Stewart's writings on political economy, that they inculcate a meddling, managing, regulating, interfering spirit; as if wisdom and freedom did not both dictate the popular prayer, *laissez nous faire*: let us alone.

ART. XLII. *Public Credit in Danger; or Frauds on the Revenue, private Wrongs and public Ruin, &c. by a Member of the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple, 8vo. pp. 84.*

OUR author's main proposal shall be stated in his own words.

*A Society for the Support of Public Credit.*

"Let a prince of the blood stand forth its patron! Let the chancellor of the exchequer, for the time being, be its president. Let the great officers of state, and the great men of the land fill up the honourable list of its vice-presidents and stewards for its annual meetings. Let the first public measure, adopted by such a society at its first public meeting, be to form a petition to parliament, praying the legislature to second and sanction their efforts in support of public credit, by bringing in a bill for the more effectual prevention of frauds on the revenue. Let the number and respectability of the signatures give weight to the petition, and we are, from the laudable efforts that the chancellor of the exchequer has made, and is making, for paying off the national debt, warranted in our expectation, that such a petition would be supported by the present administration, and meet with a favourable reception from the house: may we not venture also, to indulge in the pleasing hope that the example once set, petitions would be presented from every part

of the British empire, praying for legislative interposition, to forward the important views of such a truly patriotic association. Let also an order of merit be formed among its associates, and truly honourable members; and let it be the business of each anniversary meeting, publicly to proclaim the names of those good citizens, who had stood forth to inform against, and prosecute to conviction any public defaulter; and let a gold medal be bestowed on them to stimulate others to similar exertions in the cause of their suffering country."

We do not think the country in so much danger from smuggling, as this writer does; and we apprehend considerable inroads on moral taste and honourable feeling, if an order of merit be distributed among informers, and the traitor to his neighbour held up as the saviour of his country. The true cure for smuggling is that suggested in the case of tea, by the late Mr. Richardson of the India-house: to commute the excess of duty for an increase of the window-tax.

ART. XLIII. *Considerations on the Necessity and Expediency of supporting the Dignity of the Crown and Royal Family, in the same degree of Splendour as heretofore—On the due proportion of Income, between the Possessor and Heir Apparent of the Crown—On the claim of Right in the Heir Apparent, to such Rents and Proceeds of the Estates vested in him, at his Birth, as were collected during the Minority of his Royal Highness, and stand yet unaccounted for. 8vo. pp. 46.*

IT is much to be wished, that those expences which are properly national, and which would continue to be requisite, even if the office of king were entrusted to a transient magistrate, or to an executive college, were detached wholly from the civil list, and provided

for like army estimates. The people would then perceive that ours is one of the cheapest royal families of Europe; and that if we have no palaces like Caserta and Versailles, it is because the public allowance is too slender for our sovereigns to indulge in luxurious mag-

nificence. The patrimonial or private property of the monarch may be considerable; but this ought to be as exempt from legislative interference, as that of any other nobleman. If the revenue of the king himself is narrow, it will not appear surprising that the revenue of the heir apparent should be thought so. The philosopher may, perhaps, doubt, whether it be expedient to place the heir of any crown in a very elevated station of life, and to make him even the equal of the young nobility. Many a wholesome lesson is only to be learned in the company of superiors, and a prince royal has too few such. If wealth be super-added to rank, he discovers but too soon that he can command the notice he should attract; and that to inherit flatterers is less restraining than to earn friends. But public opinion heeds little the romanticisms of speculative philosophy: and it is now expected, that a Prince of Wales should exhibit in his style of living, at least the magnificence of the more distinguished nobility. The great increase of price in all the luxuries of life, perhaps that extra-price, which, if the date of payment be uncertain, must always be charged for commodities, and other similar causes, have eroded the legalized income of the Prince, and have compelled him, of late years, to live in a sort of subdued lustre and softened splendour, in the clear-obscuré of diminished radiance. A sort of promise having formerly been made not to solicit assistance from parliament, the idea occurred, that the revenues of the duchy of Cornwall, which vest in the Prince of Wales, ought to have accumulated, during his minority, for his use and benefit, and consequently that the receiver of those revenues (the king) after deducting reasonable charges of maintenance, is bound to pay a considerable balance to the Prince. Whether this claim be a necessary consequence of the law of England, and as well founded in practical right as in theoretical justice, is the topic principally discussed in this pamphlet. After putting the analogical case of a Duke of Norfolk, and asserting that he could be compelled to give redress; the author observes, that the only reason why the same processes would not avail in this case is, "that the King can do no wrong."

"Upon this ground ministers have made their stand against that right in the Prince of

Wales to the rents and produce of his own estate, which they have not dared to deny; and the chancellor, to whom his royal highness had addressed a *petition of right* in the same form as a common subject of his majesty would have done, replied, that "he did not consider himself as *officially* bound to present that petition unto his majesty."

"It was most justly observed by Mr. Fox, that the laws of England must be singular indeed, if the heir apparent of the crown was the only person in the realm, who, being injured in point of property, had no means of obtaining redress, and that, if it was so, it was an additional reason for the interference of parliament. Ministers, in answer to this observation, contented themselves with replying, that, if injury had been done to the Prince of Wales, with regard to the application of the rents of his estate, during the minority of his royal highness, it must have been done directly by his majesty himself; in which case, neither chancery, nor any other court of law, was vested with sufficient power to grant the prince redress; nor was the house of commons competent to inquire into a matter of right. A more palpable subterfuge was never employed to set aside an indisputable right; and, in animadverting on the conduct of those who had recourse to it, I know not which most to admire, the cool assurance with which a wrong is acknowledged to have been done to the heir apparent of the crown; the loyal gratitude of men, who, in order to screen themselves or their predecessors in office, charge his majesty with the fraud and breach of trust they are accused of; or, the deep policy with which the possessor and heir apparent of the crown are set face to face against one another on a question of property. Much has been said of late on the necessity of defending our constitution against the levelling spirit of the age we live in; but, in my mind, none of the seditious meetings, so happily put an end to, would have had the wit to devise a plan so well adapted to make the people lose sight of the reverence and respect they owe to the king and royal family, as this which the ministers of his majesty have fallen upon.

"I do not know who was the chancellor who made the above reply to the Prince of Wales's *petition of right*, but I think the ground on which it was given, must have been, that his royal highness was of too high dignity ever to have been a ward of chancery. I question, however, whether the chancellor who gave it, did not thereby subject himself to the pains and penalties which parliament might decree for the commission of a high crime and misdemeanor."

The pamphlet is composed with neatness and legal knowledge; it will be read with interest now, it will be remembered, perhaps, too long.

ART. XLIV. *Considerations on the Debt of the Civil List. By the Right Honourable GEORGE ROSE, M.P. 8vo. pp. 40.*

THE civil list has given occasion to much idle jealousy of the influence of the crown; and to much popular discontent with the expenditure of the sovereign. If those expences, which would still be necessary were our government republican, such as the salaries of judges, ambassadors, &c. were withdrawn from the civil list, and provided for like other current services, naval, military, &c.: the residual cost of royalty would appear so trifling, that this ground of dislike would wholly be abandoned. Whenever, therefore, the Civil List undergoes investigation, it would be wise in the king's friends to attempt such a separation; it would then appear that the debts on the Civil List result from ministerial, not royal, extravagance; from party, not personal, favouritism; from national, not family, considerations.

The following historical particulars will interest our readers:

"By an account presented in 1760, the average of the ten preceding years was 823,955*l.*; it had been from 1730 to 1740, 825,854*l.* In the last seven years of the period ending in 1760, the secret service money was, on an average, 83,000*l.* a year, of which 65,000*l.* to the secretaries of the treasury.

"The accounts, here referred to, make it perfectly clear, that, during the last ten years of King George the Second, the Civil List revenues had considerably exceeded 800,000*l.* a year; the arrangement, therefore, made on the accession of his present majesty to the throne, for a specific annuity of 800,000*l.* a year, was evidently not an advantageous one for the Civil List. In 1769, a debt on it had been incurred of upwards of 500,000*l.* with which his majesty acquainted the houses of parliament; at the same time, an account was laid, consisting of eighteen articles in gross. Orders were thereupon made for more detailed accounts of the Civil List expences, from 1752 to 1760, and from 1760 to 1769; which were followed by a motion, that the consideration of his majesty's message should be deferred till an inquiry should take place respecting the cause of the debt; but that was negatived, and the sum of 513,800*l.* was voted to pay the amount of it. The accounts were afterwards laid in January 1770. The examination of these led to a motion in April following for an address to his majesty, stating the excess

of the expenditure in the Civil List, and humbly recommending retrenchments, which was lost without a division. Under such discouragement, the party, then in opposition to government, made an attempt the second day following to obtain merely an account of pensions and increased salaries since the commencement of the present reign, and on that they ventured a division, but were again foiled, the question having been carried in the negative—Mr. Fox one of the tellers for the majority. A strong proof how differently parliament, as well as the individual alluded to, thought at that time, from what they fortunately do at present, respecting the propriety of investigating matters of this sort, where grants of the public money are called for.

"In the course of the seven subsequent years, a further debt was incurred to the amount of more than 600,000*l.* and in April 1777, his majesty acquainted the houses therewith: at the same time accounts were laid by the king's command, by which it appeared that the duties, &c. which were in the former reign granted for the Civil List, had averaged in the fifteen years, including 1777, the annual sum of 964,000*l.*; then again the sums paid for secret service are worthy of observation, amounting from the time the debt was last paid in 1769 to 438,000*l.* equal to 54,000*l.* a year, exclusive of large sums for special service unexplained, and for royal bounty to persons whose names were not mentioned. No investigation of accounts, however, took place; but, after a long debate on the subject, the sum of 618,000*l.* was voted to pay the debt, and an additional annual sum of 100,000*l.* was granted for the Civil List; notwithstanding which the expences could not be kept within the income of it, and, in 1782, his majesty sent another message to both houses, requesting the aid of parliament to discharge the debt incurred, without laying fresh burthens on his subjects; the amount appeared by an account presented to be 295,000*l.* A provision was accordingly made for raising the sum of 300,000*l.* by exchequer bills charged on the aggregate fund, to be cancelled by quarterly instalments of 12,500*l.* which was to be effected by the abolition of many employments (considered as of little use), paid out of the revenues of the Civil List, and by other savings. Many of these offices were suppressed by the act which granted the relief, and several others by the treasury, under the authority of it, and various economical arrangements were made which it was hoped would keep the expences within the required limits; this expectation

was, however, disappointed, and a communication was made to parliament in July 1789, that a debt of 28,000*l.* had unavoidably been incurred; for which a grant was made.

"The experience of another year proved that the suppression of offices in 1782, as well by the executive government as by parliament, and all the other retrenchments then and subsequently made, were ineffectual for the attainment of the object, which his majesty, in July 1784, stated to both houses, and requested that means might be provided to enable him to discharge the new debt: with this message was delivered an account, shewing the expences for the year under each head, and in each quarter (as there were two administrations within the period) the total excess was 44,000*l.* divided nearly equally in the three quarters while the Duke of Portland and Mr. Fox were in office, and the quarter while Mr. Pitt was at the head of the treasury. The sum of 60,000*l.* was then voted to pay the sum above mentioned, together with a further debt incurred subsequent to the time to which the account was made up. That aid did not, however, prevent an arrear in some of the latest classes; his majesty, therefore, found himself under a necessity of resorting again to parliament in 1786, when he stated in a message that he had not found it possible to keep the expences of the Civil List within the sum of 850,000*l.* a year; a debt of 30,000*l.* had, in fact, been incurred, as appeared by an account laid, shewing again the excess under the several heads, and the arrears in each class. There then remained exchequer bills, issued in 1782, to the amount of 180,000*l.* uncanceled; for the payment of which, as well

as of the debt of 30,000*l.* provision was made, whereby the income of 900,000*l.* for the Civil List expences was left free; and a plan was, in consequence of an order of the house of commons, prepared, and laid before that house, of the future charge of the civil establishment, distinguishing every head of expence, arranged in the order prescribed by Mr. Burke's act, estimated from the experience of the two former years, and amounting in the whole to 897,900*l.*

"From that time no grant has been made by parliament in aid of the Civil List; it is, therefore, not necessary to refer to any later proceedings of the house of commons on the subject, any further than merely to mention that on occasions, when recourse was had to parliament for provision for different branches of the royal family from the consolidated fund, accounts were laid from time to time, which shewed there were great arrears, and in which classes. These, together with some outstanding demands for special purposes, when his majesty's message was sent in this session to both houses, amounted to 895,000*l.*"

To this we shall subjoin a table of the expences of the Civil List in each year:

" 1786	- -	897,000 <i>l.</i>
1787	- -	915,000
1788	- -	896,000
1789	- -	945,000
1790	- -	927,000
1791	- -	929,000
1792	- -	947,000
		<hr/>
		6,456,000 <i>l.</i> equal to
		922,000 <i>l.</i> a year."

#### ART. XLV. *Utility of Country Banks considered.* 8vo. pp. 86.

**DURING** the dearth, all orders of men were anxious to escape the odium of causing it. Some were for tracing it to the corn-dealer, some to the banker, some to the agriculturist; others attributed it to the war, and others to Providence. Among the pamphlets which at that time produced an inconvenient, not to say mischievous impression, was the "Iniquity of Banking." It has here received, though without any direct allusion, an adequate reply. The author treats first of money, then of interest, then of banks, and discusses his subjects with that sort of reasoning, which the studier of Hume and Adam Smith might be expected to adopt. He is not merely the arguer, but the antiquary; and by telling us rather more than his syllogisms require of the origin of credit, he spins out into a pamphlet the substance of a

convincing column of paragraphs. He begins money with Homer's oxen, and respondentia-bonds in the Cimmerian Bosphorus; so that one feels inclined, like the French academician, to thank him for getting so soon to the deluge.

We should unwillingly vouch the exactness of the following anecdote, p. 31:

"The bankers (in Yorkshire) advance sums on the joint note of any two traders, or persons of credit. The usual period of the bill is one or two months; and many banks will discount bills of this kind at two months date, for one month's interest; which is, in fact, to lend money at two and a half per cent. interest."

Mention is also made of sixpenny bank notes, as if they were a current resource. Such notes have been issued by engravers, as specimens of their art, in order

to attract the custom of the bankers; and the singularity of the parody has given to such notes a selling value analogous to current value: but they are never offered in change; they do not circulate in lots.

The following passage will give an idea both of our author's strain of style and sentiment:

"The intention and object of all bankers, it must be obvious, is to use the coin which they get in exchange for their paper; and let it be remembered, that it is scarcely possible for them to employ it to the disadvantage of the country. They may, though they seldom do, employ it unskilfully; but even in that case, the employment may have its utility. When we recollect that it is the real interest of the bankers to employ with great caution the coin which they borrow of the public, and we consider the property which they have at stake, the most timid reasoner can see but little danger to the holders of country bank-notes in general. It is seldom that persons without real *bonâ fide* property can engage in banking concerns; and if we examine the firms of the banks throughout the country, we shall find that they consist

very generally of gentlemen of well known, and often of very large property; and as the bankrupt laws are very wisely framed, and very sprightly administered, we have very little to fear from fraudulent failures, which can hardly ever happen in banking partnerships. If, therefore, from any sudden run upon any of these banks, they should not be able, as might accidentally happen to the most respectable of them, to pay in gold or silver on such occasion, no person who really believed in the validity of the assets of the firm, would have any real cause of alarm, for, though he might experience an inconvenience, he could not ultimately be a loser by such an occurrence. The credit, it is true, of such a house, would receive a shock, but it is with pleasure, that every honest man, has seen the recovery of some firms from blows of this kind, malignantly aimed by illiberal competitors. To comprehend fully the utility of any establishment it must be examined in various points of view. I have endeavoured to treat my subject in this manner; and if I am not mistaken, the arguments in favour of the banking system are drawn from facts fully admitted, and established by the best writers, and most accurate political enquirers."

ART. XLVI. *Impolicy of returning Bankers to Parliament in the ensuing General Election. By a Friend to the Poor, the Commerce, and the Constitution of England.* 8vo. pp. 34.

THIS pamphlet appears to have been written during the scarcity: it endeavours to prove, that the quantity of circulating medium, or bank paper, has enhanced the price of corn, by facilitating the speculations of provincial corn-merchants, whose competition produced the dearth: and it attempts to draw the very strange and disconnected inference, that, because many bankers have lent money to persons whose speculations raised the price of wheat, no bankers should be elected into parliament.

Granting that the abundance of circulating medium facilitated to the corn-merchants the obtainal of capital; and that they were thereby enabled, at an early period of the dearth, to speculate more profusely; is this an evil? They thereby sounded the alarm; put the productive counties, in time, on short allowance; equalized the pressure of the scarcity; invited fresh inclosures, and forced cultivation, and eager importations, and thus prevented the famine, which would probably have resulted from the more sluggish proceedings of an under-capitalized community. No annihilation of corn, no increase of the body of con-

sumers could result from their speculations; of course, no eventual increase of price.

The waste of war is considerable. Fleets and armies consume more than five times as much per man as the component individuals would have consumed at home. This waste is aggravated by the purchases of government contractors, who receive a percentage on the amount of their purchases, and have consequently an interest to buy at the dearest. Wholesale buyers always regulate a market, not petty consumers. The war, therefore, was a powerful cause of inflicting the dearth; and it will be found that, notwithstanding the great increase of country banks, and consequently of circulating medium, the price of corn is now descending to a lower average.

As for bankers, they will prove safer representatives than country gentlemen. Their interests are identified with those of the productive, not of the idle, classes. They can provide for their children without exacting from ministers exorbitant establishments and multifarious places. They can afford to marry earlier, and do not set such immoral ex-



amples as the protracted celibacy of privileged primogeniture. The dependence of a tenant on his landlord is complete; and thus every farmer belongs to the political party to which his owner

may choose to let his sanction: the customers of a banker can desert to a rival at will; and thus retain, while in credit, an autonomy of conduct.

ART. XLVII. *Serious Reflections on Paper Money in general, particularly on the alarming Inundation of Forged Bank Notes.* 8vo. pp. 61.

IT would have been worthy of this nation to respect the principles of probity, so important to the thrift of commerce, even in its hostilities; and industriously to search out, and bring to justice, those forgers of French assignats, whose mischievous industry has since been imitated to the prejudice of bank of England notes. Yet it may be questioned, whether the severity with which forgery, when convicted, is always punished, does not influence the humanity of many bankers and merchants to conceal and pardon the primary attempts of young forgers, to the eventual endangerment of property and credit. Perhaps the amputation of the right thumb would be a sufficient punishment for a first offence; because it would irrecoverably

take away that dexterity of penmanship, which is requisite for the accomplishment of any future extensive fraud. The disgrace of mutilation would be much feared, perhaps as much as the disgrace of execution, because it is far more lasting: and the hesitation of the defrauded to expose and to punish would be greatly lessened.

Our author is for seeking the remedy for forgery, not in alterations of the penal laws, but in a diminution of paper circulation. This is like burning furniture to prevent its being stolen.

Some observations are subjoined on Mr. Thornton's work, which add little to the theory of circulation, but contain some useful political admonitions.

ART. XLVIII. *Enquiry into the Nature and Effects of the Paper Credit of Great Britain.* By H. THORNTON, Esq. M.P. 8vo. pp. 320.

THE circulation of London could be conducted without the bank of England. At the treasury those books might be kept in which the transfers of stock and the payments of dividend are recorded, and the clerks of government might pay to the several stock-holders their interest money in cheques, as they are called; or drafts to bearer on some banker of the government. One of the chief banking houses might account with all the receivers of the land-tax: a second, with all the collectors of the excise and custom duties: a third, with the stamp officers: and so forth. Each of these banking houses might on its own account, and on its personal security, issue five pound, ten pound, and fifty pound notes, after the manner of provincial bankers, and discharge with these notes the drafts of the treasury clerks. Each of these banking houses might discount bills for its own customers, and in this way circulate notes in commerce, as bank of England notes now circulate. The consequence of such arrangements would be, that the competition among the lenders of paper money being far

greater; advances of capital on discount would be more easily obtainable by the mercantile interest, and the mass of circulating capital in London would always be greater than at present, which circumstance would habitually endear stocks, that is, cheapen loans to the government. The competition for the management of the different branches of receiving the revenue being also greater, it would be executed at a more moderate commission probably than at present: and the revenue of the stamp office would be increased to a vast amount by the necessity of stamping all private notes; from which burden the bank of England notes are exempted. It is true, that no single banker, perhaps, would willingly lend to the state eight or ten millions in account current; but no inconvenience to the public service is to be apprehended from compelling ministers to issue exchequer bills, and similar transferable obligations, whenever they want such advances. If, therefore, the existence of the bank of England depended on its obtaining an exclusive privilege of not paying its notes in cash,

this would be no reason for conceding it: let it stop payment (its creditors would not eventually suffer, it is abundantly solvent), and be replaced, if necessary, by the more natural, the cheaper, and more diffusively profitable system of open banking. The government, the bankers, the mercantile interest, would all gain by the change. If any financial emergency were approaching, the public too would have a strong interest in the diffusion and variety of its securities. When one banking house fails, another may stand its ground. But if an accidental deficiency of bullion in the bank of England were to be believed perpetual; if the detection of vast frauds were to shake all confidence in the printed statements of its accounts; if the want of frugality, as is not unusual in chartered companies, were supposed to have absorbed even monopoly profits; if the sums lent to the state passed themselves for debts in jeopardy; if public opinion, always changeable, always discoloured, like theameleon, by surrounding circumstances, always prone to put faith in the extremes both of success and of danger, and always whispering precautions even when it shouts confidence, were once to grow jealous of the only medium of circulation extant; where would be the remedy? Alarms and apprehensions of national bankruptcy now act on every holder of notes, on the whole metropolitan public, which erringly identifies the bank with the state; but, on the system of open banking, such alarms would not extend nearly so far. It is, therefore, worth the while of ministers and of parliament, for the sake of public credit, to consider whether, in case any future application were to originate with the bank of England for suspending its payments in cash, that ought not to be held a forfeiture of the charter, and a fit opportunity for getting under an institution no longer necessary, nor even desirable.

Mr. Thornton appears to have a very different idea of the utility of the bank, which he thus describes:

"The bank has a capital of near twelve millions, to which it has added near four millions of undivided profits or savings: all this capital and savings must be lost before the creditors can sustain any loss.

"The bank of England is quite independent of the executive government. It has an interest, undoubtedly (of the same kind with

that of many private individuals), in the maintenance of our financial as well as commercial credit. It is also in the habit of lending out a large portion of its ample funds on government securities of various kinds, a comparatively small part only, though a sum not small in itself, being lent to the merchants in the way of discount. The ground on which the bank lends so much to government is clearly that of mutual convenience, as well as long habit. It is the only lender in the country on a large scale; the government is the only borrower on a scale equally extended; and the two parties, like two wholesale traders in a town, the one the only great buyer, and the other the only great seller of the same article, naturally deal much with each other, and have comparatively small transactions with those who carry on only a more contracted business. The bank, moreover, in time of peace, is much benefited by lending to government. It naturally, therefore, continues those loans, during war, which it had been used to grant at all antecedent periods. It occasionally furnishes a considerable sum to the East India Company. If, indeed, it lent more to the merchants during war, and less to the government, the difference would not be so great as might, perhaps, at first view be supposed. If, for instance, it furnished a smaller sum on the security of exchequer bills, that article might then be supposed to fall in price, or, in other words, to yield a higher and more tempting interest; and the bankers, in that case, would buy more exchequer bills, and would grant less aid to the merchants; they would, at least, in some degree, take up whichever trade the bank of England should relinquish. The preference given by the bank to the government securities, is, therefore, no symptom of a want of independence in its directors: they are subject, in a much greater degree, to their own proprietors than to any administration. The strong manner in which the directors of the bank at the time antecedent to the suspension of their cash payments, insisted on having four millions and a half paid up to them by the government—a payment which, though demanded at a very inconvenient time, was accordingly made—may be mentioned as one sufficiently striking mark of the independence of that company. There is, however, another much more important circumstance to be noticed, which is conclusive on this subject. The government of Great Britain is under little or no temptation either to dictate to the bank of England, or to lean upon it in any way which is inconvenient or dangerous to the bank itself. The minister has been able to raise annually, without the smallest difficulty, by means of our funding system, the sum of no less than between twenty and thirty millions. The government, therefore, is always able to lessen, by a loan from the public, if it should

be deemed necessary, the amount of its debt running with the bank. To suppose that bank notes are issued to excess, with a view to furnish means of lending money to the minister, is, in a high degree, unreasonable. The utmost sum which he could hope to gain in the way of loan from the bank, by means of an extraordinary issue of bank notes, could hardly be more than four or five millions; and it is not easy to believe, that a government which can raise at once twenty or thirty millions, will be likely, for the sake of only four or five millions (for the loan of which it must pay nearly the same interest as for a loan from the public), to derange the system, distress the credit, or endanger the safety of the bank of England. This banking company differs in this most important point from every one of those national banks, which issue paper, on the continent. I understand that the banks of Petersburg, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Vienna, Madrid, and Lisbon, each of which issues circulating notes, which pass as current payment, are all in the most direct and strict sense government banks. It is also well known, that the governments residing in these several places have not those easy means of raising money, by a loan from the people, which the minister of Great Britain so remarkably possesses. Those governments, therefore, have, in times even of moderate difficulty, no other resource than that of extending the issue of the paper of their own banks; which extension of issue naturally produces a nearly correspondent depreciation of the value of the notes, and a fall in the exchange with other countries, if computed at the paper price. The notes, moreover, being once thus depreciated, the government, even supposing its embarrassments to cease, is seldom disposed to bring them back to their former limits, to do which implies some sacrifice on their part at the time of effecting the reduction; but it contents itself, perhaps, with either a little lessening, or with not further adding to, the evil. The expectation of the people on the continent, therefore, generally is, that the paper, which is fallen in value, will, in better times, only cease to fall, or, if it rises, will experience only an immaterial rise, and this expectation serves of course to accelerate its fall. Hence it has happened, that in all the places of Europe, of which mention has been made, there exists a great and established, and generally an increasing discount or agio between the current coin and the paper money of the kingdom. Nor, indeed, is this all: several of the governments of Europe have not only extended their paper in the manner which has been described, but have, besides this, depreciated, from time to time, their very coin; and thus there has been a two-fold cause for a rise in the nominal price of their commodities when exchanged with the current paper. There is, therefore, a fundamental difference between

the nature of the paper of the bank of England, and that of all the national or government banks on the continent. No one supposes that the English guinea contains less and less gold than heretofore, through frauds practised by government in the coinage; and as little is it to be suspected that the bank of England paper is about to be depreciated by an excessive issue either ordered or needed by the government. There is, moreover, at present, this further ground for assuming that the issue of bank of England notes is not likely to be excessive—that it has lately become a practice to make the number of them public. Their quantity, as it now appears, has never, in any short time, varied very greatly; has seldom, in late years, been below ten or eleven millions, even when no one pound and two pound notes were issued; and has at no moment exceeded the sum of about fifteen millions and a half, including two millions and a half of one pound and two pound notes. It is not impossible that the discredit into which the paper of the government banks of the continent of Europe has fallen, into which also the paper of the American banks sunk at the time of the American war, through the same extension of its issues by the then American government; and also that the total annihilation of the paper issued by the successive French revolutionary governments, may have, in some degree, contributed, though most unjustly, to that fall in the exchange which Great Britain has experienced. Foreigners not adverting to that independence of the bank of England, the grounds of which have been stated, and misled possibly by the abundant misrepresentations which have taken place in this country, may have thought that it was the government which, by its loans, involved the bank in difficulties (a point which shall be discussed presently), and that the bank is merely an instrument in the hands of the government; an instrument which may be turned, as the government banks on the continent have been, to the purpose of issuing notes to an extravagant extent. If such should, in any degree, be their sentiment, it would be just in them to infer from thence, that the bank of England notes are not unlikely to fall in their value in the same manner as the notes of the continental banks."

The fifth chapter, which discusses the balance of trade, and the course of exchange, introduces speculative topics, which have not yet, perhaps, received all the elucidation they admit. Let us examine a little the nature of the different kinds of paper currency, and the manner in which their circulation affects the course of exchange, and the balance of trade.

Paper currency is not fictitious wealth.

The issuers may become bankrupt, as a town may be burnt down; but while it existed, it was a real property. For every note which a banker issues he receives a deposit in hard cash. This cash he lends out to various traders in shares proportioned to his opinion of their responsibility: he usually founds this opinion on the amount of the fixed property which they possess, on their warehouses, machines, work-rooms, dwellings, and visible stock: of their other property he cannot judge, and he, therefore, does not trust to it. There always exists then in a solid and visible form, in the form of houses, buildings, and goods, the whole mass of property, which is paid to a banker for his notes. Though not suddenly convertible, his notes, like assignats, are mortgaged on a substantial existency. In a word, *they are a machine for rendering fixed property circutable*. They enable the country to derive from its *biens fonds* not only, like other countries, a rent, an income, a yearly revenue, but to employ their capital value besides in productive industry. Bills of exchange are a representation of circulating productions, as bankers' notes are of fixed property. The owner of corn, of silk, of manufactured goods, draws, when he ships them, on the buyer for the value of these commodities, payable at or after the probable period of their delivery, or sale. The bill being discharged, the contract is completed. In this transaction the bill of exchange is no less the representative of an extant property, of corn, or silk, or manufactured goods, than the money tendered at a shop in payment of a pair of gloves. In both cases a real barter takes place. That the period of drawing is frequently by agreement distant from that of shipping, that subdivisions of labour intervene, which often occasion the producer of a commodity to draw on the metropolis of his own country, while a banker, or other intermediate agent of exchange, draws on that of the country receiving the goods, may complicate, but cannot alter, the nature of the transaction. Bills of exchange then are representatives of commodities in voyage or in warehouse; and they appear on an average to be coined at the production, and discharged at the consumption of the articles of commerce which they represent, and thus to be dependent on commodities both for creation and duration.

Unless the commodity existed first, the bill of exchange would not have been drawn. Accommodation bills themselves are but an apparent exception to this rule; they convey a real power over the fixed or the circulating property of the issuers and indorsers; and, although this property may be consumed before their discharge, the transferrers, in fact, speculate on its sufficient duration. There is no other difference between a banker's note and a bill of exchange, than that the one transfers a power over the fixed property of a given neighbourhood, and therefore wanders about the neighbourhood where that property remains; and the other transfers a power over the moveable property of commerce, and therefore follows that property from its source to its place of absorption.

Whoever buys, must pay for what he buys; immediately, if he wants credit, remotely if he can assign over an eventual security. It is thus with nations. When a bill of exchange has reached the place on which it is drawn, it is become, like a banker's note, a form of circulating the fixed property of the acceptor. Bills of exchange, therefore, put in circulation the fixed property of nations. They render the houses and streets of Hamburgh, the acres and forests along the Susquehannah, circutable in London, or Amsterdam. The whole property of Altona or Philadelphia may thus come to vest in the inhabitants of London. But as it would not be convenient to them to take actual possession, in proportion as this property pledges itself in their hands, they offer it for sale at a lower and lower rate. That is, the course of exchange becomes more favourable to the indebted, and less favourable to the crediting country.

Bills are sold by brokers to the highest bidder. If drafts abound on a particular place, they tend to sink in value. If drafts scarcen on a particular place, they tend to rise in value. This is, in fact, a fluctuation at London of the fixed property in Hamburgh; at Amsterdam, of the fixed property in Philadelphia. The first resource of a private merchant to get in uncertain debts, is to import the moveable property of his correspondent; and the first resource of a nation to realize its demands, is to import the moveable property of a foreign country. This is accomplished by low-

ering the course of exchange. Hamburg owes much to London; consequently drafts on Hamburg abound in the London bill-market; consequently they are sold cheap, below the par or average price of such drafts: the hemp and iron at Hamburg may consequently be bought in London with a less quantity of capital than before, although the price should continue unaltered at Hamburg. This brings on an artificial importation, until the balance of exchange is again in equipoise. Let the same phenomenon take place at Quebec; the moveable property will soon be exhausted, and the fixed property will begin to be transferred to English proprietors, until the balance resumes its equipoise. Let the same phenomenon take place at Petersburg; and the utility of the fixed property there to English proprietors being small, this fixed property will not readily be accepted; but its selling rate will rapidly diminish in London, and the course of exchange will keep lowering, until moveable property can be collected from Siberia and Astrakhan, and imported into Great Britain. In this case, the power of the Londoners over the fixed property of Petersburg is, in reality, transferred to the growers of hemp in Siberia, at the highest price they will give for it. London can make no other use of the fixed property of a remote foreign country, than to sell it to the inhabitants at the highest price they will give. It follows, that there can be no such thing as a favourable or unfavourable balance of trade; and that the fixed property of one country at the command of another, is always valued precisely at the amount of the difference between the two national accounts current. Each party gains, probably, by every act of circulation, by every transfer of property (generally speaking), but the eventual deficit on the one side, is always struck off by estimating afresh the assets on the other, at the precise amount of such deficiency. Hence all anxieties about the course of exchange are preposterous; if there be no impediment to importation from the country, our drafts on which sell low, and no impediment to exportation into the country, our drafts on which sell high, every inequality redresses itself in the most expedient and expeditious manner possible.

Bullion is a commodity of lasting va-

lue and small volume: it is, therefore, a convenient article of importation and exportation, when the course of exchange fluctuates much; but its accumulation or dissipation no otherwise influences the course of exchange than any other removal of an equal amount. Gold and silver have a precise worth as commodities; and, whenever a state attempts to affix by its stamp an artificial price on them, more than equivalent to the value really added by ascertaining the weight and assay, it, in fact, occasions a depreciation of the livre, peso, pound, or other nominal coin: the prices in exchange constantly accommodating themselves to the market rate of the metals so weighed and assayed. It is no more a grievance that our guineas should be drawn away, than that our cloths should be drawn away: that article should be exported which is surest to fetch a speedy profit. To us Mr. Thornton's expressions about "unfavourable state of the exchange," "unfavourable balance of trade," are words without meaning. Production is the creative, consumption the destroying, principle; but circulation is the preserving principle, and in proportion as it abounds, is the mass of persons maintained by industry. If any, the stable is the unfavourable state of exchange, because it is least conducive to circulation: yet a settled state of exchange indicates the prevalence of those commercial relations which are attended with a regular and certain profit; and an unsettled state of exchange indicates the prevalence of those speculative gambling forms of business, which are often succeeded by diffusive failures.

Much is said by Mr. Thornton of the expedient limitation of the issues of bank of England notes: of their tendency when profusely issued to raise prices, but to invigorate industry: and of the possible depreciation that might attend their excess. If bank of England notes were, as heretofore, payable in specie, this circumstance would impose the natural and expedient limitation. Whatever excess of notes had been thrown into circulation by the bank, would be brought back to the cashier, and turned into money: but the restriction (that is, the exclusive privilege of not paying its debts in specie) conceals from the very managers of the concern the proper amount of circulation, and substitutes



the caprice of directors to the demand of commerce.

Mr. Thornton has discussed with perspicuity topics of interest, and has compiled with sagacity information of moment; but, with a secret leaning to equitable and liberal policy, he has apparently shunned any pronounced opinion about recent circumstances, and

leaves ministers and the public as likely as before to accede to a repetition of that trimming policy of shifts and expedients, that partiality to the personal chieftains of the monied interest, which so often sacrifices to the solicitation of powerful companies the far more important interests of the unconfederated commercial public.

ART. XLIX. *A Letter (interesting to every Lottery Department, and particularly to Lottery Adventurers) addressed to the Right Honourable Henry Addington, containing a critical Examination of the Plan, Scheme, &c. of the new Lottery System. By R. HOULTON. 8vo. pp. 58.*

THE love of gaming is so inherent in human kind, that it is far better for governments to provide some regular method of temperate gratification, than to undertake the impracticable task of extirpation. If cards were cheap, the poor would imitate the rich, and waste on innocent whist their sixpenny anxieties, during the dusky vacant hour between shop shut and the grog and sandwiches. While cards continue dear, insurance in the lottery will be extensively practised; because it offers, by a very minute advance of capital, the luxury of that intellectual excitement and dance of hopes, which is the most natural and necessary pleasure of our thinking nature.

It might be maintained, therefore, that governments ought, instead of resisting, to facilitate certain equitable forms of gaming, where the chance of gain is fairly proportioned to the stake risked. Lotteries on the English plan, come within this description: they are chiefly faulty by absorbing at one time too much capital, and too much attention. If there were three yearly, and still smaller subdivisions of tickets could be purchased by the numerous classes, it is probable that a system of perpetual hazard would establish itself in every family, and that guinea-risks would as generally be incurred, as a hat-tax. This might be rendered very productive to the state, as well as very amusing to the subject, and by compressing into a short space of time the continuance of the drawing, the critical distemper, irritation, or insanity of gambling, during which alone mischievous ventures are made, might nearly be prevented and avoided.

This author appears chiefly anxious

to render the schemes of our lotteries as *interesting* as possible to the public: whereas the endeavour should be to render them as *uninteresting* as possible; in order that the money vested in this form of speculation may consist only of the spare cash, of the superfluous income of the people, and never intrench on the necessities of family-life.

Let us hear our author.

“The three lotteries consist of 100,000 tickets, which, at 17*l.* 7*s.* per ticket (the price only at which they thus early stand), produce the gross sum of 1,735,000*l.* The entire amount of the prizes being 900,000*l.* the *real value* of a ticket is of course no more than *nine pounds*. Deduct, therefore, the amount of the prizes from the above product, and we have a balance in favour of government and the contractors; or, in other words, a balance of *loss* to a great majority of adventurers, of no less a sum than EIGHT HUNDRED and THIRTY-FIVE THOUSAND POUNDS.

“Of this balance government receive 555,000*l.* and as it is for the *public service*, every British adventurer gives it to government with a most hearty welcome. But it is not equally clear, Sir, that adventurers will feel such a cordiality towards the lottery contractors, or think that they merit such a profit as the remaining sum of TWO HUNDRED and EIGHTY THOUSAND POUNDS, because their *spirit of emulation* led them to outbid all their competitors, and thereby subjected adventurers to a more than ordinary advance in the price of tickets above their real value.

“But I beg pardon of these wholesale lottery merchants; I forget to state, that they generously retail tickets to the *offices* at about one *shilling* and *nine-pence* profit to the latter, which, on 100,000 tickets, amounts to nearly 9000*l.* But as there are fifty licenced lottery *g.ces.* at least in Great Britain and Ireland, this 9000*l.* divided amongst them, scarcely gives 200*l.* to each

on the whole three lotteries, a poor, very poor emolument indeed, Sir, to the lottery offices, considering that they are the great LABOURING OAR to promote the sale of tickets, and the obvious risk to which they are in many respects liable, and which risk the little additional profit derived from dividing tickets into shares, is not always found an equivalent for incurring. Subtracting, then, this mighty allowance of one shilling and nine-pence per ticket to the offices,

and the contractors have only the small speculation of profit remaining, of TWO HUNDRED and SEVENTY-ONE THOUSAND POUNDS.

a very interesting object, doubtless, to themselves; but whether the great bulk of adventurers, who lose in exact proportion as the contractors gain, may think such a lottery scheme an object of interest, is somewhat problematical."

ART. L. *Review of the Statutes and Ordinances of Assize which have been established in England from the fourth Year of King John, 1202, to the thirty-seventh of his present Majesty.* By G. ATWOOD, Esq. F. R. S. 4to. pp. 91.

"THE first ordinance for fixing the price of bread in England (as far as appears from authentic records,) was established, by proclamation, in the fourth year of King John, anno 1202, as we are informed by Matthew Paris, in whose annals this ordinance is recorded: it is also inserted\* (probably copied from the last-mentioned author) in a collection of Anglo-Saxon and Anglo-Norman laws, published by the Rev. David Wilkins, S. T. P.

"This very imperfect regulation of assize continued in force little more than sixty years; for in the year 1266, in the 51st year of Henry III. it was repealed by the statute of assize made in that year.

"By this ordinance, the baker was allowed the expences incurred in converting a quarter of corn into bread, at a fixed sum of money, together with a profit in corn or bread, which was adjusted to a more adequate proportion, and with fewer numerical mistakes, compared with the regulation of assize which was superseded by it.

"The beneficial provisions of the statute of the 51st of Henry III. in a practical view, and the advantages the public derived from it, sufficiently appear from the long period of time in which it continued to regulate the prices of bread, during great vicissitudes of plenty and scarcity, affording a proportion of profit which the baker was well contented to accept, and the consumer paid without murmur or complaint.

"By this act, as well as by those which have been since enacted, the prices of loaves consisted of several distinct sums, one of which (by far the greatest) is included in the tables of assize, comprizing a repayment to the baker for the prime cost of the corn: 2dly, An over-payment, by way of profit, being the excess of the sum allowed to be charged in the tables, for any weight of bread above the price of the corn used in making it; the aggregate of these two sums constitute the price of any quantity of bread in the tables of assize, not including the expences of baking: 3dly, A sum of money is

allowed for defraying the expences of baking, and profit thereon, called, on this account, the money-allowance: 4thly, An advance on the money-allowance, arising from the mode established for paying it to the baker, which is always to the amount thereof, as the latent profit is to the price of the corn; to these must be added the value of the bran and the refuse-flour, as an additional profit to the manufacturer. The amount of the four sums make up the prices of the several loaves of bread paid by the consumer."

The subsequent pages contain a number of estimates and calculations, tending not so much to offer an opinion respecting the proportion of allowance or profit which ought to be granted to the manufacturer of bread, as to state with precision what this amount has usually been under the existing laws; distinguishing the allowances which are apparent and avowed, from those which are less obvious to public notice. This antiquarian, rather than legal disquisition, is executed with much erudition, and much ingenuity, and will be read with interest by others than the magistrate. It begins to be a question, might not all interference of the magistrate about the price of bread, be safely withdrawn? In large towns, where the demand at a given baking-office is very considerable, bread could be probably afforded below the taxed cost, and would be cheapened by the competition, not endeared by the combination of bakers. In small towns, on the contrary, where the demand would not maintain more than one baker, it is contended, that the price would be enhanced by withdrawing the assize, and that a number of private ovens would be constructed by persons at their ease, and that in consequence the poor ex-

\* With the variation of one word only, i. e. *lova*, in D. Wilkins, for *lova*, as stated in Matthew Paris; of which word I have not been able to find a satisfactory explanation. (Surely *loaf*. Rgv.)

clusively would, in small places, be injured by a withdrawal of the ordinances of assize. Yet why would not these builders of private ovens bake for the poor? We throw out these hints more to excite than to guide enquiry,

wishing that it might be found to terminate in adding one more to the increasing proofs of the position: that the absence of legal regulation is, in all branches of commerce, the best security for cheap and good supply.

ART. LI. *Improvement of the Fisheries (third Letter) or a Plan for establishing a Nursery for disbanded Seamen and Soldiers, and increasing the Strength and Security of the British Empire.* 4to. pp. 43.

THAT fishery is a very amusing, and commonly a very productive employment for the inhabitants of the seashore, is a truism, which it is patriotic to advertise on every coast where this occupation is not in use. But as angling is never the sort of fishery which can there be practised with advantage, it requires a very considerable capital to build the necessary boats and vessels; to provide the nets, and barrels, and drying-sheds; to advance the wages of the sailors; and to await the payments of the merchant. Fishery, therefore, is not likely to thrive in a poor or undercapitalised country; it is a result rather than a cause of prosperity, and is a form of occupation in which the richest nations engage the most extensively. The people of Tyre and Carthage formerly came to catch our herrings; in later times the Dutch and Flemings; we now catch them ourselves; and, in proportion as wealth and circulation stretch or stride into Ireland, the advice of this author will be acted upon, and the Irish too will catch fish.

Of the eloquence with which our author recommends to them to do so, the following passage will give an idea.

"Our neighbours boast, that they have found golden mines in the fishing banks on our coasts; and golden mines they have cer-

tainly proved to them. Let these fishing banks now prove golden mines to us; we want no other mines of gold, nor mines of silver, nor yet immense colonies. What has Spain gained by all her ill-gotten treasures had from Peru and Mexico, but pride and imbecility? With colonies that stretch well nigh over half the globe, she is weak at home.

"EXCESSIVE wealth, without industry, is a curse; and colonies may prove too great, and outweigh the parent state.

"These have furnished lessons for us; let us learn wisdom from them. Here let us pause; but not pause too long.

"If there was a crisis in the history of any nation, at which it might be saved from falling; if ever there was a tide in the affairs of man, a happy moment to save him from perdition, this is that crisis; this is that moment to secure this united kingdom from disunion, from uproar and destruction! and the establishing this fishing, is the only mean.

"But no little, narrow policy, will do; no partial meanness, no monopoly, no jobbing business, nor subterfuging tricks of avarice! It must be established to a wide extent, upon that great and noble principle, without restriction, a principle worthy of this great, united kingdom. This long neglected fishery, is now the last alternative. Awake! awake! let the British Manlius awake! Let the capitol be saved, nor regard the insignificance of the animal that gives the alarm."

ART. LII. *A new Mode of conducting the Corn Markets of Great Britain, with a Plan to put a Stop to Monopoly in Provisions.* By JAMES SAYERS, of Bath. 8vo. pp. 63.

ADAM SMITH, in the fifth chapter of his fourth book, has so convincingly demonstrated the impolicy of any interference of the magistrate with the corn-trade, that one is surprised still to see so many pamphlets published to recommend regulations, restrictions, bounties, excises, privileged markets, and other similar interferences. During the scarcity which prevailed until the close of the late war, how much harm was done even by the shy interference of ministers. The proclamations of the Duke

of Portland for assuring protection to the markets against rioters, greatly enhanced the fear both of scarcity and of disturbance, and thus increased the price, and diminished the readiness of supply. And the parliamentary bounties on importation, which undertook to indemnify merchants in case of an after-abatement, made it worth their while to buy American corn at any rate, and thus raised the whole stock of corn in North America, to the European price, which would else have flowed into the

English market with equal abundance, at a lower valuation.

This pamphlet has for its object, to subject corn to the same regulations as tea, wine, tobacco, and other articles afflicted with an excise. Until Mr. Beaufoy's plan of subjecting all contraventions of the excise laws, to trial by jury, shall have been agreed to by ministers; no man ought to be held guiltless, who proposes their extension. The arbitrary powers of fine and punishment conferred by the law, and the very arbitrary exercise of those powers experienced during the whole Pitt administration, so as studiously to render them an instrument of coercing political opinion, have made the excise laws of all others the most oppressive to popular honesty, and independence of opinion. We lament, therefore, or rather we blame the application of real ingenuity and information here offered to public attention. It proposes to interfere with what should be let alone; and to interfere in a manner hostile to public freedom.

The following extract will give an idea of the author's project.

III. "Every wholesale dealer who supplies smaller dealers with any sort or sorts of grain, corn, flour, meal, or any other kind or kinds of provisions, shall pay a licence to government of *twenty pounds per annum*; and his, her, or their name or names, number, and place of abode, be registered in the excise-office of the district where he, she, or they, generally reside.

IV. "No dealer or dealers in corn, grain, or any other kind or kinds of provisions, of British growth or produce, shall purchase the same, and resell it in the same market, but under such a penalty as the law hereafter shall direct.

V. "Every dealer in corn, grain, or provisions, of any sort or sorts, of British growth or produce, flour, or meal, manufactured from any kind of grain, each individual shall purchase all by *permit*, describing the quantity, quality, sort or sorts of grain, or any other kind of provisions, and in what market it is to be resold, and there to no

other person or persons but the small dealer, consumer or consumers. No dealer shall purchase from another dealer, unless for the supply of the markets in London, or other large cities or towns, the use of the army, navy, garrisons, or colonies, belonging to his majesty, beyond the seas; all other smaller dealers who purchase to sell from their shops or warehouses, by retail to the consumer or consumers, must purchase from no other but the farmer, grower, or manufacturer, of such provision or provisions. Every market shall be open and free for each and every dealer to purchase from farmer, grower, or manufacturer, of any kind or kinds of provisions, for the regular supply of the market where he, she, or they, generally attend, except the market in which they resell their commodity or provisions so purchased from the farmer, grower, or manufacturer.

VI. "Every market shall be provided with a clerk or clerks, and proper books, with one or more excise-officers to attend to take in *permits*, and give clearances to dealers, or rather consumers, for corn purchased; and one half hour before the market-bell rings, the clerk or clerks of the market shall call the names from the roll, of all the sellers, whether farmer or licensed dealer; each shall have a book; and, when called upon, the licensed dealer shall produce his permit of clearance for all the corn, grain, or provisions, he brings to market, the farmer shall declare what quantity, quality, sort or sorts of grain, he has brought to market, and if the produce of his own farm or farms; and opposite each name the quantity sold or not sold, and the name of the purchaser or purchasers. At the close of the market, the name and place of abode of all the purchasers shall be called, describing the quantity, quality, and what sorts of grain he, she, or they, have purchased, and from *whom*, and whether they are consumer or consumers, miller; baker, common dealer, or licensed dealer; and the excise-officers shall clear them individually from the market with a *permit*, to his, her, or their house, or place of abode."

In a sort of postscript, the author advances the opinion, that a redemption of the tythe ought to take place; a measure loudly called for by the interests of agriculture and of the stockholders.

ART. LIII. *The Case of the new House of Correction in Coldhath-Fields, and that of the new Prison in Clerkenwell, in the County of Middlesex, fairly and impartially stated in a Letter to \*\*\*\*\* Esq. one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of Middlesex. By a Brother Magistrate. 12mo. pp. 63.*

PRISONS should be horrible without, and comfortable within. It is useful to deter men from these actions which incur confinement. Yet the confine-

ment of the untried ought certainly not to be grievous, lest they should be innocent. And the confinement of the guilty ought not to be grievous, because

the human mind is usually soured and embittered by affliction and adversity, but is softened and ameliorated by order, cleanliness and temperate indulgence. The reputation of prisons for privation should however transcend the real conduct of them; because this operates as an efficient terror, and powerfully frightens the world at large from noxious actions. One is obliged therefore both to those alarmists, who impress on the public mind dark suspicions of the interior management of our houses of confinement, and to those magistrates, who by frequent visits take care to resist real abuse, and to preserve the degree of well-being in them, which humanity and social interest require. Perhaps no cause has operated more powerfully of late years, in preventing seditious outrages in London, than the extreme horror associated with the mention of the Coldbath Fields prison, which was supposed to be intended as the peculiar receptacle of Jacobinical transgressors.

The author of this little work will assist in diminishing this wholesome alarm, by many of his statements, and particularly by the high panegyric given in his appendix p. 51, to Governor Aris. Yet the book contains many curious facts relative to the management of prisons, the result of practical observation, of which perhaps the most valuable is the following statement.

"During our superintendence of the house of correction, shops were provided for different tradesmen to be employed (agregably to the act of parliament) in their respective trades; and if the accounts of the profits of their labour should be examined in a cool, candid, and impartial manner, I have no difficulty in saying, what I am well enabled to prove, that the smith's work only, in eleven months from March 1, 1797, to February 3, 1798, amounted to near 170*l*. the materials for which consisted of iron belonging to the old prison, which lay about the premises;—that from February 1798, to

April, 1799, the work amounted to more than twice that sum:—all the iron-work, erected at the governor's house, then building, was executed by the prisoners, and chiefly with old materials newly wrought up; but all this was considered (I know not why) as a matter not at all favourable to the interest of the county. Why the work was discontinued, has ever been a mystery, which I have not been able to unravel. I never could admit for a moment the suggestion of those, who have insinuated, that it arose from an unwillingness to have so much work done in the prison, by culprits, which would otherwise have been executed by honest tradesmen without the walls.—Such an illiberal statement does not deserve an answer; inasmuch as it would convey a reflection upon the magistrates, which I hope none of them merit in the smallest degree.

"While the prisoners were thus employed, all was quiet, orderly, and regular within the prison; I have been told by them that the greatest kindness which was ever shewed them, was the suffering them to work at their own trades:—one man in particular observed to me, 'Sir, I could not earn 20*s*. a week before I came hither, but I shall be able to earn 30*s*. when I go out; so much am I improved under the instruction of Berry.'

"Thus we went on during the time they were employed in building the governor's house; the greatest part of which was done by persons within the walls; and (excepting the stone-mason's work, which was committed to a very careless man, not a prisoner, but one who neglected every thing that he was entrusted with), the work in general was done in a capital way, and with great saving to the county:† certainly much to the benefit of the prisoners, who were kept in habits of industry, in which, I have no doubt, many of them have continued to this hour. We had, at one time, two or three pair of sawyers, three or four carpenters, eight or ten smiths, one turner, six taylor's, six shoemakers, all employed to the great emolument of the county, and to the great benefit of the individuals. The prison was white washed by the prisoners, under the inspection of one who was a master of the business, at the expence of 5*l*. instead of 100*l*. (the sum it had usually cost.)

ART. LIV. *Letter to Abraham Goldsmid, Esq. containing Strictures on Mr. Joshua Van Owen's Letters on the present State of the Jewish Poor, &c.* By PHILO-JUDEIS, 8vo, pp. 32.

"MR. Van Owen, after various preliminary and miscellaneous matter, attempts syllogistically to establish some, or all of the three following propositions; to which he

annexes what may not inaptly be styled, his deduction, or inference, viz.—

"Firstly. That the Jews are a good and industrious people, notwithstanding a con-

\* This man had been a convict, and was drawn in by some insidious Jews, to transgress the laws; but from all I could ever discover in him (and I watched him narrowly,) he is a very diligent, sober, artless man, and an intelligent and ingenious workman.

† I am told that the iron-railing round the governor's house is a most masterly piece of workmanship scarcely to be equalled in or about London.



trary imputation, resulting from the combination of adventitious circumstances.

"Secondly. That their poor are numerous, for want of handicraft trades.

"Thirdly. That the relief, as at present allotted for this poor, is very inadequate, and requires amendment.

"Fourthly. That any plan for the amelioration of the state and manner of this poor, must be managed without the smallest infringement of their ceremonial law.

This writer's aim is not to controvert

the theory but to point out the impracticability of establishing such a system. He alledges many reasons with plainness and temper, and on the whole tends to favour the inference that no legislative intervention is necessary; but that the moral and intellectual improvement of the jews, should rather be pursued through the medium of private institution, and voluntary patronage.

ART. LV. *Impartial Thoughts on the intended Bridges over the Menai and the Conway, with Remarks on the different Plans which are now in Contemplation for improving the Communication between Great Britain and Ireland, through the Principality of Wales.* By a Country Gentleman. 8vo. pp. 76.

THIS very elegant pamphlet displays that cultivated taste in and for the improvements of magnificence, which constitutes one of the most important accomplishments, or virtues, of a magistrate of the interior. To have composed such a book, would in China, no doubt, place the mandarin who wrote it, in the situation of lord lieutenant of his county; where his official rank and position might facilitate the convergence of that aid, and the levy of those requisitions, which he has shewn himself disposed and qualified to apply in a liberal grandeur of style, towards objects of national utility.

His plan is this,

"About seventeen miles beyond Conway lies Bangor Ferry; where passengers cross a strait called the Menai, which separates the county of Caernarvon from the island of Anglesey. To obviate the very serious inconveniences to which travellers are exposed in crossing these ferries, and to gratify that impatience so natural to persons of every description, in passing through a strange country, it has been proposed to erect bridges at this place or near it, and at Conway, whereby all these evils would be at once avoided, and the grand purposes of political and commercial communication materially promoted. With this object in view, a plan was submitted to parliament in the year 1786; but, owing to a jealousy in the commercial interest, and a deficiency of means, as we were then just emerging from our difficulties occasioned by the struggle with America, was laid aside. Since that period, the motives for planning it having increased with the means of putting it into execution, and various schemes having been suggested, from the improved state of the arts, whereby this great object could be attained, without endangering, in any material degree, local and individual interests, the public have again cast their eyes on a project which they had before abandoned with reluc-

tance. In addition to this, it has been proposed, among other plans of improvement, to erect a bridge at Conway; and as they are both, from their novelty, and the collision of separate interests, likely to excite a good deal of opposition, I shall endeavour to state impartially the relative causes of objection to each, and to discover whether the private injuries arising to individuals on the one side, are likely to outweigh the public advantages and local benefits which are to be thrown into the opposite scale. If I am correctly informed, the only shadow of an objection which can be raised to a bridge over the Menai, relates to the supposed difficulty of navigating the arches. To obviate this, it has been proposed to construct them of colossal magnitude, under which vessels might pass without striking their topmasts, and at the same time, by means of the wonderful improvements in cast-iron work, considerable open spaces should be left throughout the work, for the action of the wind upon the sails. That some partial injury must arise to the navigation, from the erection of any kind of bridge, in a navigable strait or river, is what no person can deny. That this injury will be aggravated by the local and peculiar difficulties of this strait, must also be granted. The question then will be, admitting the great advantages accruing to a country from a more easy communication with their neighbours, whether the injurious consequences are likely to overbalance the manifest benefits which would be derived both to the public, and perhaps to those individuals themselves, who now conceive it to be their honest duty, and their interest to oppose the measure?

"I shall protest at the outset against any arguments in favour of the plan drawn from the present insignificance of the trade which passes this strait. In a country whose traffic is its life's blood, its main pillar, and its support, no limits can be placed in any one case to the probable increase of commerce. Its progressive advances during the successive periods of the war in which this country has lately been engaged, prove it to be of a nature that sets calculation at defiance. The

following table of the trade of the Menai since July 1794, which is the fullest I have been able to procure, will serve at least to shew that it is of no trivial importance. This extract is taken from the custom-house books at Caernarvon only.

Years.	Vessels.	Tons.
1794 - -	1076 - -	36,837
1795 - -	1159 - -	40,065
1796 - -	1232 - -	42,275
1797 - -	1174 - -	36,981
1798 - -	988 - -	39,302
1799 - -	1150 - -	39,701
1800 - -	1242 - -	47,705

"Though in its present state it is a partial trade, by certain improvements in the bar of Caernarvon, and by removing the most dangerous of the Swilly rocks, which might be effected at no very serious expence, the navigation of this strait might become an object of important concern to and from Liverpool. Ships might ride in Beaumaris bay, waiting for a fair wind to carry them through the strait in one direction, or to Liverpool in the other. So far it cannot be called a mere coasting traffic."

The author then proceeds to detail

and answer the various objections, with a perspicuity and convincingness, which deserves to serve as a model to future writers on civil engineering. An engraving is annexed of the proposed bridge.

It is probable that for many years to come the highest practicable toll would not levy at this bridge money enough to pay the interest of the sum required for its construction; if it be executed on that vast scale, which would alone be convenient to navigation, and worthy of the country. It will therefore not be undertaken, like a canal, a turnpike, a dock, &c. as a speculation of private profit by a voluntary association of share-holders. Surely the united parliament, in order to facilitate the increased intercourse of the kingdoms might with praiseworthy generosity offer, out of the public treasury, half the requisite funds, leaving to the individuals who should raise the rest, the whole eventual profit of the tolls.

#### LATE GENERAL ELECTION.

ART. LVI. *A correct List of the Knights, Citizens, and Burgesses, elected to serve in the Parliament appointed to meet at Westminster, on Tuesday, November 16, 1802. corrected from the Returns in the Crown-office. To which are added, the Names of the Candidates, where the Elections were contested, and the Numbers polled; a Summary of the whole House of Commons; a List of Places which formerly sent Members to Parliament; a Table of the Duration of the several Parliaments, from the Reign of Henry VIII. to the present Time, with the Addresses of the Honourable C. J. Fox, Mr. Baker, Mr. Coke, Sir Jacob Astley, and Sir Francis Burdett.* 8vo. pp. 76.

OF this pamphlet, to transcribe the title is to give a sufficient account: a curious document is the list of places which formerly sent members to parliament, and now do not. Surely Manchester,

Halifax, and such towns would do well to petition for a restoration of their ancient privileges. Perhaps the reform, which is refused in gross, would be given in detail.

ART. LVII. *Thoughts on the late General Election, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism.* By JOHN BOWLES, Esq. 8vo. pp. 101.

TRUTH, says Mr. Bowles p. 26, is the first principle of moral excellence. It is the basis of religion, virtue, honour, confidence, law and order. It is the main pillar of society itself. So high a rank, indeed, does it hold among moral qualities, that it is used by the highest authority, to denote an attribute of the deity.

Yet amid all this solemn commonplace, we find at p. 10 the following most strange and marvellous assertion.

"According to that evidence it is clear, that a fair and free representation of the people in parliament was meant to be obtained by means of universal suffrage—by an exer-

cise of the pretended right of equal active citizenship; that it was an insidious term, employed to cover the traitorous design of calling together a convention, which was intended to assume all political authority whatever; to exercise sovereign power; to act independently on parliament, and in defiance of it; to supersede the legislature; to depose the king; to establish a government without either monarchy or aristocracy; in short, to bring about a revolution, similar to that which has taken place in France."

For that evidence, this author refers to Gurney's report of the trials of Hardy and Tooke; both which we have most attentively perused, and in which we detect no symptoms that warrant so

alarming a prognostic. The seditious societies, at the period of their greatest activity, were chiefly influenced by the writings of Mr. Thomas Paine, who, in the second part of the Rights of Man, had given an account of the American convention, evidently for the purpose of holding it up to English imitation. This convention consisted of a meeting of gentlemen from all parts of that country, somewhat informally delegated, who, after discussing the various changes desirable in the American constitution, and ascertaining the general wish of the friends to a federal union, quietly separated; and proceeded to recommend, through their local representatives, the alterations collectively devised. Such a convention was conformable to English habits: the manufacturers had held one to oppose the Irish propositions: the dissenters had held one to request Mr. Fox would apply for a repeal of the corporation and test acts: and such a convention was obviously the utmost purpose of the clubs. The Norwich revolution society did not even go so far, and recommended a convention in the forms of 1688, consisting merely of the constituted authorities. A sort of experimental convention was actually held in Edinburgh; and so far from betraying the slightest disposition to "assume all political authority whatever," the deference of the members for the magistrate was affectingly exemplary. Nor can it be supposed that, if this convention had been held

on English ground, the members could have been legally seized and punished. It may be very true, that during such a convention Mr. Gerald would have been heard to plead in behalf of universal suffrage; that the then Lord Daer would have defended Mr. Hume's system of representation; and that Mr. Horne Tooke would have supported his own plan, borrowed from the manner of choosing physicians at the London dispensaries of paying to the magistrate two guineas for the right of suffrage, and of repeating at pleasure the exercise of it. But it may reasonably be suspected that none of these schemes would have obtained so general a concurrence, at that time, as the plan devised by the friends of the people; many of whom preserved interior relations with the provincial societies, which would have enabled them decisively to influence the delegations.

One might as well impute to the anti-jacobins of this country, the deliberate purpose of imitating the horrors of the *ligue*, and the massacre of Saint Bartholomew, as to the clubs the intention of imitating the modern carnages. Yet of such baseless declamatory charges this pamphlet is full; whatever Mr. Bowles has read of in France, his imagination realizes in England; and this in so frantic a degree, that he absolutely describes the famous exhibition of the Goddess of Reason as having taken place at the Nottingham election.

**ART. LVIII.** *Duties of Electors, with Answers to Reviewers, by the Author of "The Impolicy of returning Bankers to Parliament."* 8vo. pp. 24.

THIS supplementary matter is of little consequence: but it is of consequence that the public should understand bankers to be powerful causes of cheapness. By facilitating in every line

of business the advance of capital, they increase in every line of business the competition, and consequently diminish the profits of stock, which are a component part of the price of all things.

**ART. LIX.** *Considerations on the late Elections for Middlesex and Westminster; together with some Facts relative to the House of Correction in Goldbath Fields.* 8vo. pp. 86.

THIS pamphlet is written with the elegant propriety which usually characterizes now-a-days the productions of the British press. There is a polished public to please, to whom the blunders of ineducation, or the coarseness of under-breeding, can find no access. The Baileys and the Cobbetts, with all their

natural talent, are no longer the avowed instructors of civilized society. The civet of urbanity, and the varnish of literature, must now perfume and burnish the toys of the reading world. Whether solidity and duration are consulted by this refinement, may contentedly be left to the observation or for-

getfulness of the next decennium. Notoriety, both to booksellers and authors, is an ample compensation for celebrity; as the bank note, which wears out in a twelvemonth, serves more the issuer and the public, than the guinea hoarded in the miser's coffer. For such temporary and multifarious circulation, these considerations are aptly calculated.

The author inverts the distribution of matter announced in his title page. He first analyses Mr. Fox, and then Sir Francis Burdett. His objections to Mr. Fox are, 1. That he coalesced with Lord North. 2. That he seceded awhile from parliamentary attendance. 3. (But this topic is handled first) That he wrote an address to the electors of Westminster.

Why is the coalition ascribed at all to Mr. Fox? Mr. Burke was at that time the leader of the parliamentary opposition. His opinions were never diametrically opposite to those of the high Tories. He took the most contiguous ground, on which the semblance of opposition could be maintained. Vague rhapsodies about liberty may have decorated some of his harangues, but his object was to introduce his party to power, and by equivocal concessions to the American people, and the flattering patronage of the American chieftains, to purchase a pacific reconciliation, capable of being corrupted afresh into dependence. Mr. Burke's favourite system of government was the aristocracy of strong minds, the administrative union of the leaders of distinct and adverse parties. He thought that each faction ought to weigh in the state as it weighed in the nation; and that political equity, or just government, consisted in the practical tolerance of all, and the proportionate ascendancy of each. With such opinions the coalition was neither immoral nor absurd. It failed, because although leaders can estimate the arguments of adversaries, and the efficacy of their resistance, yet partizans never can: but mistake for apostacy the compromise, without which even partial victory is impracticable.

Mr. Burke had appreciated aright the sentiments of parliament, and obtained the co-operation within doors which was requisite to his success. But he had undervalued, because he despised, the influence of the people: and instead of employing the first moments of the Rockingham administration in scattering

the donatives coveted by the democracy, he lost those irrevocable months during which the crown accomplished an alliance with the advocates of parliamentary reform. The implied condition of this alliance, basely as it was forfeited by the king's minister, was worth the pursuit and risk of the democratic party; they could but be disappointed again, as they had been already by the Rockingham administration.

The secession is still less a ground for national complaint: it is a question between the member and his constituents.

—“When impious men bear sway,  
“The post of honour is a private station.”

The address to the electors of Westminster is not merely a very beautiful composition, but is one of those few instances of sincerity and courage which the age affords. Who does not perceive by this time that history will so speak of those ministers, and that parliament?

Next comes the turn of Sir Francis Burdett. The charges against him are, 1. That he has overstated the misgovernment of the Coldbath Fields prison. 2. That he has praised O'Connor. 3. That he has obtained the votes of 370 millers. 4. That he has identified his cause with that of an exceptionable party.

If Sir Francis Burdett has overstated the misgovernment of a prison, appropriated for the seditious, he has thereby excited an undue degree of fear and alarm in the minds of persons disposed to sedition, and has thus been a cause of tranquillizing the public conduct. But it does not appear that his account was an overstatement at the time, although the subsequent visits of magistrates may have occasioned the reform of several abuses denounced by him.

Of the talents of O'Connor it is presumed there are not two opinions: the only question seems to be, what degree of countenance may a member of the British house of commons give to a rebel against the king, consistently with his duty to the country? Mr. Burke's mention of Doctor Franklin, and intercourse with him, is probably a precedent of discretion. If the affairs of Ireland once were in such a state that, without the bayonet or the torture, they might have been quieted by moderate concessions to the multitude, and by an

affected ignorance of those designs of the chieftains which would have rendered their patronage by the state indecorous and obnoxious, surely it became our humaner statesmen to profess this ignorance, to discuss these concessions, and for that purpose to cultivate a good understanding with some of the rebel leaders.

With respect to the millers' votes, the receiving of them seems to be the affair of the returning officer; it is not contended that Sir Francis Burdett created them fraudulently during the election.

For what reason are those popular societies, which Sir Francis Burdett is supposed to have frequented, called exceptionable? They may be useful as cheap amusements, useful as schools of eloquence, useful as seminaries of in-

struction, useful as evolvers of merit, useful as bonds of patronage, useful as props of constancy, useful as defences against intolerance, useful as instruments of order, useful as gages of opinion. The mischief of the jacobin club at Paris, seems to have resulted from its being one and indivisible, and consequently too numerous for reciprocal inspection and controul. It would, however, be well if these societies occupied themselves more with specific and redressable grievances, and less with the structure of the constitution. Why should they not endeavour to obtain a repeal of the laws which prohibit the combinations of journeymen to obtain an advance of wages? Adam Smith, in the eighth chapter of his first book, has shown that these laws only do harm.

**ART. LX.** *Letter to the Worthy and Independent Livery of the City of London, touching the Election of Members to serve in Parliament for the said City.* By the Right Honourable and Right Reverend the CHAPTERS OF MAGNA CHARTA. 8vo. pp. 19.

THIS pamphlet seems to contain some personal allusions which were probably felt and enjoyed during the general election: it is now chiefly reprehensible for inculcating the doctrine that members of parliament ought to obey the instruc-

tions of their constituents; whereas, the whole use of representation consists in selecting men better qualified to judge of the public interest than the constituent body.

**ART. LXI.** *Address to the Independent Freeholders of the County of Suffolk, on the approaching Election.* By a SUFFOLK FREEHOLDER. 8vo. pp. 51.

THIS address relates principally to the duties of Suffolk freeholders, and of course contains many counsels, which the freeholders of other counties could apply, if so disposed, to their own political conduct. They are advised to turn away from those representatives who supported the anti-jacobin triumvirate, during their bustling, unsuccessful, and intolerant career of administration. They are advised to choose representatives from their own body, neither

strange, nor noble, nor directly or indirectly connected with the government. They are advised to exert vigilance, to practice self-renunciation, to despise bribes; but, alas! in vain, for the peace of the county was not disturbed by any contest.

It may be questioned whether elections ought to be suffered to take place, without putting in nomination double the number of persons to be returned.

#### PARLIAMENTARY PROCEEDINGS.

**ART. LXII.** *Substance of the Speech delivered by Lord GRENVILLE, in the House of Lords, November 13, 1801, on the Motion for an Address approving of the Convention with Russia.* 8vo. pp. 145.

LORD GRENVILLE's oratory, or rather composition, (for we hardly suppose an audience can have been found to sit out this homiletic discourse), is as

remarkable for the absence, as Mr. Burke's for the presence of imagination: its merits must be sought in the exhaustive multiplicity of his reasons, and the



astonishing latitude of his amplifications, in a certain lathery tautology, which makes a mouthful of breath into a cisternful of sud; and surprises, if not by the rapidity, at least by the volume of its dilatation. Such speeches improve in the hands of a reporter, who omits in his newspaper the insignificant and unnecessary matter; but they tend, when printed entire, to impair the celebrity of the deliverer.

We shall preserve a passage.

"Without, however, detaining your Lordships longer on a point so clear as hardly to admit of illustration, I will now proceed to the last branch of this inquiry, and examine those stipulations of the present treaty which relate to the right of search.

"Were it not, indeed, for the confident hope which I entertain of seeing the other deficiencies of the convention supplied by the result of the negotiations now depending, I should consider all that regards this last point as being comparatively of very little moment. Not that I am at all desirous of depreciating a claim, which, as a part of our general system of maritime law, I have always thought of infinite importance: but because its whole value is, as I conceive, purely relative, and must always entirely depend upon the extent and nature of those principles to the maintenance of which it is applied.

"The privilege of visiting, or of searching a neutral ship, can of itself be of very little advantage. It is useful only as it facilitates the exercise of other rights; as it leads to the detection of frauds, and the prevention of unlawful commerce; and as it affords the means of ascertaining those facts which justify detention, seizure, and confiscation.

"If, therefore, we are henceforth to continue to neutrals the advantages which this convention guaranties to them, our right of visitation, or of search, could be of little value. When we have opened to them the coasting and colonial trade of our enemies, what should we gain by acquiring the utmost certainty that they do in fact avail themselves largely of that permission? When we have declared naval stores not to be contraband, what could it profit us if we should examine every cargo of that description which is carried to the ports of our enemies? Or, when we have admitted that a port, blockaded only by a cruising squadron, is open to the trade of neutrals, what purpose would it answer to ascertain the name of every vessel sailing with such a destination?

"But if, on the contrary, that code of naval law which Great Britain has hitherto asserted, had in this negotiation been steadily maintained, and unequivocally confirmed, nothing could have been more important than to have crowned that great work, by

placing beyond dispute the means of exercising those principles, the justice of which had finally been recognised.

"Defective, therefore, as I must consider this treaty in its present state, I cannot help believing that its authors will be induced, if not by these suggestions, at least by their own reflections, to apply themselves with diligence and zeal to procure, for the interest of their country, some more effectual and permanent security. And as in that case it is, I think, impossible to doubt of their immediate and complete success, I am desirous to solicit the attention of the house to what I have to state on this one remaining point, which would, under such circumstances again become an object of very principal and leading importance.

"The general right of visitation and search follows of necessity from that of maritime capture. If we may lawfully make prize of the ships and properties of our enemies, some inquiry is evidently necessary, that we may distinguish them from those which belong to neutrals; or, if any restraints may justly be imposed in war on the commerce of the neutrals, it is only by examination that we can ascertain, in any particular case, either that the cargo is innocent, or the destination legal.

"This is, indeed, so manifest, that, if we except some idle declamation from the schools of French philosophy, I believe this right itself has never yet been seriously questioned.

"But some of those neutral states, whose subjects have profited by speculations which their treaties admit to be unlawful, are always anxious to narrow the exercise of a right, the principle of which they cannot dispute. In this desire, and a general hostility to the British naval power, originated both the practice of giving convoy to neutral commerce, and the pretension of exemption from visitation and search all vessels so protected.

"In the very few instances which can be alleged of any ancient practice of this nature, it is notorious that the immediate object of the convoy so appointed, was to cover an unlawful commerce; and if history alone had not enabled us to reject this pretension, reason and justice are completely decisive against it.

"Our cruisers were required to receive the declaration of the neutral officer, as conclusive evidence of a fact which he has neither any interest to examine, nor any sufficient means to ascertain; which, therefore, even if it were true, could not be known to him, and which, if it were false, it was made impossible that we should ever be enabled to disprove. All examination was denied to us, except that our ships of war might, if they please, send an officer on board the convoying ship, and there receive a communication of the papers and certifi-

ates belonging to the merchant vessels of the convoy. But if those papers were regular, (and it would, under such circumstances, be strange indeed, if they were otherwise), no further search whatever could take place.

"This was the pretension, and this the law, which the hostile confederates in the league of 1800, bound themselves to impose by force upon Great Britain, after the deliberate and premeditated act of one of those powers had brought the matter to the issue of open violence.

"From my own feelings I judge of those which your lordships must have experienced when you perceived, on reading this convention, how little benefit we have, in this just cause, derived from the most complete success; how little the British admission of the present day differs in its practical application from that neutral claim, our necessary resistance to which was the immediate occasion of the war.

"The right of searching vessels under

convoy, which was denied by the convention of armed neutrality, is, indeed, recognised by this treaty. But to what purpose it is recognised, we must learn by an examination of the subsequent provisions, which have limited the exercise of a right, the justice of which has been thus openly acknowledged."

This same topic is treated with similar inanity for thirteen pages more, and then comes this conclusion:

"It is then but too manifest, that while we have in words established the right of visiting ships under neutral convoy, we have in fact so limited and circumscribed the practice, as utterly to renounce every beneficial purpose to which it ever could, by any possibility, be applied."

The appendix contains the state-papers referred to, and is both convenient and valuable.

**ART. LXIII.** *The Speech at length of Sir FRANCIS BURDETT, Bart. in the House of Commons, April 12, 1802, on his Motion for instituting an Inquiry into the Conduct of His Majesty's late Ministers.* 8vo. pp. 26.

ELOQUENCE is better taught by the instincts of human nature than by the rules of the rhetorician. There is a mixture of benevolence and vanity, which wishes to deserve, and is flattered by obtaining the plaudits of the multitude, whence demagogic excellence more certainly arises, than from looking into Cicero for models and counsels, or translating the declamations of Mirabeau and Isnard. This internal tutor, this efficient monitor, Sir Francis Burdett seems to possess; but having accustomed himself, during one period of his political apprenticeship, too exclusively to club-audiences, he has not yet at command all that versatility of manner, which his various sets of hearers require. One form of argumentation or invective strikes home at the hustings, another in the debating societies of educated leisure, a third in the presence of the national representation. A finished taste would employ them severally in their respective places. Care should be taken not to confound the audience with the gallery; not to address a club through the house, or the house through a club; but, with a very slight allowance for occasional improprieties of this kind, Sir Francis Burdett deserves a high rank among the orators of Great Britain, for the exclamatory vehemence and contagious zeal of his manner, and for the

stimulant exaggeration with which he expresses what the ardour of his talent conceives.

This speech is somewhat fitter to be read aloud than in silence; and now than ten years hence: but it abounds with passages of great feeling, animation, and searchingness, of which it may be well to select the peroration.

"The right honourable gentleman, however, did not forget us the full extent of the evils which we were to endure. He only told us the evils that could not be avoided, even by an administration composed of the wisest and best men in the country. He did not tell us what himself could do. He did not tell us the extent of the calamities we were to suffer under an administration composed of the worst men in the country; under an administration of which himself was the head, in conjunction with those very men whom he had before held up as the most corrupt men in the country, and as fit objects of public indignation and public vengeance. Those evils we now feel, and I now tell the people of Great Britain and Ireland, as he told them at the close of the American war, that they have no choice between ruin and reform. I call upon the gentlemen of Great Britain and Ireland, to stand forward at length in defence of the rights of the people at large. This is their natural position, the post of interest as well as honour; and let us all, before it became too late, set about reforming those abuses which disgust the country, and weigh the people

ple to the earth. Consider our next war with France will probably be carried on in Great Britain; and if you wish for energy, you must not be out of love with democracy. If you want virtue, you must give it motives. If you want patriotism, you must afford a patria by a fair government, embracing and taking in the people, by restoring to the people their rights, and give them secu-

rity for their enjoyment, by a fair representation in this house. Thus by uniting all classes in one common interest, you may defy the power of France, aggrandised as she is; or of the world, could it be placed in one giant arm. And what is more, you may defy wicked, corrupt, and profligate ministers."

### WEST-INDIA AFFAIRS.

ART. LXIV. *The Crisis of the Sugar Colonies; or an Inquiry into the Objects and Probable Effects of the French Expedition to the West-Indies; and their Connection with the Colonial Interests of the British Empire. To which are subjoined, Sketches of a Plan for Settling the vacant Lands of Trinidad.* In Four Letters to the Right Hon. Henry Addington. Svo. pp. 230.

THIS volume is composed by a man of education and ability, who has resided in the West Indies; it is entitled, therefore, to the threefold attention which practical observation, natural talent, and acquired instruction jointly deserve. The book, however, is too much of a book: a great deal is said, that one had seen said before: and a certain artificial importance is given to common-place notorieties, as if they were personal discoveries, or profound observations. For instance, (p. 27 and 28,) the author says, "I proceed to offer my reasons for suspecting, that a counter-revolution in the state of the enfranchised negroes, is the main object of France, in her West-India expedition." Who ever doubted that the French troops were sent to the West-Indies, to quell the black insurgents? It was the ostensible and avowed object of the expedition, and has been the invariable pursuit of the army. Yet these reasons for suspecting that the sun shines, occupy fifteen pages. An eloquent exuberance characterizes the style of our author, and a sensitivity (if we may so call it) of imagination, which makes even the minutest phenomenon appear important to his attention. This turn of mind somewhat influences his whole temper; which, like that of an alarmist, is wonderfully impressed by remote, fantastic, contingent, uncertain dangers, and would expend on precaution the worth of preservation. A writer, every way so interesting, and so well qualified to attain his ends himself, ought not to be heard through a commentator.

"I have endeavoured to unveil the true nature, and to point out the most probable immediate effects, of the French expedition; and have shewn, though with powers very

far inferior to the important work, the new and alarming dangers to which, in every possible event of the contest between France and her colonial negroes, the western wing of our empire will be exposed. It remains to enquire, 'What measures should these prospects suggest, to the prudence of the British government?'

"If our approaching situation in the West-Indies is likely to be thus perilous, can that situation be averted by any means in our power to apply? Or if inevitably at hand, is there any preparative measure, by which its evils may be palliated?

"That we cannot attempt to control the measures which France may think fit to adopt for the government of her colonies, is sufficiently obvious. To my mind, and I would hope Sir, to your's, it is no less clear, that her hostile or coercive measures ought not to be directly or indirectly assisted by this country; but that we are bound by the plainest rules of policy, if not also in justice towards Toussaint, to observe a strict neutrality. Actively to obstruct the French operations, would be to provoke a new war, but to further them, would only be to hasten, perhaps eventually to augment, the jeopardy of our own colonies: and were our interference even to produce no worse effect, than that of exciting against us the hatred and enmity of the negroes, I should regard it as a disadvantage not to be counterbalanced, by the acquisition of a claim on the precarious gratitude of France.

"An invidious policy, like that which our old enemy practised against us in our quarrel with America, would ill suit the character of Great Britain. Let us disclaim, therefore, every idea of secretly fomenting or prolonging the impending contest. But let us discern our own interest as well as our duty better, than to assist in hastening its termination. Though the protraction of discord or civil war, in Guadaloupe and St. Domingo, is what humanity may regret, it is the best political hope of the British interests in the West-Indies. It will postpone at least,

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the perils of our Leeward Islands and Jamaica, and the call for arduous efforts to defend them. When the labours of the Republic end, our own must immediately commence.

"It is not impossible even, that if a sanguinary contest should be long maintained between the mother country and her black colonists, the breach, like that between Great Britain and America, may grow too wide to be closed, and a final separation may be the issue; and though this would be a case pregnant enough with danger, yet an independent negro state, would certainly be a less terrible neighbour to the British sugar colonies, if irreconcilably hostile to France, than if under her influence, and willing to promote her views.

"That the suppression of negro liberty is not less the cause of Great Britain than of France, is a proposition which our creole fellow-subjects very naturally wish to maintain; but a British minister will pause before he admits its truth, and must feel, that at least there are sacrifices, at the expence of which that cause ought not to be promoted. He will therefore, do well to remember, that to accelerate the pacification of St. Domingo, would be to place more speedily at the disposal of the French government, at least 60,000 most formidable troops; to which, Guadeloupe and Cayenne would, probably, add near 20,000 soldiers of the same description; not to mention the great European force by this time arrived in the islands: and it will behove him to consider what reasonable ground of reliance we have, that this vast force will be afterwards disbanded, so as not to continue to be a mine under the foundations of our West-India dominion, charged, and ready to be exploded, at the pleasure of the republic.

"To the planters, I admit, that invasion will be less terrible by not bringing enfranchisement in its rear; but to the British empire at large, it will be a small consolation, that the tree of liberty is not planted along with the tri-coloured standard, if those rich colonies are to be added to the dominions of an enemy. The evil, in a public view, will not be less, by their passing unimpaired in agricultural wealth, and commercial importance into the hands of so potent a rival.

"Let not self-interested voices then, however loud, and however specious their representations, prevail upon you to depart from the straight course of a sincere and exact neutrality. Do not contribute to hasten to that perilous position of our national interests in the West-Indies, which civil war in the French colonies only can suspend; and which, at best, will far outgrow your means of defensive preparation. Let not the plausible

terms of "repressing rebellion; curbing the revolutionary spirit," or whatever other glosses may be used to disguise the true nature of the impending contest, induce you to assist in building a scaffold in the new world, for that ambition which has already raised so colossal a fabric in the old.

"With the moral merits of the question between the two parties, we have no concern; nor is it clear, that did they stand at our judgment seat, the cause of the republic would be found so just, as has been of late industriously represented by some, whom dread of negro liberty has made, on this occasion, her advocates. But of this we are certain, that supposing it right in France to re-establish by her arms, that bondage which by her laws she abolished, we can have no duty in the case superior to that of watching over our own interest and safety: nor is it less clear, that the further extension of her power is an evil, as much at least to be dreaded, as the independence or freedom of the negroes; and that therefore, as she can give no effectual security for not using to our damage her approaching means of annoyance, it would be madness in us to accelerate a crisis, that may place them entirely in her hands. In a word, for the re-establishment of order in the French colonies, we cannot afford to hasten that insecurity of our own, which may oblige us to hold them in future, as tenants at will to the great nation.

"I will insist no further on a point of policy, which with many, may appear too clear to have needed illustration. That you, Sir, view it in the same light, I shall be happy to discover by your measures; but let me repeat, that a passive line of conduct in his majesty's government will, probably, not suffice to ensure the neutrality of our colonies; of which the recent aid given to *Lacrosse*, in some of our Windward Islands is, if report may be credited, \* a striking indication.

"Of active precautionary measures that may be taken, while the dangers that so awfully threaten our colonies are yet suspended; I would next briefly speak.

"That exterior means of defence can no longer be called upon as formerly, has, I trust, been sufficiently shewn. They would be certainly inefficacious, unless provided on a scale much larger than could, without ruin to the general interests of the empire, be long maintained. But the consideration of expence apart, our islands could not, in their present state of interior imbecility, be effectually defended against the new and ever threatening means of invasion, which, in either of the cases we have contemplated, the republic would certainly possess, by the arms of the mother country alone. Those

\* Since this sheet was put to press, it is reported that another instance of this kind has occurred at Jamaica; where a bare-faced annulling of recent engagements with Toussaint, is said to have been the first fruits of the notification of peace with France.

new powers of hostility, being indigenous in the French colonies, would be too abundant and vigorous, to be opposed by the scanty and feeble exotics of European growth, heretofore imported into our own. To contend with the republic between the tropics, without a large portion of the same home-made belligerent force, would be like beating up for recruits against Cadmus, who could raise armies in a moment from the ground.

"Is it necessary then, that large bodies of negro troops, should be raised and maintained in Jamaica and our other islands? If we would long retain the sovereignty over them; if we would prevent their soon swelling the dominions of the French republic; that expedient, objectionable and hazardous, though during the present situation of their brethren in those islands it may be, must, I think, be adopted.

"To such a system of defence, were it not a matter of strict necessity, there are, I admit, some serious objections; and the planters, even under the present circumstances, may be expected pretty strongly to oppose it. If the enrolling the small negro force which, at an arduous crisis of the late war, was very prudently raised, gave general uneasiness in our colonies, how much more would the placing in them permanent garrisons of the same dreaded soldiery, powerful enough to guard against these new dangers of invasion, be a subject of disquietude and alarm! It cannot excite surprise that the white colonists greatly distrust such protectors; between whom and the slaves there must, necessarily, be the closest sympathy, and often the nearest domestic connections and attachments; for it is impossible that the black soldier should regard the extreme and degrading bondage of his brethren, without disgust; nor is it easy to reconcile with that sense of honour, inseparable from the profession of arms, and which while it excites, becomes also a necessary check upon the military spirit, the contempt and abhorrence hitherto attached to the colour of his skin, by the people of whom he is to become a defender.

"By the colonial politician, it would by no means be thought a trivial objection, that this complexional opprobrium would be lessened; for however absurd and unjust it may appear to European ideas, he approves and cherishes the prejudice, as a wholesome aid to subordination, and a cement of the master's authority. Nor can I with candour affirm, that the existing system derives no support or security from this source: on the contrary must admit, that had not nature imprinted on the skin of the negro an indelible and striking mark of distinction from his master; or had not prejudice converted it into a badge of infamy, as well as of servitude, the abrupt and monstrous disproportion of social condition, between the white and black inhabitants of the colonies, would

either not have been formed, or could not so long have been maintained. But while we admit, that to create a military order out of the abject cast, where there are only two classes of society, divided by the immeasurable distance between British liberty and the absence of every social right from each other, would not be unattended with danger; there is surely room to hope, that this establishment, if successful, would gradually tend to the peaceable melioration of the social edifice; not only by softening the prejudices which stand obstinately in the way of improvement, but by giving such internal means of supporting a vigorous police, as might lessen the danger of innovation.

"The ground of necessity however, is that on which the plan of defence may least be recommended, and the only one upon which the planters can be expected to accede to it; and if there be any truth in the remarks which I have made upon the physical powers of negroes, opposed to those of Europeans in a hot climate, it is undeniable that the resort is not only necessary to save the lives of our soldiers and seamen, but to attain the end for which they have been hitherto sacrificed so freely. While encountered only by the best foreign soldiers of the temperate zone, our brave regiments may be expected to conquer in any field, however disadvantageous, as has recently been proved in Egypt: but they are men, and must yield to constitutional superiorities so many and so formidable as those with which they would now have to conflict in West-India war; assailed as they would at the same time be by tropical diseases, and out-numbered to a fearful excess.

"Since at every step of our progress in this inquiry, the extreme and unnatural bondage in which the great majority of the inhabitants of those populous islands is held, presents some view of danger, or some obstacle to necessary measures of defence; is there no possibility, it may be asked, of going to the root of every evil at once, and strengthening our colonies in the most effectual way, by interior reformation?

"That a reformation of that shocking and opprobrious system is loudly called for, by every duty which the christian, or even the philosopher, acknowledges; by every principle which politicians of all parties, or of any party, profess to hold wise or sacred: is indubitably true. But unhappily, there has been hitherto no disposition, and there may now perhaps, not be sufficient opportunity to make it.

"There was a time, Sir, and to look back on it may not be useless, when such happy reformation might have been insured. Already I am firmly convinced, its progress would have been great; and a foundation would have been laid, whe upon, at this hour of danger, a system of interior defence of the most substantial kind, might have



been speedily and safely erected. I allude to the first efforts made in parliament for an abolition of the slave-trade; which I fully agree with its promoters in thinking, would have been the surest and easiest mean of correcting all the evils attendant upon West-India bondage. Had this great measure been adopted, even at the period limited for it by the votes of the commons in 1792, very different indeed, would have probably been the present situation of our islands. Perhaps the day is at hand when this retrospect will furnish an impressive lesson; but it is not yet arrived; and nations, like individuals, seem fated to be taught by experience alone, the

inseparable connection between morality and true wisdom."

Glowing philanthropy, and benevolence of purpose, endear this author to the susceptible and cultivated reader; yet there are who will doubt, whether his leading proposal, the immediate armament and discipline of black regiments, may not be liable to form a Spartacus. Hercules was invoked by the master as a patron of order; but his temple served as an asylum to runaway slaves.

**ART. LXV.** *An Address to every Class of British Subjects, and particularly to the Legislators and Colonists of the British Empire; in which some Observations are offered on the Nature and Effects of the Slave Trade, and a new Mode of Abolition; humbly recommended to the Notice of the Public.* By DENNIS REID, Esq. of the island of Jamaica. 8vo. pp. 52.

AFTER all that has been written on the slave-trade Dr. Priestley's sermon contains, perhaps, most good sense in least compass. He observes that immediately after the Saxon conquest of England the lands here were cultivated by slaves, or churls, saleable at the will of the owner. That afterwards, the churls were attached to the soil; were rendered personally unsaleable, and became vassals. That finally, vassalage itself was abolished, and hired labour substituted to the right of employing concatenated with the obligation of maintaining. He then recommends the gradual application of this process to the West-Indian colonies.

The experiment may most conveniently be tried first in the wholly cultivated islands. Barbadoes, Guadeloupe, are probably of this description; so that the further importation of slaves there is not required by the interest of any new adventurers, who are about to cultivate raw fresh lands. In such islands the slave-trade ought, without any delay, to be abolished; in order that the best mode of introducing vassalage may experimentally be ascertained. It may then be applied with courage, on a larger scale, to the residual colonies progressively. The art of abolishing vassalage without shock or inconvenience is to be learnt, not in the proposals of Walter Tyler to Richard II. but in the proceedings of Bernstorff, the late minister of Denmark.

Our author's suggestions are thus expressed:

"Every friend to morality would desire an immediate and unqualified abolition; but if it should appear to cause a great derangement in the affairs of new settlers, or of old estates in want of new negroes, the wisdom of parliament, which has ever shewn an extreme caution in meddling with the sacred rights of property, might allow the trade to be carried on for two or three years at most, in which space the most odious and wicked parts of it should be altogether relinquished. As to the decrease of negroes in our islands, since it is confessed by all sides their mode of treatment has been gradually improving, up to the present hour, it cannot be said for certain, but may be fairly presumed, there is none, or, if any, very trifling: in 1793 it was not one per cent.; and with a general system of encouragement, which it is our interest to adopt at once, we may expect an increase in no great length of time: no new estates should be settled in the old way, but, *mutatis mutandis*, the present kept up in number and value. With respect to compensation, as no property is to be destroyed, so there will be no need of it. Clergymen of good morals should be encouraged by fixed salaries to settle in the colonies. As no country is more in want of their labours, so none, as far as money goes, can better repay them: but care should be taken that they only should go over, who meant to ameliorate the condition of the negroes by first ameliorating their morals. A hint has been before given, of sending over 5 or 10,000 men, to remain for ever: in every point of view this measure cannot fail of being attended with very beneficial effects; they would add greatly to the security of our islands, both as an armed force and as forming a new middling rank of people, the want of which is greatly felt; their mortality will depend on their management, since it is more owing to intemperance than climate. A quantity of land, to be divided

into small coffee, or cotton plantations, should be granted them at once; and surely it will not be too much to require them to be sent out at the expence of government, after what has been said on the best authority, of our colonial wealth having been one main resource, which has been touched in the late glorious and successful war. Care should be taken not to interfere in all matters of local and interior concern: they are both unworthy of the regard of parliament, and fall

under the regulation of the colonial governments, for which sole purpose they were established; consequently any interference of the British parliament is considered as an invasion of colonial rights, and cannot fail to excite the resentment and dissatisfaction of every colonist.

"Such is the outline of the mode of abolition, which appears to be attended with the least inconvenience and danger to our colonial interests."

### EAST-INDIA AFFAIRS.

**ART. LXVI.** *An Account of the Proceedings at the General Court, held at the East-India House, on Wednesday, December 16, 1801; including a Sketch of the Debate on the following Resolution of the Court of Directors: "That this Court confirm the Resolution of the Court of Directors, of the 4th of November last, whereby the Commander, Officers, and Owners of the Kent, are fully acquitted from all Imputation of Neglect or Misconduct in respect to the Loss of that Ship." And the Conversation that took Place respecting the Private Trade.* Reported by WILLIAM WOODFALL. 4to. pp. 36.

THE debates at the India-House begin to draw a degree of public attention, favourable to the evolution of a national disposition to encourage the reform of the very vicious constitution of the India Company, and of the Board of Controll; but very dangerous to the parliamentary protection of the agreed privileges of the one, and of the acknowledged right of interference of the other.

The business of this court respects, 1st. The dividend, which was accepted

without opposition. 2d. The loss of the Kent Indiaman, which was voted to be not imputable to misconduct. 3d. The thanks due to various naval and military commanders, which were unanimously agreed to. 4th. The private trade, which was indirectly adjourned until certain papers should have been laid on the table. And 5th, the New College at Calcutta, about which it was stated that the directors had come to no decision.

**ART. LXVII.** *The Englishman's Letters relative to the Trade between Great Britain and the East-Indies. In which the exclusive Rights of the East-India Company, and the Rights of the Private Merchants, under the Act of 1793, are discussed.* 8vo. pp. 79.

THIS file of letters is not very important; and rather resembles those newspaper correspondences, which the writers, not the readers, desire to see collected; than the classical epistolary effusions of politicians, who, like Bolingbroke or Junius, made newspapers their vehicles. It seems that the writer is disposed to justify the interference of ministers to explain and amend the act of 1793, an act not so questionable for equivocation or impracticability, as for imprudence and impolicy. The contract is now made; and under what pretence one of the contracting parties is to withhold any fragment of its agreed concurrence, we cannot imagine. If the directors come to parliament for an ascertainment of their powers, the case will be different; but here are pro-

prietors who buy in under a known charter; and East-India traders aggrieved by the monopoly, who, in concert with certain distinguished individuals more or less connected with the Board of Controll, are proposing to rescind the engagements of the country to the company, under the veil of explaining and amending these engagements. This sapping, undermining policy, may very likely succeed; the benefit will be partial, but it will be a benefit. Surely, however, the nobler course is for the state to endeavour to buy in the whole grant; and with the concurrence of the directory to aim at consolidating, and identifying, that body with the Board of Controll, as an administrative, not a commercial superintendency of Hindostan.

ART. LXVIII. *A Letter to the Proprietors of East-India Stock, respecting the present Situation of the Company's Affairs, both abroad and at home; in Answer to the Statement given in the latter Part of the Third Report of the Special Committee of the Court of Directors, respecting Private Trade: Dated the 25th of March, 1802.* 8vo. pp. 121.

THIS letter aims at the justification of every thing that Mr. Dundas has done with respect to the affairs of the East-India company. He appears in the origin, out of hostility to Mr. Fox, to have given into a plan of regulation excessively favourable to the interests of the monopoly; and afterwards, from judgment and patriotism, to have endeavoured to find pretences for in-

croaching on the very monopoly he had sanctioned. The directors, therefore, have ceased to be grateful, for his critical friendship; and his dexterity has set afloat an incroaching, but modest, plan of reform, which will divide the proprietary into hostile factions, and ultimately, it may be hoped, undo the original mischief of his protection.

ART. LXIX. *Letter to Sir W. Pulteney, Bart. Member for Shrewsbury, on the Subject of the Trade between India and Europe. By Sir GEORGE DALLAS, Bart. Member for Newport.* 4to. pp. 102.

MR. FOX's india bill was proposed to the house of commons, and adopted by parliament about ten years before the renewal of the India company's charter. It evidently contemplated the total expiry or suppression of that charter, and made such provisions for the eventual government of Hindostan, as would have rendered unnecessary the directory in Leadenhall street. A coalition between the king's friends and the company, disappointed the nation of this great benefit; and a perpetuation of the monopoly was purchased by facilitating to the sovereign the choice of his ministers, from motives of personal favouritism, in opposition to parliamentary recommendation.

At length the commercial interest is discovering, that it would be possible to conduct an immense trade to the East Indies, by small shipping, with limited capitals, in disconnected ventures, through commission-houses, who, if voluntary colonization was permitted, would long ago have settled in all the sea-ports of Hindostan, and who are, nevertheless, growing up there from natural causes.

The long credit given at home by the British manufacturers, makes it for the interest of all speculative merchants rather to export manufactured produce, than dollars, or any ready money articles; so that a prodigious quantity of wrought goods, of all kinds, would have forced themselves into Hindostan, through these channels, if the charter had died away, which the company has no motive to carry thither. By this

time, probably, fifty times the quantity now sent, would have been in regular demand. A corresponding importation of oriental produce, would have enriched the state through the custom-houses, and the country through the merchants. English bankers, without number, would have established dependent houses in the peninsula, and would have lent out the inexhaustible coinage of their paper-mints, at the usurious interest of Asia; thus halving with the very industry they would there put in motion its exorbitant profits. It is not extravagant to estimate at a hundred millions, the increase of British capital which from this source would have already accrued. The facility with which, on the supposition of open trade, fortunes of all kinds could have been remitted home, must sensibly have accelerated the importation of individual opulence. And the innumerable forms of temptation to go out as colonists, would have provided luxuriously for a larger number of our well-born youth, than the late war has destroyed. Nor ought any apprehensions to be entertained of the inconvenience of over rapid colonization. The English administration of Hindostan is circumstanced like that of China; it can extend its feelers at will, over unclaimed and immeasurable provinces, comparatively desert, and create there the prosperity which is to enrich its agents.

The natural tendencies of society cannot effectually be resisted, even by the restrictions of law, or the confederacies of corruption: like the force of vegeta-

tion, they crevice and break down, at last, the walls of man. Within the proprietary, we had almost said within the directory of the company, persons are now found disposed gradually to convert clandestine into private trade; and private trade dependent on the directory, into a private trade independent of the directory; and who are about to pursue a parliamentary sanction for that very independence. The outcry concerning chartered rights, is, indeed, not wholly forgotten; and a great deal of precaution and prudence, not to say sophistry and chicane, is necessary to persuade both the proprietary and the public, that these innovators, but innovators for a beneficial purpose, and in a useful direction, have no in-croachments in view, no wish to induce a new minister to infringe, in the least, on the contracts of his predecessors, no wish, under pretence of explaining and amending the act of 1793, to rescind some of its more oppressive provisions, and to break down the oligarchy of directorial monopoly, into the aristocracy of proprietary privilege.

"The policy of the legislature appears to have been, by reserving certain rights to the public under this act, capable in their exercise of attaining this end, to make, if possible (as Mr. Dundas has well stated it), *'the whole trade and produce of India, in the first instance, centre in Great Britain, either for the consumption of this country, or for re-exportation to supply the wants of other countries.'* The British manufacturer, the Indian artisan, and the British resident merchant (the intermediate link between both); these were the three parties whose industry, skill, and enterprise, it was the immediate object of the legislature to cherish and promote. The British manufacturer was to be furnished with the means of exporting to the fullest extent the produce of his industry, and of bringing back the raw materials from India; the native artisan was to be encouraged to quicken and enlarge his produce; the free merchant was to be incited to abandon the clandestine commercial intercourse, which hitherto necessity had compelled him to maintain with foreign nations, and to make his industry and capital as much as possible the means of benefiting both the company and the nation, by providing for them a channel of direct communication with the parent state; to individuals in general, scope was to be given to the remittance of their fortunes from abroad; and for the country at large, by these means, was to be realized the hope of finally crushing this clandestine trade, and of making it centre

in the river Thames. These were the main commercial objects to be accomplished by the act of parliament of 1793, and the relative situation of all these parties, must be in our minds, when we are looking at the principles, and examining into the effect of this act.

"In tracing the several commercial provisions contained in this act, we may plainly observe, that, with a view to the joint prosperity of British India and Great Britain, parliament inferred, that the system the most to be desired, was that which, not infringing on the company's exclusive trade, increased the exports of British manufactures, and enlarged the imports of Asiatic produce; and, consequently, had in its contemplation to encourage, by every practicable facility, the means by which so beneficial an end might be attained. The means originally in the contemplation of the legislature, was, *'a reasonable rate of freight,'* whereby goods of much bulk, but not of proportional value, might, on the one hand, be carried to the eastern, and, on the other, be brought home to the British market, notwithstanding their distance from each other, so as still to afford a reasonable profit to the adventurer. The legislature, therefore, bound the company to become parties to this end, by compelling them to appropriate 3000 tons, at the least, annually to the private trade of individuals to and from India. The means, therefore, which lying within the limits of the rights vested in the public, to participate in this private trade, by the act of 1793, but realize the views of parliament, compatibly with the principles already stated, and the rights conferred on the company by this act, are those which good policy invite the nation to adopt.

"There are two ways of prosecuting this end. First, in the manner provided for by the act of 1793, obliging the company to supply the tonnage required. Next, by allowing individuals to send home this surplus produce on India-built shipping. Which of these modes is the best adapted to accomplish the intentions of the legislature? Let us examine them separately.

"First, the statutable tonnage. How far has this provision answered the original design of the legislature, of modifying the monopoly of the company, so as to throw open this surplus market to the capital of British subjects, and make it centre in Great Britain? Certainly, but feebly. In many respects it has proved very insufficient. In the first place, it fell infinitely short of the quantity required, which, on an average of five years subsequent to the act of 1793, has not been less than 5000 tons annually. In the next, it was provided irregularly by the company, and at uncertain and inconvenient periods. The surplus demand not merely for individuals, but likewise for the company's own wants, was met with India shipping by the government of Bengal.

Occasionally, in consequence of the war,\* the company were unable to provide any portion of the tonnage thus allotted to individuals by the act of 1793. Twice has the whole nearly been provided by the government in India. The rate of freight was still too high, combined with other charges, to encourage the British manufacturer to export his own commodities, although below the actual rate at which this freight was charged to the company. And lastly, the exercise of this privilege was attended with such inconvenience to the free merchants, arising out of the regulations of the company, as, in point of fact, almost to defeat its end. In regard to the British manufacturer, Mr. Dundas states, in his letter to the chairman of the court of directors, dated the 2d of April, 1800, *'that the measure has proved a nugatory one.'* The court of directors, in their report, corroborate this affirmation, by observing, that nothing has been exported by the British manufacturer, under this privilege. They add, *'the manufacturers have made so little use of it to the present day, that they need not be further considered under this privilege.'* In support of the just representations of the free merchants, of all the inconveniences and discouragements to which they are exposed by the present mode of providing them with tonnage from Great Britain, by the company, the court of directors, in this report, attest the truth of them, and close a candid enumeration of the principal hardships to which the free merchants are subject, from the regulations relating to the company's shipping, by observing *'they have just grounds of objection,'* and that *'it is fit all inconveniences of this kind should be remedied.'* Mr. Dundas, in the letter above quoted, impressed with the justice of these representations, and well acquainted with their effect on the interests of the public, likewise adds, *'Although I proposed this measure, I should be uncandid if I did not fairly acknowledge, that experience has proved it to be inadequate to the purposes for which it was intended.'*

"It is clear, therefore, that experience has shewn the following inconveniences to have resulted from this plan. First, it has not answered the intentions of the legislature towards the British manufacturer. Next, it has fallen infinitely short of its intentions towards the British resident merchant, in as much as that, as Mr. Dundas observes in his letter of the 2d of April, 1800: *'In so far as the provision went to secure the transfer of the capital of our servants in India to this country, through the medium of trade, it is clearly ascertained, that the measure was a nugatory one.'* And lastly, that the company has itself sustained a considerable loss, to the extent of near 70,000*l.* in providing this freight for the private trade of individuals, without any

benefit arising to them therefrom; the report admitting, *'that they have charged individuals considerably less than they have themselves specifically paid for the goods of those individuals to the ship owners.'*

"Of the failure of this plan, therefore, there can be no doubt; and there can be as little of the necessity of substituting another, of repealing this clause, and of relieving the company from the onerous and wasteful obligation it imposes on them."

We apprehend the directors have very sound reasons for not wishing to be relieved from the onerous condition in question: while they superintend the private trade, they well know how to chalk limits for it. Nor have they been at all illiberal in devising regulations of accommodation to perform the spirit of their agreement, when they might avail themselves more rigidly of its letter.

It cannot be doubted, that the commerce of the East Indies, and of the connected islands, is too rapidly passing into the hands of smugglers, of foreigners, of Americans and Danes. The boldest and most efficient remedy would be, to buy in the charter of the company before its natural death; to open the trade at once and entirely, between all the ports of Britain and Hindostan; and to repeal so much of the navigation-act itself, as interferes with the use and transfer here of teak-shipping. Large indemnities would, no doubt, be requisite to the directors, the proprietors, and the servants of the company; but a loan secured on the territorial revenue of Hindostan, might easily be raised there, wholly adequate to the purchase, not merely of a just, but of a voluntary surrender.

This letter, which is distinguished for the perspicuous elegance of its composition, suggests another system.

"The remedy proposed is, to provide a fleet of extra vessels, of an inferior equipment to the company's regular shipping, to be built by contract, for the purpose of accommodating the free merchants, which fleet is to be freighted to them at a rate equal to the freight of the India-built ships of last season. Beyond this the directors do not offer any other mode of removing the grievance.

"What then are the objections to this remedy as it respects the company, the free merchants, and the public? In these three points of view we must consider it.

"First, as it relates to the company. It is obviously exposing them to the risk of having these ships occasionally sail, and re-



turn in ballast, because, in the first instance, they are not to interfere with the regular shipping destined to carry on the exclusive trade of the company, which it is an object of high national policy to protect, which can only be observed by liberal freights, and can alone be respectable while science illumines the minds of its officers: and in the second, the free merchants cannot ensure to the company a regular permanent freight, as their speculations and purchases must entirely be regulated by the state of the markets in India, and the extent of the demands in Europe for the articles wherein they are allowed to traffic. The free merchants will not speculate but on a previous certainty of an adequate and immediate supply of tonnage for their goods; and the company cannot depend on a regular, constant demand for the tonnage they send out; and yet, at a venture, they must provide the tonnage, without the necessary intelligence as to the extent of what is required. But beyond this, it is universally admitted, that these India-built ships are more substantial, better formed, and sail at a much cheaper freight than the company's extra ships. In engaging, therefore, to provide such a fleet for the free merchants, without even any adequate security for the regular and full occupation of its tonnage, at a freight as low as the free merchants pay to the owners of India shipping, of course they take on themselves to pay the difference between British and Indian freight to the owners of these extra ships. And as they admit, in their report, that they have already sustained a considerable loss by so doing, it therefore appears, waving the difficulty of confining this fleet invariably to its precise object, which recent experience shews to be impracticable, not only that the principal inconveniences to which the free merchants are exposed by the present mode of supplying them with tonnage, would not be removed by the remedy that is thus proposed; but that the further result of such a measure, as it affects the interest of the company, would only be to augment considerably this loss, by incurring the risk, in the first instance, of sending out a fleet to India, without a certainty of obtaining cargoes home; and, in the next, in the event of such a fleet, or a larger one, being required, to swell considerably this loss to the company, which must increase in a ratio with the growth of the trade, since in proportion to the increase of the trade, which is largely expanding itself, they propose to augment their improvidence, by increasing the tonnage. Such a plan, therefore, is not suitable to the true interests of the company.

“With respect to the free merchant, his objections against it are not less solid. He tells us justly, that he is embarrassed if compelled, under any modification, to depend on the company for tonnage; that he can neither suitably arrange his freight, or dis-

tribute his cargoes; that his trade is not a trade of large profit to the individual; that it consists of such articles chiefly, as are either new to the commerce of Great Britain, or rejected by the company; that it is carried on at a comparatively low rate of freight, with strict economy, and extraordinary expedition; that its end is to meet, not only the home, but the foreign markets, on re-exportation, and yet maintain a superiority therein; and that on such principles only, can this end be realized—that it is evident, from the experience of the last seven years, that the tonnage engaged in England by the company, for the service of India, can never be rendered a practicable channel by which the private British trade can rival the foreigner, the great object of the legislature to accomplish, and which the ‘*Warehousing act*’ of 1799, regulating the duties on East India goods, is designed to effect, its preamble declaring its object to be, to secure to this country the benefit of an extended trade in goods, the produce and manufacture of the East Indies: That these are not the opinions of the free merchants alone; that the unvarying opinion of all the ablest servants of the company, both who are, or have been in India, points out to the company and the nation, the expedience of employing India-built shipping in the private export trade to Great Britain, as the only class of shipping capable of substantially enlarging the commercial intercourse between both countries, without affecting, at the same time, the exclusive trade, and chartered privileges of the East India company.

“With respect to the public, the subject is still of a deeper importance. It involves not only commercial, but political considerations of the first magnitude. It has long been admitted, that a scarcity of ship-timber, fit for the purposes of our navy, is felt in this country. The report of the commissioners appointed by parliament, in the year 1787, to investigate into the state of the crown lands, but too well cautions the public against the danger of this evil increasing; and the act of the legislature, restraining the company from building any more ships till their tonnage was reduced to about 40,000 tons, was wisely framed to check its progress. Since this report was published, notwithstanding the watchful care of the legislature, it has extended itself in an alarming degree, and the enormous increase in the price of shipping since the year 1792, and, consequently, in the rates of freight, is an evil that is too generally felt, both in our naval arsenals, and by the commercial community, not to challenge the most serious attention. We are threatened with an ultimate failure in these great and useful supplies, on which so essentially depend the prosperity of our manufactures, the security of our trade, and the preservation of our independence. The separation of America

deprived this country of an annual accession of shipping to a great amount. In one year, perhaps, it has been 200 or 300 sail of vessels; and although our trade has increased considerably since that period, yet no adequate supply of British tonnage has been provided, equal to the enlarged demands of our most extensive and increasing commerce. Hence, it has been admitted, by the best and first authorities, that we have out-traded our shipping; and that a remedy is necessary with a view to the relief of our trade, and the protection of our navy. The most desirable remedy seems to be, to diminish the consumption of British timber, and increase the quantity of British shipping. But the plan of the directors, by proposing to create an additional fleet, which can only be built and kept up by further inroads on the national stock of shiptimber, is, in point of fact, when our situation is considered, but proposing in other words, to aggravate a very serious evil. What is it but subtracting from the British tonnage what is wanted here, to augment the Indian tonnage which is not required there? not only the timber requisite for such a purpose will be considerable, but the increased consumption of naval stores which must in consequence ensue, will also, in its effect, contribute to swell the evil, by increasing the price of ships and naval stores, and enhancing on exportation the freight and cost of British manufactures, to the general detriment of this country. Such a plan seems most injudicious.

"The next most obvious mode that occurs, is to provide this fleet in a way not liable to these objections, and that shall at the same time answer the double purpose of increasing the quantity of British shipping, without diminishing the stock of British timber. To India alone can we look for this double advantage. Our possessions in that quarter abound with forests, containing timber more durable in its quality, and larger in its growth, than any to be met with in the woods of Europe. The numberless rivers that descend from the Malabar mountains, afford a ready opportunity of floating this timber to our dock-yards. The mountains bordering on the west of Bengal, afford abundance of timber fit for the purposes of ship-

building, and large plantations of teak are already spreading over our provinces in Bengal. Here, therefore, is a nursery from whence we may draw the most valuable supplies; and while we retain our empire in India, the navy of Great Britain, in the event of a failure in our national stock, may still be kept up in all its strength and glory. Upon grounds of general policy, both political and commercial, we are called upon to cherish these springs, from whence, in the day of need and difficulty, we may derive such valuable aid; for there can be no doubt, but that timber produced in India may be so applied to the purpose of ship-building, as to lead to consequences highly important and advantageous, not only to the commercial and political interests of Great Britain, but likewise to those of British India. On grounds of commercial policy, we ought to give every encouragement to the trader from British India, to supply the British manufacturer with the raw material as cheap as possible. On the cheapness and superior excellence of our manufactures, depend their extensive circulation. The interests of the British manufacturer, therefore, depend on the facility given to the free merchant to reach our markets. How is this to be done, but by enabling the trader from India to bring home this raw material at as low a rate as possible? And how is this to be effected, but by enabling him to import it here as expeditiously as he can, and at as low a freight as he can obtain in India?"

We trust that these discussions will be the means of scattering much instruction among the mercantile world, relative to the practicability and desirableness of a very general and direct participation in the trade to India; and thus of generating among them a diffusive wish to save the country from being cut up into monopolies; and to rescue its fair commerce from the restrictions of such ministers as have lent their instrumentality to the great companies of London, to the prejudice of free and open national trade.

ART. LXX. *The Debate at the East-India House, at a special Court, held on Thursday, April 8, 1802, on the Subject of the Private Trade. Reported by W. WOODFALL.* 4to. pp. 93.

A DEBATE, reported by Mr. Woodfall, carries with itself the sanction of its accuracy: let it suffice to open the pleadings in the words of Mr. Twining.

"Mr. Twining also observed, that very soon after the renewal of the company's charter, he had communicated to the proprietors his apprehensions concerning the views of the private traders. If, then, he

remained silent upon the present occasion, it might perhaps be imagined, that he had altered his opinion; or, at least, that he was become luke-warm in the support of it. This, however, was so far from being the case, that all the circumstances respecting private trade which had happened from that time to this (and they were numerous and important) had tended to confirm the opinion which at first he entertained; and he

scrupled not to avow his firm belief, that if the trade of the East-India company, and that of the private trader, had always been considered, as he thought they always should have been, as rival traders; if there had never been behind that bar any director who was, either directly or indirectly, interested in the private trade, or who was avowedly disposed to encourage it, the East-India company never would have been brought to the situation in which it was then placed.

"It might be well, he said, to recollect, that the company was originally formed for commercial purposes; but becoming, in the course of time, possessed of a great extent of territory, it acquired, in a considerable degree, a political form: and lest those gentlemen to whom the commerce of the company was entrusted, should, in the management of its political concerns, interfere with those persons to whose care the political interests of the nation at large were committed, it was thought right to institute a board of controul. Not long after the institution of that board, it was evident that its operations extended themselves somewhat further than the title of controul, which it assumed, could have given reason to expect. Still it was generally understood, that the commerce was to be left to the management of the court of directors; and that the political concerns of the company formed the proper province of the board of controul.

"And here, Mr. Twining said, he could not but again notice an opinion delivered, and persisted in, by an honourable proprietor (Mr. Henchman), viz. that the present question was as much a political, as it was a commercial question. An opinion more injurious than this to the East-India company, he had never heard delivered in that room; for it tended to annihilate at once the power of the company, and to put all subjects, commercial as well as political, under the management of the board of controul. It was true that the East-India company had commercial interests and political interests; and that if the company was commercially ruined, it would be politically ruined; or if it was politically ruined, it would be commercially ruined. But did it therefore follow, that there was no distinction between commercial subjects, and political subjects? If that was the case, most unwise indeed had been the conduct of the court of directors, of the court of proprietors, and of the board of controul; nay, most unwise had been the conduct of parliament: for during the negotiation for the renewal of the company's charter, the utmost pains had been taken by the directors, the proprietors, and the board of controul, to make a distinction between commercial and political subjects; and to allot the one to the court of directors, and the other to the board of controul. Parliament also had endeavoured to make, in that act by which the charter was renewed, the same

distinction. If, said Mr. Twining, when a subject relating to the revenues of India was offered to the consideration of the board of controul (a subject which was certainly in the province of the board) any commissioner was to maintain, that such a subject might affect the company's commerce, as undoubtedly it might, and that it should therefore be left to the decision of the court of directors, such a commissioner would not long be suffered to retain, and ought not to be suffered to retain his seat at the board. The question then was, whether the present subject was really a commercial or a political subject? What was the subject? It related to the company's commerce, and to the commerce of the private traders. Now Mr. Twining thought he might venture to say for those proprietors with whom he acted upon the present occasion, that they did not lay claim to that sort of ingenuity, which was calculated to confound all distinctions, but that they professed themselves to be lovers of plain dealing; that they thought they were possessed of common sense; and that to them commerce really did appear to be a commercial subject.

"At the time of renewing the company's charter, individuals were desirous of being admitted to a share of the Indian commerce; and the late president of the board of controul was disposed to yield to their desire. The East-India company, anxious to comply with the wish of Mr. Dundas, and to testify, at the same time, a spirit of moderation and concession, consented to admit individuals to a share of their Indian commerce; for certain and clearly expressed reasons, and subject to certain clear restrictions and limitations. And here the company might have imagined, that the subject was settled, and that they should be left in quiet possession of the remnant of their Indian monopoly, during the period of their charter. This, however, as the directors well knew, had by no means been the case; and now the private traders applied for that, which would not only be highly injurious to the company's commerce, but would also endanger the company's existence."

The speech of Mr. Moore has great merit for vivacity, and novelty of turn. Another extract.

"Sir, when the act of 1793 passed, the whole jurisdiction of the East-India company was divided into two distinct departments. The act itself is my evidence, and the practical execution of that act has been conformable. The one department classed all the money, revenues, and politics; the other was the department of commerce. Over the first, the minister conditioned for this label, as over the new committee-rooms in the India-House, *free admission*:—over the other, the company wisely conditioned for a *noli me tangere*, and had it not been so, I do

not believe the company would have accepted the act of 1793.

"In the first of these departments it was clearly foretold, that the minister would endeavour inscrupulously to revel; but the second was wisely, and has been firmly protected against every assault: and the language manifestly has been—confine yourself to your own department, no approach, no admission here: and thus it rested it seems, till the late correspondence with the board of commissioners on the subject of private trade, now printed for our use. Let us now look a little at the influence and operation of this correspondence.

"Our executive trust, in the usual order, send their commercial dispatches for the perusal of the commissioners. The commissioners not only alter many parts, but originate new dispatches. The directors; as became their trust and duty, remonstrate and contend for our exclusive rights under the act of 1793, retransmit their own dispatches, and protest against all growing contest. The board of commissioners, nevertheless, persist, and although professedly desirous and studious to maintain all possible harmony in the management of India affairs, declare, 'That they are determined that no powers which the legislature has vested in them, shall remain unexercised;' and they again return the dispatches mutilated. The directors still persist in the performance of their duty, more than ever convinced of the necessity of maintaining unimpaired the exclusive privileges of the East-India company. The dispatches are consequently stopped; but it is not to be lost sight of, that whatever powers the legislature had vested in the board of controul, the exercise of them stops also; some tolerable admission, that the whole attempt was a new assumption, and had not that authoritative foundation on which alone they could stand. I read also a great deal about the opinion of parliament; and the opinion of parliament seems to be introduced, if possible, that its influence may supply the deficiency of power in the board of commissioners. Clearly this was the motive for blowing this high sounding trumpet. For my own part I do not know what the opinion of parliament means. I am most willing to respect acts of parliament—they are entitled to my prompt obedience; but I do not know what opinions of parliament are, and neither I nor this court have any thing to do with them. Let us now advert to the letters of the hon. Mr. Broderick, and the right hon. Mr. Addington, the present chancellor of the exchequer. We all know, that while Mr. Dundas presided at the board of controul, no other minister ever ventured to look into this department; it must therefore be astonishing to us, how this subject of India commerce has crept into the department of the chancellor of the exchequer: and it must appear wholly

paradoxical to us, unless to supply all the defective powers of the board of commissioners, and the unsuccessful influence of the novel doctrine of the opinions of parliament. But here I find a new twist. In those letters the subject of commerce is suddenly metamorphosed into maritime and naval importance, in order, by conversion, to bring it into the political departments, for the purpose, evidently, of obtaining, by new creation, that jurisdiction over it which the board of commissioners had not:—such is the implied acknowledgment. So indeed, by the skilful introduction of a good adjective, or some relative qualities, may they easily form a jurisdiction over every subject, however foreign. It puts me in mind of a very singular cause that once came before me, as a chief magistrate, in India. It was a cause between a Mussulman and an Hindoo. The Hindoo possessed a beautiful garden, which the Mahometan had set his heart on obtaining. He proposed to purchase it; No—it was not to be sold. He bid higher for it, price upon price—No—the Hindoo would not part with it. The Mahometan declared he must have it, he could not rest without it, and, in short, that he could not live contentedly without it. But all would not do—the Hindoo would not part with it—he would rather part with his life, as his whole race of ancestry had lived there, and been nourished there before him. Still, Sir, the Mahometan persisted, he would have possession of the garden; at length he obtained it. But what course do you think he pursued, since both threat and alluring temptation had failed? Sir, you know the Hindoos hold the bull sacred: the Mahometan killed a bull, and throwing some of the blood into the garden, the Hindoo instantly ran away with his whole family, to avoid contamination. Thus it is with this commercial dispatch, the minister throws into it the words naval and maritime, which are, in this case, the bull's blood, in order to acquire possession, and to bring the subject under his controul and jurisdiction. (*Loud laughing and applauses.*) But, Sir, we have to thank our executive trust again and again, for not yielding to the political fraud intended to be thus practised against us."

Mr. Henchman undertook the defence of Mr. Dundas, but was heard with a degree of impatience, natural enough perhaps, but insufficiently urbane for the complete support of that character for impartiality, which ought always to be pursued in the public debates of corporate bodies. His speech, and, indeed, all that passed at this important court, merits the attentive perusal of every British statesman, and every European commercial philosopher.

## STATISTICS.

ART. LXXI. *General View of the Agriculture and Mineralogy, present State and Circumstances of the County of Wicklow, with Observations on the Means of their Improvement, drawn up for the Consideration of the Dublin Society, instituted under the Authority of Parliament, for the Improvement of Husbandry and Internal Resources.* By ROBERT FRASER, Esq. Author of the *Agricultural Reports of the Counties of Devon and Cornwall*. 8vo. pp. 284, and a Map.

THERE are no persons who deserve better of their country, than those, who with skill and judgment, devote their time to the investigation and improvement of its riches and resources. The navigator, whom accident, or perhaps distress of weather, has thrown upon some desert island, assumes honour for his discovery: the man who cultivates a waste in the heart of his own country; who points out any means of improving its agriculture and manufactures; who opens any new channel of commerce or of trade, is, surely, entitled to at least an equal share. The one takes possession of a far-distant land, in the name of his royal master, who sends troops to subjugate the natives, and maintain his right of possession against the claims of any foreign potentate: a tract of land, cursed with a sterile soil, perhaps, and an unhealthy climate, is maintained at an enormous expence of money, and of men, to the injury and disgrace of the government which usurps it. The other takes possession, in the name of his country, of what may fairly enough be deemed, *his* newly-discovered island; sheds the blood of no innocent natives; asks no troops for its defence, but troops of workmen; and no money for its maintenance, but enough to pay them for their labour; he improves the climate, repays the borrowed loan with interest, enriches himself, and enriches his country.

Perhaps there is no individual to whom Great-Britain is under greater obligations in this respect, than to Sir John Sinclair, for the unremitting labour which he has bestowed on the subject of statistics: to his example, and persevering assiduity, are we in a great measure indebted for those hints towards the extension of commercial capital and industry, which are scattered through

our "county reports," and contribute to the growing prosperity of the state\*.

It is gratifying to remark that Ireland is equally solicitous to ascertain the resources of which she is in possession, and to improve them to the utmost advantage. For this purpose, some years ago a society was established at Dublin, under the authority of parliament, and the general view of the county of Wicklow, which is now before us, was drawn up by Mr. Fraser for its consideration.

To enter into all the intricacies and minutiae of detail would occupy a far greater number of pages, than is consistent with the nature of our publication: we shall briefly select what information appears to be most curious and useful.

Part I. *Geographical and Mineralogical.* The county of Wicklow is situated in the province of Leinster, and contains 305,404 Irish, or 497,704 English acres: its climate is in general healthy, but is capable of improvement, by means of the shelter to be derived from enclosures and plantations.

The mineralogy of this county is interesting; and Mr. F's sketch, though slight and imperfect, will enable the reader, by help of the annexed map, to form a tolerably clear general idea of it. The central district, extending from the southern boundary of Dublin county, to the neighbourhood of Hacketstown in that of Carlow, and therefore, lying nearly north-east and south-west, consists wholly of granite and gneiss, for the most part covered with bog and heath, but rising occasionally into eminences, over-spread with mountain grasses, or almost wholly bare. In this granite tract, two lead mines have been discovered. At the north eastern extremity of the granite, near the town of Bray, occurs a mass three or four miles in extent, of horn-

\* Sir John Sinclair's statistical survey of Scotland, and the county reports, contain together a mass of matter respecting the riches and resources, and general economy of Great Britain, which perhaps, has no parallel in any other country. This mass of matter, however, requires arrangement and condensation; it is almost totally destitute of the former, and would bear a great deal of the latter, if applied with judgment.



stone hills, in which no mines have as yet been discovered. On the east and west of the granite, are ranged parallel chains and detached summits of argillite. The western argillitic district is unproductive of metals, but the plain country intervening between the hills, is overspread with limestone gravel, a substance peculiar to Ireland. The argillite on the east, extending from the edges of the granite to the sea, from Bray-head to Arklow, is but in part interspersed with limestone gravel, which principally abounds in the northern portion from Bray-head to Wicklow. South of Wicklow, the limestone gravel disappears, and the argillitic hills begin to be metalliferous: the principal part of this rich tract extends north-east and south-west from the hills of Cronebane to Croughan Mountain, about ten miles in length. In this are situated the Ballymurtagh and Cronebane copper-mines, and the celebrated gold-mine, which extends along the banks of a little stream, that rises from Mount Croughan.

**Part II. Agricultural state and circumstances. Eastern alluvial district.** The fertility of some parts of this district is astonishing, and will doubtless, in a great measure, account for the prevalence of a miserable culture. So long as the earth will bear corn, corn it must bear: when it will produce no more "it is then left to the Almighty God to send grass, which in many cases he does, in an almost incredible manner." In the parish of Powerscourt limestone gravel, and marl, are used as a manure by farmers who have capital, and either of those articles contiguous to them. "The latter is dug and laid out on a field adjoining the pit for two-pence a cart load, the load supposed six cwt. From 800 to 1500 per acre are laid out on worn-out pasture land, and it is supposed that such a manuring, with good marl, would afford good crops of corn for ten or twelve, or even fifteen years successively."

In another place Mr. Fraser says, "it is not unusual to put on marl to the amount of 1500 to 2000 loads of six cwt. each cart load: after this coating with marl, the farmers will take sixteen or eighteen crops of corn following, without interposing any thing but grain crops."

Labour here is 10d. a day for men, from November 1, to May 1; for the remainder of the year 1s. Farmers how-

ever, generally diet their day labourers, and give them 6d. a day in money. Both these plans are bad: although it is true that in the winter season a man cannot do so much work as in the summer, he stands in absolute need of more money. His family must have firing, candles, and more clothing than in summer. The second plan is also bad: if a man's wages are valued at a shilling a day, and he eats half of it, himself is to be supplied with clothes, and all his family with clothes, fuel, food, and house-rent with the other half; viz. with three shillings a week! Mr. Fraser ought to have anticipated us in animadversions of this sort.

The food of the poor "consists chiefly of potatoes during eight or nine months of the year; for the remainder oaten meal, and occasionally household wheat-en bread."

**Western alluvial district.**—"On the west of the central mass of primitive mountains is found also a very extensive district under the mountains, abounding with strata, consisting of limestone gravel, marl, and pebble limestone; and extending throughout the whole space of country, from the borders of the primitive mountains, to the confines of the county, where it is joined by the counties of Dublin, Kildare, and Carlow."

Mr. Fraser, by tracing these strata through their different directions, has pointed out to farmers the means of manuring their lands, with facility and advantage: he notices the most striking improvements which have recently taken place, and suggests others of which particular spots are susceptible. The following hint is important:

"The vast number of plentiful streams in the county of Wicklow, flowing on all sides from the mountains, afford admirable situations for machinery, both in the cotton and woollen manufacture; in most of these situations also, abundance of turf for fuel, which for the heating of stoves, boilers, and most other purposes, when immediately at hand, forms a good substitute for coal, and by being carefully charred, is rendered almost equally lasting."

**Central, or granite district.**—"This district, which comprehends a great part of the lower, and almost the whole upper barony of Talbotstown, with the whole of Balinacor, and is more than 10,000 Irish acres in extent, has been, in consequence of the rebellion, wholly laid waste, and until late in last summer that the troops had taken full possession of it, it was not safe to explore it!"

**Southern or argillaceous district.**—"The number of houses, in the returns of the hearth money collectors, in the whole of this

county, are 11,546. Taking the average population at five and an half to a house, which appears to be nearly the truth, the inhabitants may be computed at 58,000; a very small population for so large an extent, amounting only to 23.75 in a square mile, and 26.9 acres to each house on an average; or about 1000 souls to each parish, averaging about 5370 acres.

"By this account, the parish of Castle M'Adam contains 524 inhabited houses, and 2912 inhabitants, or 5 and an half to a house. But the density of its population is 14.6 of an acre to a house, or 40.3 in a square mile; yet in the parish there is little or no manufacture, and the whole arable land only 771 acres. A state of prosperity, which can only be ascribed to the money circulated, and the employment afforded by the mines of Cronebane and Ballymurtagh. In support of this, it appears that the number of miners and carriers amount to 319; supposing only 262 of these have families, which is, most likely, much under the truth; this shews at once, that these mines doubled the population of this parish, and this must have been wholly within the last ten years, as it is within that period they have been set to work with any spirit."

The drill husbandry was introduced into this district in the year 1800: its success will insure its continuance. The farmers here are particularly spirited, and the resident tenants of lord Fitzwilliam singularly so. Mr. Fraser attributes this circumstance to the adherence to, what in England is called, *tenant's right*. When a lease is expired a third person seldom interferes. The former occupier, or his heir at law, and even his devisee is supposed to have a *tenant right* to the premises.

Mr. Fraser, in the *third part* of his work, makes his report on those subjects which the Dublin society suggests, as most proper for enquiry to those gentlemen who undertake the forming of agricultural surveys. These are arranged under the respective heads of agriculture, pasture, farms, general subjects.

*Agriculture*.—The high price of every kind of produce has stimulated Irish industry; and notwithstanding the distractions which have recently taken place, there never was a period when more assiduous exertion has appeared amongst all classes, particularly amongst the lower classes of farmers, in cultivating their lands. "I believe," says Mr. Fraser, "it will be found that in almost every place double, and I am told in some districts seven times more

land is under grain this year, than has ever been known in the memory of man." The English agricultural reports are very freely consulted for the information which is contained in this division: it is very sound and good, and on this side the channel experience has long since passed a favourable judgment upon it.

*Pasture*.—"In every part of Ireland the tendency to grass is uncommonly great; so much so, that the Green Island is the characteristic name of Ireland.

"In this county, like other parts of the island, they trust so much to the natural disposition of the soil to produce grass, that they are at no pains to improve it. The inclosed pasture is chiefly the natural grass, arising on worn out arable fields; on which, according to their expression, they have left it to God Almighty to sow the seeds; some meadows there are, which have never been ploughed."

The cultivation of artificial grasses is scarcely, if at all, attended to by the farmers of this county. Mr. Fraser enumerates the best seeds for laying down meadows, and upland pastures, and gives instruction how to manage the crop from seed-time till harvest.

The breed of cattle is so far degenerated, that Mr. F. recommends the introduction of a new breed, rather than any attempt to improve the old one.

There are no dairies of any consequence in this county. The milk in the northern part of Ireland is chiefly applied to the feeding of lambs for the Dublin market; this is done by women who squirt the milk into the lambs' mouths! Is it a practice in any part of England to make cows suckle lambs? Mr. F. must surely have been misinformed.

*Farms*.—A great part of this country is let in large farms, from two or three hundred acres in extent, to several thousands: the lands belonging to the see of Dublin, to the extent of many thousands. Leases are generally on lives, or a term of years, whichever lasts longest. On the estates of residents, three lives, or thirty-one years: on those of non-residents, generally twenty-one years, or one life. There are many farms, however, on leases for ever, a tenure very common in this country, but little known in England. "Forty or fifty years ago leases frequently contained clauses, obliging tenants, after a certain time, to take leases for ever of

the farms they held; and there are not a few instances, (continues Mr. Fraser) where the farmer refused to abide by the clause; and rather threw up the farm, than take it at rents, not one tenth part of what land now sets at." Some useful hints on draining, and manuring, conclude this chapter.

*General subjects.*—The county of Wicklow contains about 58,000 inhabitants: "the habitations of the lower order of them are, in general, extremely wretched miserable hovels, and can scarcely bear a description. *A bore recital of the state of this class of the community has been considered as an unmerited satire on the country; and those who have endeavoured to call the attention of the public to the amelioration of their situation, have been stigmatized as incendiaries.*"

"A farmer shewed me several new cottages he was erecting for his labourers, in a stile of superior splendour to most I had seen, and where the little wood made use of, was necessary to be purchased. These, he told me, would cost three pounds each habitation. So that thirty, or at most forty shillings, would be a sufficient estimate for the general run of the cabins for the labouring cottier. Yet for such hovels, with a patch of land a rood in extent, two guineas, is the common charge, to the occupant."

There are no tythes, on agistment, in this part of the United Kingdom: "I

could not ascertain its amount on each article; some of the clergy refused to give me an account of it, as they did not wish to disclose their income." The respectable part of the clergy took no advantage of the high price of provisions to raise their tythes.

A very laudable disposition manifests itself among the opulent inhabitants of this county, to provide for the education of the lower classes.

In the north part of Ireland the manufacture of flax prevails; the south seems most adapted to that of wool, which is making considerable progress. In the county of Wicklow a kind of *frize* and *ratteen* of pretty good quality, is very generally made for domestic uses, and considerable quantities are annually sold at the fairs.

Before the late disturbances, planting was going on rapidly; there are, however, no nurseries of any considerable extent, in the county.

An account of the implements in husbandry most in use, together with a few general reflections, close the volume.

Mr. Fraser has been industrious in his researches, and there can be no doubt but they will eventually be beneficial to the district which has been submitted to them. The work is printed in Ireland, and the typography is, of course, very incorrect.

ART. LXXII. *Gleanings in Ireland; particularly respecting its Agriculture, Mines, and Fisheries.* By R. FRASER, Esq. Author of the *General View of the Agriculture and Mineralogy of the County of Wicklow*; drawn up under the Direction of the Dublin Society, for the Improvement of Husbandry and Internal Resources. 8vo. pp. 87.

I. *Mines and Minerals.* From want of capital, from the unsettled state of the country, and for other reasons, the mineral products of Ireland have not excited an attention equal to what their importance appears to demand. The calcareous districts, including in this term the beds of limestone gravel, the strata of common limestone and marble, are principally situated in the province of Leinster: coal is met with in Kilkenny and Queen's county; and at Arigna in the county of Leitrim, is found an accumulation of coal, iron ore, and limestone, similar to that which has been the source of all the wealth and population of Colebrook-dale, in Shropshire. Iron ore in abundance, and of good quality, is met with at Montrath, in Queen's county, and in the counties of Wicklow, Wexford, Waterford, and Ker-

ry. The recent discovery of gold has illustrated the county of Wicklow. Silver, mixed with galena, has been procured in the county of Wexford. The copper-mines of Cronebane and Ballymurtagh, have been long known and explored; and those of the hills of Allen and Kilmurry, of Ballyroan and Mucross, are well worthy of more accurate and spirited investigation than they have yet received. Lead is met with in great abundance, and in various counties; specimens of cobalt have been procured from Kerry; and tin ore, in grains, has been found near the gold-mine of Wicklow.

II. *Agriculture.* III. *Manufactures.*—Mr. Fraser has here presented us with a view, abbreviated from Adam Smith, of the system of the French economists; and has appreciated the respective im-

portance of agriculture and manufactures. In giving a decided preference to the former, he is not insensible of the prosperity which his country may derive from an attention to the latter; or of the benefit which they confer on each other. It affords satisfaction to learn that the linen, which is certainly the staple manufacture of Ireland, and is attended with such considerable advantages to that part of the united kingdom, is carried on in villages: the workmen are not crowded into towns, where their health is injured, and their morals become depraved. A comparison of the squalid appearance and unhealthy aspect of the manufacturers of Manchester, with the florid looks and cheerful aspects of the peasantry of Ulster, will remove any doubt as to the preference which is due to the former system, where it can be adopted.

Notwithstanding the natural fertility of the soil in Ireland, and the various manures, such as marl, limestone, &c. which are contained within its bowels, agriculture, till lately, has been but little attended to. In the year 1770, the corn produced was insufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; immense quantities were obliged annually to be imported from America and England. "So rapid was the increase of agriculture, however, from that period to the year 1790, that a greater quantity of grain and flour was exported in the latter period, than was produced in the former." Mr. Fraser attributes this astonishing improvement entirely to the liberal grants of the Parliament of Ireland, and the very judicious application of them by the right hon. John Foster, and the Dublin society. So lately as the year 1800, a farming society was instituted, at the suggestion of the most noble the marquis of Sligo, and the right honourable John Foster, and which has now increased to the number of 400 members, consisting of men of the first rank and property of the island, and of others, all practical farmers, and zealous for the improvement of this first of arts. Similar establishments are now forming in every district; and the agriculture of Ireland, perhaps, may ere long rival that of England.

*Fisheries.* The information contained in this portion of the pamphlet, is of high importance, and seems to have had that attention paid to it, which govern-

ment assuredly will never refuse to any communications which are conducive to the interests of the country.

"Having formerly taken an active part, as secretary to the society for encouraging and extending the fisheries on the western coasts, and islands of Scotland; and being recently appointed by the Dublin society, to examine into the means of improving the agriculture, fisheries, and the resources of the counties of Waterford and Wexford, I considered it as part of my duty to make inquiry, respecting a very extensive fishing bank, called the NYMPH BANK, situated at the distance of from ten to fifteen leagues from the southern coast of Ireland; and, particularly, that part of the coast, which forms the southern boundary of the county of Waterford.

"Having, for this purpose, applied to captain Wilby, commander of the Rutland, revenue cruiser, of 100 tons, eight three-pounders, and twenty-five men, he, very cheerfully (in that way, which he always does in any thing interesting to the service of his country,) complied with my request; and on the 24th of June ultimo, we sailed from Passage, in the harbour of Waterford, at three o'clock, P. M. with a light breeze from the N. E. At noon, the next day, the 25th, we came to an anchor off the Nymph Bank, and found ourselves, by observation, in lat. 51° 37', north, the tower of Waterford harbour bearing N. E. 26 miles, the high land of Dungarvan N. by E. 10 leagues distant, soundings 37 and 38 fathom water. The ground siliceous gravel and micaceous sandstone, with much broken shells and coralline. The fishing lines were now put out, and instantly we caught both cod, hake, and ling of a large size, and of a very superior quality, although the time of day was unfavourable, and also the tides running strong, (it being springs) did not easily suffer the lines to keep the ground.

"As my principal design in this voyage, was to ascertain the depth of water and extent of the bank, we weighed anchor, and stood out to sea. We kept the line constantly going, and found, uniformly, as we stretched out, 40 fathoms water, generally the same bottom, gravelly, with shells; and wherever we hove to, we never failed to catch fish, both cod, hake, and ling; except in some spots where we found the bottom to consist of fine sand. There we caught no fish. At six o'clock, P. M. we again anchored on the bank; the ground, shells and gravel; Helcock-head, the southern point of the harbour of Dungarvan, bearing N. E. distant thirteen leagues. Here we again caught abundance of cod, hake, and ling.

"Having ascertained these points, and being deficient in bait, we stood for Dungarvan bay, to trail for bait, the ground being favourable there for that purpose. In a short time, at about three leagues off Helcock-

E e

head, we got abundance of plaice, soal, and all kinds of ground fish. We then again, on the 28th, at 10 P. M. stood out for the bank, with a light breeze, being resolved to examine its furthest extent, both to the southward and westward. At eight o'clock next morning, the 29th, the high lands of Dun-garvan bearing N. and by W. distant 15 leagues, hove to, and sounded in the same 40 fathom water; ground gravelly, with shells; caught cod of a very large size, and full fed, also ling, and remarkable fine hake; of all which we might have caught any quantity; but at noon, saw a cutter to the N. E. seemingly inclined to bear down upon us. Took in our lines, and made sail for her, hoisting our colours, and firing a friendly gun; receiving no answer, we gave chase, which the cutter observing, hauled her wind to the S. W. Finding her then to be an enemy, we cleared for action, and made more sail, and after a chase of nine hours, she escaped, by her superior sailing. This chase having led us out of the course of the bank, and a heavy gale springing up, which obliged us to run to the eastward; at four P. M. we had the tower of Waterford, bearing E. and by S. distant three leagues, and at six came to an anchor at Passage of Waterford, after a voyage of six days and three hours; having thus ascertained the abundance of fish on this bank, the regular depth of water to be about 40 fathoms, its stretching to the south from 10 to 15 leagues, and of indefinite length, from S. E. to N. W., but such, from what we observed, sufficient to employ many hundreds of vessels, in a successful fishery on this bank."

A number of certificates from commanders of packets are annexed, stating the success with which they have fished upon the Nymph Bank; that of captain Wilby, who in the space of two hours, caught 203 "of the largest fish he ever saw," consisting of hake, cod, ling, skate, and bream, was of itself sufficient to bring so important a bank into notice.

Mr. Fraser communicated many particulars on this subject to the right hon.

Charles Abbot, who invited him to Dublin, where it was resolved, that government should, in the first instance, be at the expence of having two wherries to fish on this bank for three months, beginning immediately after the spring equinox in 1802, and that the result should be made as public as possible, and followed up by the most liberal encouragement for establishing a fishery. The restoration of peace induces Mr. Fraser to hope, that some greater and more immediate means may be adopted: he conceives, that if bounties were granted for the building and navigation of vessels from 28 to 60 tons burthen, and premiums for curing the fish caught in a merchantable way, either for home consumption or exportation, in this case that the Nymph Bank might rival the fishery at Newfoundland.

Mr. Fraser concludes with suggesting the policy of erecting maritime towns and cities on eligible spots round the circumference of the two islands, and of inviting inhabitants to settle on them, by certain immunities, for a term of years. This is a very momentous topic of discussion: before one foundation stone can be laid, immense capitals must be withdrawn from the channels in which they are now employed. To populate the shores of Great Britain and Ireland; to find on the spot, resources for the subsistence of that population; to guard our coasts in every point; and to establish an additional nursery for seamen, are objects of great magnitude and importance, which may be contemplated in the calm of peace: before the execution of them, however, many inclinations must be won, and many giant obstacles must be overcome.

A chart of the Nymph Bank is prefixed to this pamphlet.

ART. LXXIII. *The names of Parishes and other Divisions, maintaining their Poor separately, in the County of Westmoreland, with the Population of each, &c. By a Justice of the Peace for the Counties of Westmoreland and Lancaster. 8vo. pp. 17.*

THIS little pamphlet would deserve not only high commendation, but considerable gratitude; and would obtain a distinguished statistical value, if the admirable abstract made by Mr. Richman, of the returns under the population act, were not by this time in the hands of every studier of these useful subjects of speculation.

According to Mr. Richman,

The East Ward contains . . .	11223
Kendal Ward, . . .	13496
Lonsdale Ward, . . .	2629
West Ward, . . .	6152
Kendal and Lonsdale, . . .	2165

The County, . . . 41595

And according to our author,



The East Ward contains . . .	11799
Kendal Ward, . . . . .	19418
Lonsdale Ward, . . . . .	3912
West Ward, . . . . .	6154
Total, . . . . .	41223

So that the accounts, in fact, much corroborate one another; the apparent local differences chiefly resulting from the se-

parate enumeration of two considerable townships.

Still this enumeration, being posterior to that undertaken by parliamentary command, favours the suspicion, that the plan of calculation officially adopted, may a little overstate the real populousness.

ART. LXXIV. *Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition, and increasing the Comforts, of the Poor.* 3 vols. 12mo.

AT the time of the dissolution of the monasteries under Henry VIII. and of the confiscation of a vast mass of ecclesiastical property, whose revenues had been habitually employed in relieving the wants of the poor, the number of paupers first began to increase in an alarming degree. The introduction of protestantism prevented, however, the anarchy and predatory combinations which might naturally have been expected; both by favouring a spirit of discipline, frugality, and reciprocal aid, among the poor themselves; and by increasing, among the patron-classes of society, from a spirit of proselytism, the eleemosynary virtues. When the conflict of religious faction began to subside, and the victory of the protestant party was completely ascertained, the poor again were found to increase alarmingly; and various parished experiments were tried to employ them profitably, and to relieve them cheaply. The result of all this experience was thrown into the form of a public regulation, and produced the statute deservedly celebrated of the 43rd of Elizabeth. It is thus that laws ought to originate; when the comparison of local experience has ascertained the most convenient and useful plan of conduct, the lawgiver recommends it to the introduction and protection of the magistracy at large.

It is probable that the civil wars under Charles I. were a cause of displacing and intermingling the people in a very great degree: in consequence of which, settlers, unknown to the neighbourhood, were almost every where to be found. To such strangers relief is apt to be grudged by overseers; whose humanity is, in their case, not excited by remembered interchanges of good will, or petty service. At least, about the time of the old age and penury of such as removed during the civil war, the outcry became

very general against the nuisance of having to maintain those who did not belong to the parish; and this produced the statute 14 Charles II. called the law of settlement; which defined and established the claims of settlers more freely than in the following reign seemed wise.

The first compulsory law for the maintenance of the poor dates from 27 Henry VIII.; the second radical amendment was made in the 43d Elizabeth; the third principal change took place under Charles II. In the statute of Elizabeth it is chiefly to be regretted, that the rate and the administration should be made coextensive. Unless the administration of relief is confined to very minute districts, the wardens or overseers cannot themselves be acquainted with the household condition of the families soliciting aid, they cannot proportion the relief to the misery. Parishes are often too large, for those who are entrusted with allowing, to have inspected the objects of allowance. But for the equitable assessment of a rate, parishes are usually too small. In the suburb of a manufacturing town the rate may exceed the rent; a few streets off, perhaps, the master manufacturers, who attracted these poor, have built their houses contiguously in a parish where there are no poor, and where the rate never amounts to one-tenth of the rental.

In the statute of Charles II. which is a great source of litigation between parishes, it is to be regretted, that the removal of the poor into districts where the manufactures flourish, where the wages of labour are high, where casual and transient means of maintenance abound, should be impeded in a degree both oppressive to the poor and inconvenient to the manufacturer, who is obliged to take seven-year apprentices to pro-

vide for the demand of a two-year peace.

Were we to counsel the legislature, we should recommend to leave undisturbed the present administrative districts; because a new circumscription would be very laborious, and its utility but unfrequent. We should recommend, on the contrary, the assessment of rates by the hundred, and not by the parish; a sort of community of taxation already in use, where houses of industry have been instituted.

The nomination of overseers is improperly vested in the justices: one of the two should be elected by the payers to the parish rate, and one of the two by the non-payers, or the poor themselves: a third administrative officer, or warden, might be added to be named by the neighbouring justices, who should account with the hundred for the expenditure of his parish. Of these three officers the votes of two to determine the amount of any allowances.

The terms of apprenticeship are greatly too long. The present improved state of education often enables a boy at thirteen to earn his board and cloathing; but suppose the master who feeds and clothes his apprentice to lose something by him during the two first years; it is still an enormous sacrifice—to work, as an indemnity, during five years on under-wages for the person who confers no other permanent benefit than to teach, perhaps, a very easy manual occupation. Hence the amazing number of runaway apprentices: the sentiment of injustice, of servile coercion, of duped ignorance, irritates them against the master, and, what is worse, prejudices them against their trade, against industry, against regularity, and reduces them to—food for powder. All the privileges of apprenticeship, whether of suffrage or settlement, ought to be attached to engagements for four or five years. In corporate towns this matters much.

The Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor may be considered as a collection of experience, which the lawgiver is called on to study preparatory to some new statute, as worthy of our times as that of Elizabeth was of hers. It may be considered as a manual of charity, which treasures up a number of sound rules, plain recipes, and specific directions, how to do most good among the poor with a given

quantity of interference. It may be considered as a rule of conduct both to those engaged in the management of the poor; and to the poor themselves, who will find in it many profitable practical hints and instructions. In all these points of view the Reports are very valuable: they do honour to the industry and to the benevolence of the society; and they will eventually influence usefully the legislation of the country.

From the second volume we shall transcribe Dr. Ferriar's advice to the poor:

“ Avoid living in damp cellars: they destroy your constitutions, and shorten your lives. No temptation of low rents can counterbalance their ill effects. You are apt to crowd into the cellars of new buildings, supposing them to be clean. This is a fatal mistake. A new house is always damp for two years, and the cellars, which you inhabit under them, are generally as moist as the bottom of a well. In such places, you are liable to bad fevers, which often throw the patient into a decline, and you are apt to get rheumatic complaints, that continue for a long time, and disable you from working.

“ If you cannot help taking a cellar, be attentive to have all the windows put in good repair before you venture into it; and, if possible, get it white-washed. If you attempt to live in a cellar with broken windows, colds and fevers will be the certain consequences.

“ In many parts of the town you sleep in back rooms, behind the front cellar; rooms, which are dark, and have no proper circulation of air. It would be much more healthy to sleep in the front part: at least, when you have large families, which is often the case, you ought to divide them, and not crowd the whole together in the back cellar.

“ Keep your persons and houses as clean as your employments will permit: and do not regret the loss of an hour's wages, when your time is occupied in attending to cleanliness. It is better to give up a little time occasionally in order to keep your houses neat, than to see your whole family lying sick, in consequence of working constantly, without cleaning. It would be of great service, if you could contrive to air your beds and bed-clothes out of doors, once or twice a week.

“ Always wash your children with cold water, before you send them to work in the morning. Take care to keep them dry in their feet, and never allow them to go to work, without giving them their breakfast, though you should have nothing for them but a crust of bread, and a little water. Children who get wet feet, when they go out early fasting, seldom escape fevers or severe colds.

“ If you know that any of your neighbours

are in a starving condition; apply to some opulent persons in the neighbourhood; get them recommended to the overseer; or, if they are sick, to the infirmary. Want of necessary food produces bad fevers; and many of you may suffer from neglecting poor distressed persons, whom timely relief would have preserved from the disease.

"Therefore when you know, or have reason to believe, that any of your neighbours are afflicted with fevers, and that they have not taken care to procure the assistance afforded by the infirmary, you ought, both from a regard to them, and to yourselves, to give immediate information.

"You ought to be very cautious in purchasing old clothes, or second-hand furniture; as they may be brought from houses infected with fever; and you may introduce the infection with them into your own dwellings. Every article of this kind ought to be stove, or ventilated, before it is admitted into your houses.

"Your sick neighbours, when the fever gets into their houses, may often require assistance from you. It would be cruel to refuse them, yet it is hard that you should be obliged to expose your health, and that of your family. You ought never to visit them from idle curiosity. But when they require your help in making their beds, washing, or turning the sick, you may preserve yourselves from being infected,\* by tying a handkerchief across your face, just below the eyes; to prevent the exhalations, from the bodies of the sick, from entering your mouth and nostrils. As soon as you return to your own house, wash your hands and face in cold water; and avoid touching any of your family, for half, or three quarters of an hour.

"Your health will always be materially injured by the following circumstances;—living in small back buildings, adjoining to the open vaults of privies;—or in cellars, where the streets are not properly sougled, or drained;—or in narrow bye streets, where sheep are slaughtered, and where the blood and garbage are allowed to stagnate and corrupt;—and perhaps, more than all, by living crowded together, in dirty lodging houses, where you cannot have the common comforts of light and air.

"It should be unnecessary to remind you, that much sickness is occasioned among you, by passing your evenings at alehouses, or in strolling about the streets, or in the fields adjoining to the town. Perhaps those who are most apt to expose themselves in this manner, would pay little attention to dissuasive arguments of any kind. However, those who feel an interest in your welfare, cannot omit making the remark.

"There is another subject of great importance to you, on which you seem to want information. A great number of children

die of the natural small-pox, almost every year. This mortality must be imputed, in a great degree, to your own negligence; for the faculty at the infirmary offer to inoculate your children, and give public notice of the proper time for making your application, twice a year. The next period for inoculation will be in March; the succeeding period in September. The chance of recovery, from the small-pox received by inoculation, is so much greater than the chance of recovery from the natural kind, that you ought to consider yourselves as performing a duty to your children, and to the public, in bringing those who have not yet had the small-pox, to be inoculated at the infirmary.

"You ought to be informed, that there is scarcely any thing more injurious to the health of children, than allowing them to work *at night* in the cotton mills. It may not always be in your power to prevent their being employed in this manner; but you should be made acquainted with the danger to which you expose them. There is no hazard incurred by their working during the day, in *clean*, well-managed cotton mills.

"It is also proper to inform you, that you may be infected with fevers, by working in the same place with persons who have just recovered from fevers; or by people who come from infected houses, where they are at no pains to keep themselves clean. It is a fact well known to this board, that infectious fevers have been conveyed from Manchester to neighbouring towns, and cotton mills, by persons going from infected houses. You had better collect something among yourselves, to support such persons for a fortnight after their recovery, than expose yourselves to the risk of catching a fever, by their returning too early to work.

"People who are discharged from the fever ward, bring no infection out with them; their clothes being aired and cleaned, during their stay in the house of recovery."

From the third volume we shall extract an account, by the Bishop of Durham, of a school for the indigent blind.

"The account of the Liverpool school, for the instruction of the indigent blind, has been inserted in the eighth report of the society, published in the latter end of the year 1798. The success which in that, and in other places, has attended every effort of benevolence to instruct the blind, and to make them useful and happy, induced some individuals to attempt, in the following year, to form such an establishment in the metropolis; as might not only be of use to the indigent blind, but also to others suffering from the loss of sight, so as to instruct them to increase their comfort by a greater degree of utility and occupation, in their progress

\* See Dr. Haygarth's Rules to prevent infectious Fevers.

through a scene of trial and probation, to an awful eternity.

"A general meeting of subscribers was called on the 8th of January 1800; when resolutions were adopted for establishing, in the metropolis, a SCHOOL FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND. A president, two vice-presidents, and twelve other subscribers, were appointed a committee, to prepare a draft of regulations, and to engage a local situation for the school.

"In an institution, eminently deserving of public support, it was not so difficult to obtain funds, and to form a committee, as to secure a local situation, and engage proper instructors, for so novel an undertaking. In spite of the zeal of the committee, above six months intervened before the school could be opened. It occupies part of the buildings formerly known by the name of the *Dog and Duck*, in St. George's Fields, and once applied to very dissimilar purposes. Five boys\* were admitted on the 4th of August 1800; and in September, five more boys; their ages being from eight to fifteen years. Ineffectual inquiries had, in the mean time, been made after a teacher; until a person was obtained from the school at Liverpool. Fourteen more blind boys have since been admitted; leaving (after a deduction of the names of seven of them returned to their friends) a total of seventeen, at present in the school.

In December 1800, a second school was opened for the admission of girls, ten of whom are now in the school; one employed in making sash line, the others in spinning: their ages are from twelve to twenty years. Only one of them, and three of the boys, have turned out incapable of instruction. The occupation of the boys is principally in basket-making; a trade easily learnt, requiring only a small stock to set up with, and possessing a very ready vent for its commodities. Much, however, of gain from work must not be expected, in the commencement of a school for the blind. There will inevitably be more waste of materials, and less progress of profit, in the infancy of such an establishment, than in that of other schools of industry. Some advancement, however, has been made; and in the beginning of November last, ten of the boys, and four of the girls, had their tasks of earnings fixed; with the condition, that they should be entitled to half of what they should earn beyond that sum. The earning of the scholars in the preceding week was 1*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.*; of which weekly amount six shillings and two-pence were earned by Charlotte Crippin, a blind girl aged fourteen, and admitted to the

school in January 1801. She is soon to be returned to her friends, as capable of earning her maintenance, with only twelve months instruction, and notwithstanding the calamitous disadvantage of blindness.

"It has been a circumstance of peculiar good fortune to the blind children admitted into this school, that their eyes are always examined by a very able and eminent oculist;† and that, if any thing can be done for the recovery of their sight, they have the advantage of the best possible advice and assistance. It has also contributed to the success of the schools that, upon a vacancy of the secretaryship in July last, the Rev. Dr. Grindlay, at the unanimous request of the committee, accepted the appointment of secretary conjointly with that of chaplain; for the connected duties of which he is peculiarly adapted by habits, character, and by his own domestic residence near the schools.

"There were many circumstances to render the school in St. George's Fields desirable, as a permanent establishment; and great exertions were made by several members of the committee to induce the city of London to give the school such an extension of term, as might justify the necessary additions and improvements in the buildings. These endeavours, however, proving fruitless, the committee applied to the Foundling Hospital; which has agreed to grant them half an acre of ground fronting Gray's-Inn Lane, and at the north-east corner of the Foundling estate, on a building lease, at a moderate rent. The situation is airy, healthy, and open to public view and inspection; and the quantity of land is such, as to supply ample room not only for the working-sheds, but also for the play-ground of the scholars; and to afford a prospect of a permanent and extended establishment for the instruction of the blind, not only of the metropolis, but of any part of the kingdom.

"The extent of this ground, in front to Gray's-Inn Lane, is 140 feet; so as to promise the charity, so long as the direction of it shall be honourable and unexceptionable, a considerable advantage in attracting the public eye, and in offering itself to every passenger, as the object of inquiry and attention. There is another circumstance to be stated, of no small moment with those who, in the appropriation of their charitable funds, look to *permanency and perpetuity*; which is, that the Foundling Hospital has agreed, on certain terms, to give the school an extension of its lease for 999 years at a pepper corn rent. Whether the friends and guardians of the school will be able to fix proper buildings on their ground, and also to take

\* Where the child admitted is, at the time of the application for admission, chargeable to the parish, a weekly contribution towards the child's maintenance in the school is required of the parish: but not in other cases.

† Mr. WARE, the consulting surgeon to the school. Mr. Ware and Mr. Houlston were two of the first promoters of this institution.

advantage of this clause, so as to extend the benefits of the school to distant generations, and to afford instruction, occupation, and comfort, to the distressed blind, in future ages, must depend on the benevolence of the public. This is now solicited, in addition to that liberal subscription, which the zeal of those, who practically know the value of this charity, has willingly supplied for the commencement of the fund.

## OBSERVATIONS.

"To those in higher or more opulent stations of life, who are subject to the calamity of a privation or defect of sight, sympathy, and the natural impulse of the heart, will offer infinitely more powerful observations on this subject, and will afford stronger arguments in behalf of the indigent blind, than can by possibility be supplied by me. But I would ask of those who enjoy the inestimable blessing of sight, who possess an advantage which many of their fellow-creatures are deprived of, can they shew their sense of of such a pre-eminence of benefit, have they a better way of expressing their gratitude, than by assisting in the instruction of the blind, and in rendering them comfortable in themselves, and useful to society; so as to increase, at the same time, the amount of individual happiness, and the aggregate of our general and national industry and welfare? It must be observed, example does much; and there are few instances of persons unoccupied, whether from helplessness or indolence, that their example has not contributed to infect others with the disease of idleness. To those, who visit the school for the blind, it will instantaneously occur, that industry so gay and cheerful, so animated and contented, as it appears in the blind who are there employed, must have an unvaried tendency to give energy to the duller and most enervated mind, and to rouse it to activity and exertion.

"And, in truth, the visitor will see nothing there to excite disgust or uneasiness, as to the forlorn situation of the blind persons, under the protection of the school. The task of the day speedily performed, and the wish and attention extended to further earnings for themselves; the toil of their working hours relieved, and the vacancy of their hours of relaxation filled, by religious and moral songs, chanted by them to their own simple melodies; and every moment enlivened by the natural thankfulness of the heart, for the comforts of which they partake, and the hopes they entertain; these will produce much for the delight and improvement of the visitor, and offer no motives of alarm, or terror, even to the nervous and distempered mind.

"The friends of the school do, therefore, invite the visits of the public. They ask them to attend a spectacle, which affords a lesson of the comfort to be derived from use-

ful occupation; they request them to patronise the school, and to encourage its trade, by purchasing good articles at a moderate price; they solicit them to inspect the management of the charity and the application of its funds, and to decide from personal knowledge whether the conductors of it are, or are not, deserving of their confidence. And lastly, they entreat them, while they estimate how far it may be deserving of support, to consider not only the magnitude of benefit conferred on the scholars themselves, whose blank of existence is thereby filled up with useful employment, and its advantage to other individuals (to the rich as well as to the poor) in encouraging the blind to endeavour to be useful, contented, and happy; but also to give credit, for the relief afforded to many poor families, by enabling their blind children almost, if not entirely, to maintain themselves; and for the still greater service done to the community, in rescuing many forlorn persons from despondency and hopeless inactivity, in enabling them to contribute, among others, to the general funds of the country, and in rendering them honourable and beneficial examples of exertion and industry."

Those who have been engaged in the conduct of large manufactories, have probably had the best opportunities of observing the poor in gross. Individual benevolence is applied only in detail, and more particularly to the meritorious poor; to those who have habits of cleanliness, order, and probity; to those who inquired such habits under the roof of the protection of independent families; to those who are in a certain degree civilized, and who look forwards with something like ambition to the improvement of their own situation. But the manufacturer has to deal with the average poor; with the spendthrift and the sparethrift, with the young and the old, with the single and the married, with the jobber and the journeyman, with the sober libertine, and the puritanic drunkard, with the ignorant and the religious, with the ill paid and the well paid. If to local observation, and to inquiry not negligent, some weight may be assigned, the manufacturers find that *the poorest of the poor are in all their habits the least prudent, and the least virtuous*. Cleanliness requires time, which those, whose earnings are small, cannot afford. Honesty is superinduced by appropriating early to children their playthings and their cloaths individually, and by enforcing from each a rigid respect for the little appurtenances of the brother and the



sister: extreme poverty compels frequent encroachment. The father's watch, or the mother's cloak, must be carried to the pawnbroker; and this is done by stealth, and in their absence. The cloaths of two must be employed upon the one, who is this Sunday to be led to church. The gift of a week of plenty to the eldest daughter, must be sold, in a week of scarcity, for bread for the little ones. Hence all learn to enjoy and consume what they have, while it lasts, without forethought; and when they want, learn to encroach, without remorse, on the right of another. Instruction is purchased when work is plentiful; and the children are sent to those evening-schools, where reading, writing, and cyphering are taught for sixpence a week: but instruction ceases with income, and poverty's inexorable bar shuts out even the chance of advancement. Religious instruction again is pursued when work is plentiful; when a decent appearance can be made in the church or the tabernacle, when a mite can be thrown into the plate, which, after the feast of love, solicits the contribution of charity. Female chastity—that too is a refinement, which the poorest of the poor cannot afford to inculcate. Frugality, providing against the morrow, or the winter, or the impending morrow, and winter of sickness and of age, can only be practised where more is earned than is sufficient for to-day. Enrich then the poor. Their virtues usually follow in the exact order and degree of their habitual earnings.

Be it observed, however, that profuse uncertain earnings do not produce so beneficial an effect on the character, as less considerable regular earnings. He who undertakes task-work, who contracts for a whole job, who toils by the piece, although he will work harder, is seldom a man of so provident a character, as he who is paid by the day, or the week, or the month, or the year. In proportion to the reliance on the continuance of the prosperity is the care to enjoy it with moderation. Sailors and soldiers are improvident for the same reason as jobbers in a manufactory: providers, clerks, house-servants, are orderly, cleanly, provident. Almost every man will gladly forego a great many pleasures of the senses, such as intoxication and the like, in order to come at the pleasures of opinion, which a neat room and a neat gar-

ment confer. But to be decently dressed and lodged is only valuable if it can be continual: the mortification incurred by the cessation prevents those from beginning who cannot hope to go on: so that the preference of debauch to respectability is itself only the prudence of misery, the calculated choice of despairing penury, the natural behaviour of the poorest of the poor.

How are the poor then to be enriched? Raise the wages of labour. But this will endear manufactured produce, and choke the sources of industry. No: it will only increase the motive to introduce machinery, and to substitute the arms of the steam-pump to those of platoons of apprentices. In most articles the value of the labour is but a small portion of the selling price: and the fluctuation of the raw material (inquire throughout the woollen and cotton manufactures for instance) will frequently more affect the price of the manufactured goods, than an increase of ten per cent. on the cost of labour would do. All those manufactories flourish most where the price of labour is highest. Labour, before the convulsion of Europe, was very dear in Holland; yet its manufactures did not stagnate. It was very cheap at Naples; yet the king, by turning master-weaver, and warping his own trams at Caserta, could not found there a silk manufactory. How many manufactories flourish in London, although wages are there much higher than in the provinces. Besides, it is worth the while of all those manufacturers who are occupied in supplying the home market, to augment wages, *in order to get up an additional nation of customers.* The lowest class, if better paid, would consume calicoes and pottery as freely as the penultimate class now do: and as each class is twice as numerous as the one above it, the body of new consumers thus introduced into the market, would equal in number the whole extant body of consumers. As to the manufacturers for the foreign market, it is only asking government to draw back in their favour the tax on exports, and then every body may afford to raise wages.

But how can they be raised? Where competition is open, they naturally find their own level. True. Yet there is much of habit in the wages of labour; and if a period were chosen, when wages are rising, to increase the denomination

of the penny (up to one-tenth of the shilling suppose), by which coin the cheaper and worse paid labour is mostly estimated—it is highly probable that as great a number of the new and more valuable pence would be given for a day's work, as are now given of the cheap pennies. The halfpenny might be sunk to a third of the new coin, the decimal rate of which would facilitate reckonings in the denary column. Without some such indirectly compulsory disturbance, the tariffs of established wages in the different manufactories are not likely to be broken in upon. Another remedy is to repeal all those laws which prohibit the combinations of journeymen. In the year 1778 Mr. Fox praised, in parliament, the *Wealth of Nations*. Mr. Bitt also afterwards declared his admiration of Adam Smith's excellent work. Yet so impotent is reason against institution, and the authority even of favourite demagogues against established prejudice and habitual conduct, that of all the legislative reforms recommended by that first of political philosophers, in the labour laws, the corn laws, the navigation laws, and in the structure of the ecclesiastical and commercial corporations, not one of any moment has been realized under the British constitution, except those for increasing the malt tax and the excise laws. Adam Smith (book i. c. 8) advises the repeal of all laws which interfere with the natural price of labour.

If the law of settlement were to be made very lax, and convenient moveable houses constructed, it is probable that a perambulatory population would originate, which would transfer itself expeditiously wherever wages rose, and thus keep them at a natural and even price all over the country. There is much reason to believe, that the gypsies were originally travelling workmen of this kind. Their degeneracy forms, however, some argument against excessive laxity in granting settlements.

Something might be done for the poor by cheapening the means of subsistence. Many articles of food pay a duty on importation: such are, among others (according to Nodin's Customs), bacon, biscuit, hams, maize, millet, oil, raisins, salt, starch, treacle, vermicelli, vinegar, butter, cheese, fish, rice, and sugar: the tax on such articles might be withdrawn. An excise exists on many articles of very popular consumption; but the

revenue cannot, perhaps, spare such important sources of income as beer and tea. In short, if benevolence had power; or power, benevolence; and benevolent power, courage; and of this the most essential condition is the frequent prayer of predisposed opinion; the whole mass of poor could soon be lifted a step higher in the scale of welfare and enjoyment; not only without injury, but with advantage, to the other classes of the community.

To Macfarlane for the rejection of workhouses; to Acland for the introduction of benefit societies; the poor are deeply indebted. It remains to apply the evacuated workhouses as hospitals for the aged, the maimed, the blind, and the disordered. It remains to patronise the benefit societies, so as to make them adequate to the pressure of the times: for that is the purest beneficence which clothes the favours of relief in the garb of the rights of independence. It remains to confer elective overseers on the poor, that their claims on the parish may be valued not by an enemy but an advocate, and their allowances issued not with grudging but with complacence. It remains to station among them a class of teachers who might receive from some metropolitan society, and promulgate in their halls of meeting, information favourable to the physical and economical amelioration of the families of the poor. It is desirable for every little cluster of villages to possess a man who sets the example of the domestic virtues, and of skill in the household arts of life; who dispenses willingly instruction to the unlearned; whose heart renders him the acquaintance of the poor, and whose head of the rich; who delights in the discovery of obscure merit, and in insuring its natural reward; a scatterer of those better alms of counsel and recommendation, which help not for the moment only, but for life; a mediator of benevolence; a confidant of remorse; a healer of human ills; a consolator of adversity; an angel of hope even to the dying.

To teach the art of living wisely, as far as respects this world, is probably more within the competence of the established, than of the methodist clergy; but it is, perhaps, to country surgeons that one ought preferably to look. Men of accomplished medical educations cannot at present afford to settle in the

country: they could not repay themselves the capital vested in their qualifications. Of course the health of the people suffers from the ignorance of rural practitioners. If a salary, with the annexed condition of promulgating useful information with regular publicity, were allowed by government to country surgeons, to one, suppose, in every hundred; the expence of an accomplished education, with a view to country residence, might safely be incurred. The loss of health from ignorance is very considerable, especially in the poorer classes; and there would be

no injustice in levying a slight percentage on the tythe, in behalf of a class of public instructors, a sort of medical establishment, who would assist the clergy in a branch of teaching, for which their education does not adapt them.

Other plans might be devised; but it will be quite soon enough to state them, when the next volume comes before us. Where a sluggish dread of innovation is mischievously held up as a virtue in a government, every proposal of reform is borne with unwilling civility, and crushed with private aversion.

**ART. LXXV.** *A few Observations respecting the present State of the Poor; and the Defects of the Poor Laws: with some Remarks upon parochial Assessments, and Expenditures.* By the Rev. H. B. DUDLEY, one of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of Essex. 8vo. pp. 36.

THERE is no subject of investigation more important to the community than the poor-laws. The immense sums levied to produce so imperceptible a benefit have led some rash persons to infer, that the total absence of all legislative interference is most advisable. The anarchic state of Ireland, which in a great degree results from the want of poor-laws, and the consequent extremities of distress there, is however a sufficient reason for avoiding, in the present infant state of benefit societies, to withdraw the public succour. To the praise of presbyterianism be it observed, that wherever that form of church discipline has been introduced, the attention of congregations to their respective poor has been found sufficient to render needless the interference of the legislature. Not in Scotland only, but in Holland and Geneva, the voluntary contributions of religious societies, and the dexterous adaptation of these contributions to the wants of the sufferer accomplished by the beneficent attentions of the priesthood, have scattered sufficient relief. But where the clergy are too wealthy to neighbour with the poor, and too well-bred to visit hovels, however efficiently they may contribute to the pleasures of polished society, to the instruction of cultivated minds, to the stability of the state and the ornament of the country, the more essentially and diffusively useful parts of their duty devolve on church-wardens and overseers. The author of this pamphlet is a meritorious exception to the frequent predilections of his order,

and bestows on the administration of parochial assessments, an intelligent and beneficent attention. He censures in the following terms the inequality of the burden.

"The inequality of rating, is a grievance, under which the country very generally and justly complains. It is for want of some clear, mandatory statute, respecting the mode and extent of this kind of taxation, that the maintenance of the poor falls with extreme severity upon those, who are the least able to bear it; that is, upon persons who pay the largest rents for inferior occupations. This burden presses chiefly upon the landed property, while the commercial, and trading interests, which create most paupers, are assessed but little towards their support. In many parts of the kingdom, furnished dwelling houses are rated according to the full value, both in the rental of the house, and value of the goods, where they are occupied by a tenant; but when in the possession of the proprietor, the house only is assessed upon a small, imaginary rental. If a discretion could be admitted, it should lean, for obvious reasons, in favour of the tenant.—Although there can be no plea, in law, or equity, for an inequality of rating, after the adjudication in the case, the *King v. Mast*, yet the principle of this decision, is, in many county sessions, not acted upon; and even in some, where fully admitted, it has again been departed from. Some positive, declaratory law, is therefore requisite, on this point. Much animosity and oppression would be prevented, by its being plainly stated, *what is assessable property* (under its various denominations explicitly detailed), and, in *what manner it shall in future be assessed?*—whether upon rental, (an erroneous practice, still much prevailing) or *ad valorem*, which is the only legal mode? This would put a stop

to vexatious, and expensive appeals, regulate the practice of all courts of quarter sessions upon one decisive principle, and prevent a clashing of adjudications, by some supporting assessments on the *rentals paid*, while others, more correctly, decide upon the *existing value*."

We do not agree with the reverend author in the sort of remedy he suggests for this very real grievance. Whatever taxes are laid on the rent of land, must be re-assessed by the grower of corn on the produce: so that the trading interest, which is here said to create most paupers, pays in the price of provision its full share of the tax. The hardship of the present assessment, is its falling as heavily on the small as on the large payer. If he, whose rental amounts to one hundred shillings yearly, pays one shilling quarterly to the poor, he, whose rental amounts to two hundred shillings, should pay, not two shillings quarterly, but more: the percentage levied, increasing with the rent of the occupation. This system of progressive taxation is obviously just; it is acted on in the case of the window-tax; it was acted on in the case of the inferior scale of the income-tax. Nor is it very probable that the trading interest creates most paupers. The proportion of paupers to self-sufficient persons, is larger in villages than in cities: the total population of villages, is larger than the total population of cities. The wages of labour in trading towns, suffice to maintain independently the whole year through, those who can get work. But the wages of labour in villages, do not suffice to maintain independently the whole year through, those who get work—so that without allowances of corn at an under price, of meal-money, and the like, no rustic father of a family could continue to keep house. The trading interest assists to maintain the agricultural poor, by supplying job-work, such as spinning, for the periods of leisure. But the agricultural interest does not assist at all to maintain the commercial poor: except in the case of lands contiguous to manufacturing towns, where suburbs sometimes confer a settlement in a parish of farms. In this case the increased profit which lands yield, in consequence of their vicinity, to great towns, is an ample compensation for the heavier rates. The real cure for the woes of the poor, is to issue that in wages which is now issued in rates; to stimulate the migration of those

who cannot get work; and to confine the system of official relief to age, disease, infancy, and other accidental or transient causes of misery. As for the sufferings of farmers and land-owners under the weight of rates, they cannot be expected to excite much sympathy among those who observe the increased luxury of the one and the increased rents of the other. But there is a secondary class of payers, shopkeepers, artisans, occupiers on the small scale, innkeepers and others, who employ no labourers, who form as it were the trading interest of a village, and who well deserve to be relieved from a part of that weight of taxation, which they contribute in nothing to occasion; but which their charities contribute to alleviate. They have now to assist in paying the farmer's labourers.

We are sorry to see an authority so respectable, so weighty as that of Mr. Dudley, countenancing the institution of district houses. Why should the cottager in any case be driven from his home? When his furniture is once sold, he is hardly ever able to stock a home again. Love and youth animated his industry, when by a long year of self-denial, he contrived to purchase the furniture of a kitchen and the nuptial bed. But these exertions will not be repeated by the hopeless indifference of age. The accumulation of persons of all ages and sexes in one dwelling, where of course the more improvident and profligate are first stationed, and most numerous, obliterates all sense of shame, all care of decency, all respect for virtue. The best are familiarized with the coarse language, and coarser deeds of the worst; and women withered in prostitution, still learn to blush at the enormities of a workhouse. If the poor can be fed cheaper collectively than apart, they cannot be lodged cheaper collectively than apart; it seems rational, therefore, at most to build dining-rooms and schools of industry. Pay for the work done by admission to the public table; make it an evening meal; and let those who are compelled to come and earn it, return each to his home at night. Separate the women and children from the men; and relieve at home those only who cannot come to labour. On the old age of the soldier, or of the more useful veteran of industry, a gratuitous admission might be conferred to the repasts in the parish pyrtaneum.



ART. LXXVI. *Remarks on the Poor Laws, and on the State of the Poor.* By CHARLES WESTON. 8vo. pp. 163.

"THE author of a late treatise on the rights and duties of the poor, calculating on the statement of a Mr. Daker, as to the county of Devon, published in 1698, has estimated the expence of the poor, for the whole kingdom, to have been in 1650, 188,811*l.* in 1698, 819,000*l.* and in 1785, from the returns made under the then late act, 2,184,904*l.* being an increase between the first and second periods, in the proportion of about  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 1: between the second and third periods, of about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 1; and between the first and third, of about  $11\frac{1}{2}$  to 1. Of its increase since 1785, no certain account has yet been obtained, but various obvious circumstances strongly indicate that the increase during those sixteen years must have been in a much higher proportion, and they may, probably, be now safely estimated at a permanent amount of at least  $3\frac{1}{2}$  million of pounds, being above eighteen times their amount in 1650, and four times that of 1698.

"So rapid and extensive an increase must necessarily have had some peculiar and effective cause; and looking at the subject in a cursory way, a variety of very probable ones would readily occur. First, the increased population of the country, which had it kept pace with that increase of expence might have been very properly considered as the cause of it; since in an increase of general population, there might reasonably be expected a proportional increase of poor, and of expence on their account. Secondly, the diminished value of money; and, thirdly, the increased price of provisions.

"It appears, however, from the result of various calculations, that the state of the population of this country, at nearly the same periods at which the above statements of the expences of the poor are estimated, was as follows. In 1662, about 6 $\frac{1}{2}$  million; in 1690, about 7 million; and in 1785, about 8 million. The increase therefore between the first and second of these periods, was in the proportion of about 1-14th; between the second and third periods, about 1-8th; and between the first and third, about 3-16ths; and although some difference of opinion may perhaps be entertained as to the accuracy of the principle upon which those calculations were formed, yet as they all proceed on the same data, namely, the number of inhabited houses, and the supposed average number of persons, in each house, whatever doubt may exist as to the proper number to be allotted to each house, while the same supposed number is adopted in each of the calculations at each of the periods referred to, it will follow that the comparative difference will be the same, however the actual amount at each period might be affected by assigning a different average number to each house. With re-

spect to the periods subsequent to 1785, although the increase of buildings, and of manufactures and commerce in that time, must necessarily have added essentially to population, yet there seems no reason to suppose that this latter increase, can at best have been in any higher proportion than those which preceded it. What the result of the late parliamentary inquiry into this subject may be, the author of these remarks has had no opportunity of knowing; but unless the former estimates had been made on a correct survey also, the actual number, whether it exceed or fall short of that which an estimate formed on the former hypothetical datum would afford, would be of no use in the way of comparison for the present purpose.

"On comparing therefore the increase of expence with that in population, it will be obvious, that the real cause of the former increase is not to be found in the latter; since it appears that between 1650 and 1698 there is an increased expence of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 1, for an increased population of only 1-14th, and between 1698 and 1785 an increase of expence of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 1, for that in population of 1-8th, and between the first and third periods an increase in the former of  $11\frac{1}{2}$  to 1, for that of 3-16ths in the latter. With respect to the period subsequent to 1785, as no certain information is afforded on either subject, no correct grounds of comparison can be formed; but a cursory view of the general circumstances of the country, afford strong ground for apprehending that the comparison would be equally as unfavourable as during the antecedent periods.

"As to the price of provisions, it appears by the same author, taken from the register of the Windsor market, that the general average of the price of wheat for the same periods had on the whole rather decreased; and as the price of this grain, from its being the staple article of food, necessarily influences in a material degree that of all other provisions, this fact of itself excludes an increase of the price of provisions from being considered as the permanent efficient cause of the increased expence in question, however it may have so operated under very recent circumstances.

"As to the diminished value of money, though that would of itself, *primâ facie*, go some way in accounting for the difference, from the supposition, that more money would be thereby required to purchase the same articles for the same number of persons, and thence that the actual comparative expence would not be increased, however the nominal money expence might; yet as we find the price of provisions (or at least of wheat) to have on the whole rather decreased during those periods, this circumstance should



have produced a proportionably diminished, rather than any increased amount of nominal expence.

"In none of the foregoing sources, therefore, can the genuine cause of this increase be found. Is it then to be met with in the ameliorated condition of the poorer ranks, arising from an increased expenditure for that particular end—in the improvement of their general aspect and situation—in the increase of industry and virtue among them—in the preventing or obviating of crimes, or in any other advantage resulting to the country on this account? The daily experience of every part of the kingdom furnishes a decisive negative to these enquiries.

"The increase must then have necessarily arisen out of one, or perhaps both, of the following causes; either that the number of the poor has increased in a proportion far exceeding the increase in the general population of the country; or that they must have increased materially in wretchedness, and thence have required these highly extended funds for their relief.

"Thus it appears that for the last century and a half, a very extensive increase in the number and wretchedness of the poor, and of expence on their account, has occurred, without any apparent adequate cause; although, during the same period, commerce, manufactures, agriculture, and all our other sources of national industry, riches, and advantage, have increased and improved in an equally rapid and extensive degree."

It is thus the intelligent author introduces his subject: he investigates much at length, and with instructive detail, the deficiencies in the present system of law and management: he indicates innumerable grievances, and several corrigible abuses. He writes with persevering earnestness and feeling; like a man who has at heart the cause he undertakes, he does not advocate, he pleads it. His expression is abundant rather than redundant; the amplex of his diction oftener results from throng of thought than plenty of words; his sentences are expanded with ideas, not merely dilated with terms. After a long but very interesting dissertation, the author brings forward the following specific plan of cure.

"Divide the kingdom (speaking at present only of England and Wales) into several convenient, say thirty, large districts; divide each of these thirty into several, say four smaller districts; and these four again into several, say ten, still smaller districts; let the first class of districts represent (for this purpose) counties; the second class hundreds; and the last parishes; laying parts of one into the other, as the conveniences of

locality, or other circumstances may suggest. Over each larger district, place a board of, say, three commissioners, with the necessary clerk, messengers, &c. over each of the four lesser districts, place also a board of, say, two commissioners, with the like assistants; and over each of the ten smaller districts, place one resident officer. Let the latter officers be under the immediate direction of the respective subordinate boards; let each subordinate board, be under the like controul of its superior or provincial board: then let there be one supreme national board, in London, consisting of such a convenient number of commissioners, as may be thought eligible, to controul or regulate the whole.

"From the latter board, all the necessary orders, information, instructions, suggestions, &c. would be conveyed to the first class of boards; from the latter to the second class, and from thence to the respective resident officers, *et c. converso*. All the various accounts would be also collected, examined and passed, through the same channels, from the lowest officers upwards; and lastly, the result of the whole would be annually reported, by the supreme board, to the king in council, and to each house of parliament; before each of whom, by an established routine, they would be made the subject of annual attention and consideration.

"Powers of visiting, examining into, and reporting every instance of neglect, mismanagement, or abuse, would be also given to the magistrates, the resident clergy, and such other descriptions of persons as may be thought expedient;—as also, powers of punishment, either in a summary way in inferior cases, or by more solemn forms in serious ones; and suitable powers of appeal to the aggrieved or discontented.

"Although, for the reason already suggested, it may be at least impolitic, if not impossible, to prescribe to these boards, any distinct fixed rules of conduct, as those must depend on the particular circumstances of their respective districts, yet certain general principles may be laid down, by which that conduct should be governed. Each of the several larger boards, and the lesser ones and their subordinate resident officers under them, may be required to make accurate surveys of, and examine fully into, the general circumstances, conditions and economy of each of their several districts. Their attention might be directed, in the first place, to the ascertaining the best means of giving employment, under all the circumstances in which employment would be applicable; they would state the population, the occupations and the general condition of the inhabitants, and the state of agriculture and produce;—what manufactures exist; what others were applicable; and thence suggest in what way the industry of the district might be best directed; what new manufactories, storehouses, materials, implements, tools, machinery, &c. might be

advantageously introduced. They would next examine into and ascertain, what collateral aids might be furnished, in schools for educating the young, in asylums for deserted or exposed children, and for the aged or debilitated who had no other refuge. As also houses for reclaiming the misguided or unfortunate of either sex; and infirmaries, and medical and chirurgical assistance for the maimed or diseased. They would also ascertain in what way other matters of relief, assistance, convenience or encouragement might be afforded in cloaths, food, tools, live or dead stock, materials for work, domestic utensils, comforts, facilities, or otherwise; where public kitchens, warehouses, dormitories, schools, penitentiary houses or other institutions would be applicable. These, and all such other matters, connected with them, as circumstances might dictate, and all the observations occurring thereon, they might report, fully and distinctly, to their several superior boards; by whom the whole would be attentively examined, and all errors corrected; defects supplied; doubts obviated; and the whole made complete. The various circumstances of the different districts would be also compared; their contrarieties reconciled; their several wants or facilities exchanged; and the whole suitably combined, and rendered mutually co-operative with each other. All which, thus collected and arranged, would, in the supreme board, meet as it were in one centre, and be collected into one focus.

"The supreme board would then compare, digest, and arrange the whole; and form such systems, and such arrangements, as the various circumstances of the respective districts might suggest: by the peculiar facilities of carriage and communication existing in this country, the various wants of one part of the kingdom would be supplied from the redundancies of another;—the manufactures of one part, be made subservient to the industry or convenience of another; and in general, from having the whole œconomy of the kingdom, at once under their view, they would be enabled to exchange, combine and direct its produce and industry, to the mutual assistance and advantage of the whole, and of each respective part.

"Having settled the various arrangements, and submitted them to the revision and consideration of parliament, the supreme board would from time to time direct the several necessary establishments; in the execution of which the same channels afford peculiar facilities; they would transmit their instructions to each of the thirty superior provincial boards; by each of which the necessary directions would go to the respective subordinate boards; and from the latter, to the several resident officers, as the various circumstances might require; the execution of them would of course be controuled, watched, and inspected, by those several boards; and regular stated returns of their

proceedings would be made, through each of the several boards upwards to the supreme one, by whom they would ultimately be examined and regulated."

We cannot help fearing from such a plan, that the business of maintaining the poor would become a mere job, a source of patronage to government, and of profit to petty contractors; and that, as soon as the novelty and parade of an institution exciting observation and expectation, was at an end, its agents would be found to sink into indolence, and to commit full as many errors as those whose short-lived authority seldom survives the spirit of exertion. None but elective institutions have ever retained their administrative alertness long. To remove all the impediments to the rise of wages: to defend as much as can be from taxation, all objects of very popular consumption: to patronize colonization, and the exportation of the supernumerary poor, in order to diminish the competition between them, and thus to increase the usual recompence of their toil: to open the forbidden ground of Hindostan to promiscuous settlers, and to consider the exportation of every freight of men as an immediate facilitation of the means of maintenance at home, and thus promoting earlier marriages, and purer manners, while it is preparing abroad an eventual demand for British manufactures: to pursue peace and treaties of commerce preferably with those half-peopled states, which reward labour high, whether directly or as a component part of commodities; and to consider, in short, as the aim and end of political society, the conferring on every sort of human labour, the highest possible recompense—these will be the efforts of benevolent and enlightened patriotism; these are the true roads to a diminution of the poor's rate. But to burden the country with the cost of new institutions, to allow salaries for doing that office negligently, which, inasmuch as it is elective, is now performed with ambitious alacrity, and which is only misconducted where it is become a patronage; and to commit all the paupers of the country, like the labouring population of Jamaica, to a sort of hired slave-drivers, can only tend to prepare new servile wars, and shake Great Britain with the earthquakes of San Domingo.

ART. LXXVII. *Dictionnaire Universel de la Géographie Commercante. Par J. PEUCHET.*  
4to. 5 vols.

*Universal Dictionary of Commerce & Geography.*

IN proportion as the practice gains ground, among the opulent and the noble of Europe, of confiding to the upholsterer and the cabinet maker the fitting up of library rooms; the demand increases for voluminous literary collections. Thirty or forty volumes of equal height and portly size in similar array, which just rank high enough above periodical publications to be splendidly bound, without the owner's passing for finical, form at present one of the great desiderata of literature, or rather of the book manufactory. Who would not sooner see in the square a parade than a fair? or against this wall a file of volumes in uniform, than a rabble of books of all ages, sizes, languages, and countries? Writers who, like Buffon and Voltaire, stock a shelf at an edition, though the facts of the one be as equivocal as the erudition of the other, are secure of a welcome celebrity, only to be surpassed by the polypetalous tomes of an encyclopædia. Fortunate the author who measures the exact width of a compartment; the back of whose temple to fame presents an extensive colonnade!

It was probably a furniture speculation of this kind, bespoken from the booksellers by the decorators of apartments, which the Russian and English visitors of Paris were expected to take off, that gave occasion to the enterprise of the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*. The original project was to employ not merely all the materials of the old Encyclopædia, but to add whatever erudition had collected, or talent discovered, since the time of Diderot; and to provide, besides, for the names of places and of men, that lodging room which had hitherto been denied them in a great degree, but not with severity, or systematic discrimination. The contents were to be classed *par ordre de matières*; so that the heads *physique, métaphysique, police, géographie ancienne*, &c. might each be the subject of a separate alphabet of articles, forming either parts of a whole, or wholes apart. The exuberance of detail, the desire of completeness, was carried so far in this new *lidskialfa*, or (as M. Pougens might interpret) shelf of omniscience, that the single article

*assemblée nationale*, contained a summary of all the debates in the constituent assembly, and filled alone several quartos. It was hoped that the whole work could be stretched into a hundred volumes, and would cornish the literary wainscoting of a five-and-twenty foot room.

The progress of the French revolution has given, it seems, an inconvenient wound to the slow length of this huge undertaking. The opinions of the Encyclopædists have lost their gentility; the running title nobody will put up; the separate dictionaries are, therefore, finishing off on a reduced scale, and one or two, perhaps, may merit popularity. Thus this *loa constrictor* of literature, which was to absorb and digest all human science, is chopt in pieces and sorely scotcht, and, like a minced polypus, is humbly soliciting for each of its sections a separate vitality. But these sections have not quite grown into natural proportions; the earlier volumes seem all stomach, glutted with raw and undigested masses of information; the later volumes seem embryo extremities, not yet expanded to sufficient size for use.

The French are very fond of abecedary instruction. Every thing assumes with them the form of a dictionary. From an encyclopædia to a catalogue of times, the alphabetic is their fashionable classification. They are for distributing every thing into such segments as the 119th psalm. Like the toast-master at an ordinary, who after Miss A. calls for Miss B. and exacts an account of her attributes with "apt alliteration's artful aid;" even the metaphysician with them disdains the association of analogy, and seeks for his categories in the horn-book. Cadmus is their Aristotle. Anatomical systems are composed as an acrostic, and the skeleton of a course of medical comments is given not in first lines, but in first letters. Statistical lectures are promulgated like elopements, by their initials. Criticism, like an Anglo-Saxon code, exhausts the vocabulary of one letter at a time. The philologist places the progress of language in its abbreviation into the inchoative elements, and, like the illumina-

nator of a manuscript, blazons in his pasigraphy only the capital of the paragraph; he declines, conjugates, parses, by annexations in alphabetic order. The chris-cross row is become the key not merely to the porch, but to the veiled sanctuary of science. Every trentise, like the spectre in the Apocalypse, is labelled alpha and omega. The whole currency of mind must be marked with the bank bill nomenclature of Abraham Newland. The gamut has been transmuted into letters, with the preservation of a natural arrangement; the symbolic qualities of mathematicians are conveniently replaced by a, b, c; but it is surely the anagram of order to reduce philosophy, like the dethroned Dionysius, to turn abecedarian for a maintenance.

For the teaching of geography, this alphabetic distribution is peculiarly ill-adapted; the relative bearings and distances of towns are among the things to be learnt; whatever tends to unite in the mind the names of places by any other medium than the association of contiguity, tends by so much to impede the very acquisition in question. The memory of the geographer should arrange cities as on the map; he should concatenate with each name the peculiar and leading features of its history, its monuments, its condition, its productions. It is withdrawing the reflected illustration of the neighbourhood, to insulate these names in the recollection, and sort them, like merchant's letters, into pigeon-holes, by their signatures. The very horses of Juno would be puzzled in springing at a bound from Aalborg in Europe, to Abaski in Asia, and to Abassan in Africa, which are here contiguous. From Baalbeck in Syria, to Bachian in the Molucca-islands, one has to stride with more than seven-league boots, without any intervening step. As if crowned with the wishing cap of Fortunatus, one glides with the uninterrupted swiftness of thought from Cabinde to Cabul; and, like the elf, puts a girdle round about the earth in twenty minutes. Mr. Peuchet, however, does not annihilate time as well as space, to make his readers happy; for Babylon, Tyre, Carthage, and other seats of ancient commerce, are not included in his catalogue: it comprizes only modern geography.

In the early letters of the alphabet, the list of names is profuse, the informa-

tion prolix, and the detail superfluous. The mere letter A fills a volume and a half, or more than a thousand quarto pages. The letters L to Z, on the contrary, are dispatched in a single volume. Here the catalogue is barren, the intelligence curtailed, the particulars scanty. While the task of Mr. Peuchet was new, it seems to have been agreeable; and he indulged in the most latitudinarian research, and the most longitudinal transcription; he was then the statistical topographer. When it has outlasted the ardor of enterprize, the liminary meridians of his descriptions approximate to almost polar contiguity; and the geographer dwindles to the gazetteer. The notices of French towns are especially eked out with petty and insignificant particulars. In short, the work is exactly what one would expect from the *Geographie Moderne* of the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*.

From each of the five volumes we will translate an article, that our readers may judge for themselves of the merits of the execution.

Vol. 1, p. 96. "Alais, also written Ales, is a part of the province of Languedoc, now in the department of the Gard. It is bounded on the north by the diocese of Mende, on the south by that of Nismes and Montpellier, on the west by that of Valres, and on the east by that of Uzes. Long.  $21^{\circ} 32'$ , lat.  $44^{\circ} 8'$ . Its extent is a length of 30,000 fathoms, on a breadth of 15,000; it measures, therefore, about 50 square leagues. The country is very mountainous; but the mountains are susceptible of cultivation, and the valleys are well cultivated.

"The productions consist of corn, oil, and wine. The Abbé Expilly says the wine is not fit for transportation; this would be an exception to the other wines of Languedoc, which in general bear carriage well. It is worth inquiry, whether this defect does not proceed from some bad practice in the method of making wine. Silk is a more important article of produce; there are many mulberry trees, and worms in proportion. The silks of Alais are much esteemed; inasmuch, that all those in the neighbourhood are sold as *trames d'Alais* or *Alais organine*. The commerce in silk is considerable, both in raw and twisted silk. The purchases are made about the end of August, when the reelings terminate: in about a week the whole crop comes to market; it consists of eight or nine hundred quintals. The qualities of these silks are divided into *avantagé*, *bonne*, *troisième*, and *chiquet*, which last is the name given to the cottony envelope of the cocoons, and is often converted into sew-



ing silk. The silks of Vivarais and Cevennes are also sold as silks of Alais. There are manufactories of different sorts\* of silken thread or twist, as of *cotes, filloselle, estras*, of which a coarse damask for furniture is made: but the manufacturers of Nismes take off the chief of these articles. They frequent the fairs of Alais, in August and January.

"There are also manufactories of woollen goods, hats, silk stockings, ribbons, tanned hides, paper, glass, and vitriol. The woollen goods are serges and spring cloths; they are made of the home growth of wool, and are but ordinary. Before the revolution the manufacture of spring cloths was yearly estimated at about 400 pieces of 16 ells, some of which were sent to Piedmont. Some wool was intermingled, which came from Provence, and cost 80 livres the hundred weight. The manufacture of serges was estimated at 1000 pieces of 20 ells. There was no order of council to regulate the width of these goods, but the voluntary concurrence of the makers had settled it at 42 *portées*\*. Another sort of serges, called *politaires*, from the name of the original makers, were half an ell wide, and 55 ells long: of these about 800 pieces are made yearly.

"Stockings are another interesting produce of the industry of Alais: according to the account furnished us, 3600 dozens of silk stockings are made yearly; 51,800 dozens of cotton stockings, and 3940 dozens of worsted stockings. But our information is dated in 1779. Silk ribbands, lambswool hats, one paper-mill, one glass-house, one vitriol laboratory, contribute to put industry in motion.

"The territory of Alais has no other mines than a lead one, near Durfort. The ore is called *alquifere*, by the peasantry, who only toil for it when other work is scarce. It is used for the varnishing of pottery; and is preferred to that other native glazing which is dug in the Vivarais. There are forges near Alais, and sufficient forests to feed them. The chief towns after Alais are Anduze and Vigan.

"The population of the ancient diocese of Alais is estimated by the Abbé Expilly at 72,156 souls, or 1650 the square league; a very numerous population, and the result of that wise administration, and equitable distribution of assessments, which the ancient states of Languedoc, had the merit of introducing and supporting.

Vol. 2. p. 800. "Berbices, a Dutch colony in Guiana, a province of South America. It is situate on a river of the same name, in north latitude 6° 20'. The mouth of the river of Surinam is about seven miles east of that of Berbices, that of the Issequibo three miles west. The river Berbices is shal-

low, but broad; nearly an hundred plantations have been formed on its banks. The directors of the colony obtain from it chiefly sugar. It also supplies cotton, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, and a dying stuff called *rokou*. The goods carried thither are the same as those traded with in the rest of the West-Indies.

"The Dutch laid the foundations of this colony in the beginning of the last century. About the year 1626, one Van Peere, of Flushing, began to send thither ships, which carried out Europeans, who staid there to trade with the Indians, and collect produce. By the year 1690, this colony was so far increased that the French, who made a hostile landing, could levy a contribution of 20,000 florins. This colony was comprehended in the charter of the Dutch West-India Company; but in 1678 an arrangement was made with the family of Van Peere, who were in fact the founders and proprietors, by which it was granted to them as a perpetual and hereditary fief. This grant was confirmed in 1703, and was respected until 1712, when a flotilla of French privateers, under the command of one Cassard, went to attack the settlement. Baron Mours commanded the troops who were landed, and who agreed for a contribution of 300,000 florins; which was eventually discharged by the house of Van Hoorn and Co. to whom the family Van Peere ceded three-fourths of the concern, under this condition.

"The Van Hoorn company having become masters of the colony, applied to the Dutch East-India Company for leave to import slaves from Asia: this was not conceded; but an agreement took place to furnish annually, from the 10th of September, 1714, the number of 240 negroes, from the coast of Angola or Ardra, one third of them to be females. For these slaves the Van Hoorn Company were to allow 165 florins a-head. If a larger number of negroes became requisite, these were to be paid for at the rate of 250 florins a-head. The proprietors of the colony were to have the liberty of selling off their lands and slaves at pleasure; and were to levy 300 florins on every vessel that should go to Berbices.

"These proprietors were apparently in a great degree successful; they extended the cultivation of sugar, of cocoa, and of indigo; they searched for mines, and invited settlers. They then proposed to raise a capital of 3,200,000 florins in 1600 shares, payable in eight instalments, of which the last was to fall due on the 1st of April 1724. For this sum the lands of the Van Hoorn Company were to be thrown into a sort of common stock, and cultivated at a joint expence; the shipping, the warehouses, the revenues of

\* *Portées* technically *gates* in English: the number of threads reeled at once on the warping mills.



the custom-house, the produce was all to be the property of the share-holders, and a dividend commensurate with the annual profit was to be made. The actual proprietors were to receive, in lieu of any indemnity or purchase-money, a number of shares proportioned to their occupations: thus they would become interested, it was supposed, in promoting the prosperity of the concern, and in raising its dividends continually. About 1,882,000 florins were thus raised and vested; dividends, which never exceeded three or four per cent. were made, and at length the shares fell from 20 to 200 florins, and were chiefly bought in by the settlers, as titles requisite to the integrity of their property.

"A garrison of about 200 men was kept there before the (penultimate) war; but the colony, says the Abbé Raynal, was nevertheless scarcely in a condition to resist the crew of an enterprising privateer.

"In Holland, the colony of Berbices is administered by seven directors, who are chosen by and from among the share-holders. They receive a salary yearly of 200 florins; and give in their accounts to an annual meeting of proprietors, who name auditors. A secretary and two book-keepers suffice for the business of the concern at Amsterdam. On the spot things are conducted much as at Surinam.

"The principal articles on which the revenues of the colony are levied, are a capitation tax on the white and black inhabitants, an excise on every fifty pounds of sugar made, a weighage toll of about two per cent. on all imports and exports, and a tonnage duty of three florins per last on the burden of ships. The directors have undertaken to erect fortifications on the Isle of Crabs; and have ordered, that to every fifteen negroes there should be one white. They grant passports to such inhabitants of Holland as desire to trade to Berbices, with the condition that for thirty florins a-head any passenger-colonists, recommended by the directors, shall be received on board, and if under twelve years of age, for half price."

Vol. 3. p. 55. "Birmingham, a large and populous town of England, in the county of Warwick, celebrated for its iron works, the manufacture of which employs a great multitude of the lower class. It lies twenty-seven leagues north by west from London. Long. 16<sup>3</sup>. lat. 52° 35'. Twenty or thirty years ago, Birmingham did not consist of more than 4 or 5000 souls. It now contains above 40,000. 900 houses are yearly built there. Mr. A. Young says, the population there increased between 1750 and 1770, full 7000. One entering Birmingham, one is struck with the difference between the populace there and at London. The number of deformed is considerable, which is attributed to the nature of the manufactory.

There is a voluntary subscription among the labourers of Birmingham, to maintain one another in old age; they are 2000 in number, and the poor's rate is about 700l. sterling yearly. One may judge of our difficulty to procure any precise account of the commerce of the place by what happened to Mr. Young, who could not obtain the most simple informations from the extraordinary jealousy of the master-manufacturers, who justify their mistrust by accusing the French of having got from them much of their trade. All that this writer says of the wages of labour is, that they are paid from seven shillings to three pounds a week; the latter prices only for curious jewelry work; that the women make from half-a-crown to seven shillings a week, and the children from eighteen-pence to six shillings. The manufacture flourishes more during war than peace, but is on the whole increasing.

"In the artificial productions of Birmingham, a distinction should be made between articles of luxury made to order, and the common articles of exportation. The former are dear, the latter cheap. Yet these are only sold cheap to wholesale dealers, for in a shop you pay as much as in London: this results from an agreement of the manufacturers. The current articles are greatly below the prices quoted in London invoices, as a discount of fifty per cent. is given for prompt payment. The objects manufactured at Birmingham are all sorts of tools and utensils; buttons, buckles, and trinkets of steel, copper, and plated ware. The merchants are not numerous, but pass for rich, and are called hardwaremen.

"The canal of Birmingham communicates with Bristol, Hull, Oxford, Liverpool, and London. The plan was given by Mr. Bolton, about twenty years ago. It was then treated as a mad scheme; but after the execution of the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, every thing appeared practicable. A subscription was opened, and thousand pound shares were subscribed, which now pay a profit of seventy-five per cent. All the coals from Staffordshire come this way.

"In 1785, a canal was also begun between Birmingham and Worcester, which passes near Bromsgrove, over a track of twenty-eight miles, and joins the Severn. It carries to Bristol the exports of Birmingham, and brings back bar iron, grocery, and other heavy goods. The agriculture, as well as the manufactures of the neighbourhood, profit by it; and coals have been cheapened four shillings a chaldron."

Vol. 4. p. 589. "Han-Yang-Fu, a city of China, in the northern part of the province of Huquang, and separated from the capital of that province by the Ryang, and the river Han, whence its name. It contains within its walls many lakes, full of fish and waterfowl. These advantages, and its favourable

position for commerce, render the inhabitants very rich."

Vol. 5, p. 737. "Xeres de la Frontera, a considerable city of Spain, in the province of Andalusia, situate one league from Puerto Santa Maria, seven leagues from Cadiz, and one hundred and four leagues from Madrid. Its territory is so fertile, that besides great quantities of wheat, fruit, and other commodities, it yields 60,000 pipes of wine annually. The cattle is very numerous; in the plains about are bred fine horses. The chief trade consists in the wine, which is sent to America, as well as throughout Europe."

An idea of the fatiguing and useless detail, with which the early portions of this work are drawn up, may be formed by consulting the article Amsterdam, where all the commodities sold there are enumerated, so that we seem to be reading a London price current in blank, or a dry-salter's vade mecum. It has, however, the merit of busy compilation, and of containing, especially with respect to France, a multitude of materials no where else brought together, and full of statistical information.

The reform of geographical orthography, ought surely by this time to be undertaken. The indolence of savages, and their want of dexterity in articulating, leads them to alter all foreign names into clusters of familiar syllables; but in proportion as civilization, and skill in speech advances, the foreign name is both written and pronounced as in its *patria*. Thus at the article *Londres*, one ought to be referred to *London*; as in an English gazetteer, at *Leghorn*, one ought to be referred to *Livorno*. If letters on the road to places so misnomered are to pass through the post-offices of different countries, they will probably be miscarried. Before the revolution, the French was one of the most ignorant nations in Europe; a smaller proportion of the people could write and read, a smaller proportion of the people could make themselves understood in a foreign tongue, than in England or in Germany; however intense the illumination of the few, it was not diffused. Hence the necessity the French have always been under of forcing their own language into diplomatic and commercial use; they could else not have found individuals enough to carry on properly the business of intercourse. Of late their exilements, and predatory excursions, have increased the number of foreign

scholars among them; they consequently make comparisons, perceive certain inferiorities, and begin to disbarbarize. They are now first studying the works of northern taste and reason; their æsthetic faculty is becoming more plastic and more comprehensive; the idiotism of bigotry and ignorance are disappearing from their language; their vanity is vanishing, and there is a prospect of their deigning to learn of each several country how to spell and to pronounce its appellations: their geographical dictionaries will then record names in the European or cosmopolite form, and not as they are maimed and mumbled by the pens and tongues of sailors and couriers.

The preliminary discourse contains a copious, not a very discriminative, enumeration of those writers who have treated of the philosophy of commerce in French; it is chiefly derived from the introduction to the *Physiocratie*, a well-known work of Dupont de Nemours.

An introduction follows, which aims at compressing into convenient limits a history of trade. This relates too much to the commerce of the ancients, and speaks almost exclusively of those cities whose names are excluded from the work it ushers in. It is drawn up with erudition, with the neatness and the perspicuity of a memoir, destined for the archives of the academy of inscriptions; and it advances much questionable opinion, mixed with far-fetched, with elegant, with apposite, and with interesting illustrations. On the authority of Montesquieu, Mr. Peuchet tells us that Tarshish was on the Red Sea; but Jonah, in his way from Jerusalem to Nineveh, embarks at Joppa for Tarshish. It must, therefore, have been situate a little to the north of Antioch, and is no doubt that very town afterwards deserted by the sea, where Saint Paul was born. The shipping which Solomon owned in partnership with Hiram of Tyre, is that which traded to Tarshish, not the Ezion-Geber shipping. Beside this antiquarian matter, there is a great deal of metaphysical matter, or of speculative reasoning concerning production and consumption. The compiler evidently inclines to the opinion that nature, not labour, is the only productive power; that the addition to the price of commodities, resulting from their manufacture, is a mere

compensation for the waste occasioned by those employed in fabrication, and is, therefore, no addition to national wealth; and that that nation would become quickest rich, which should consume every thing in the simplest possible form. This introduction contains useful information concerning the weights and measures of many a country; it is extensive enough to fill a considerable octavo volume, and well deserves a separate translation and publication. The dictionary, on the contrary, can only de-

serve to be done into English in a very abridged form.

The supplement contains the treaty of commerce between Great Britain and North America, signed 19th of November, 1795; and an article concerning Boulogne, which the inhabitants transmitted from dissatisfaction with that which had been published.

Mr. Peuchet has also edited for the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, the *Dictionnaire de Police*.

## CHAPTER IV.

## GEOGRAPHY.

AS this chapter only contains a single article, an introduction becomes superfluous. It may, however, be proper to announce, that in the latter part of chapter IX. (which treats of books for children,) there will be found brief notices of a few minor publications on this important topic.

**ART. I. Modern Geography.** *A Description of the Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies, with the Oceans, Seas, and Isles, in all Parts of the World, including the more recent Discoveries, and political Alterations. Digested on a new Plan.* By JOHN PINKERTON. 2 vols. 4to. pp. about 800 in each, and 44 maps.

GEOGRAPHY bears to history the relation which space bears to time. The one is occupied with all the cotemporary, the other with all the successive phenomena of nations. The one introduces us to the living world, and teaches the arts of intercourse with men: the other leads us by torch-light into catacombs, and proses over the pedigree of carcases. The one is all eye, ear, hand, instructing us every instant about important realities: the other is memory, or dream rehearsing ideal transactions. Nor is geography alone superior in the intensity, it is also in the diffusiveness of its utility. Here and there a statesman, or a general, borrows from history some precedent of legislation, or some plan of a campaign: but the travels of opulence; which polish rulers into philanthropy; and the speculations of commerce, which distribute plenty among myriads, apply to geography for their road book and their chart.

Public opinion scarcely confers on the geographer his due share of gratitude and reputation. What the historian records, preserves its value undiminished: hence the pursuers of fame willingly apply in that line of literature their provident industry. But the geographer must renew for each generation his perishable toil. From every new travel, from every new voyage, he draws something to interpolate in his system: war ploughs up the land-marks he had mapped; death dethrones the sovereign he had characterised; plague thins the

population he had enumerated; commerce forsakes the emporium he had indicated; learning retires from the university he had extolled; fashion abandons the health-wells he had advertised; earthquake mars the city he had described; usurpation expatriates the liberty he had praised; every annual register, every newspaper even, urges the alteration of pages—how can he hope for more than a metonic cycle of celebrity? He ought then to find, in the warmth and multiplicity of his applause, an indemnity for the probable want of its perpetuity.

From this unfair scantiness of praise it has no doubt arisen that so few eminent writers have appeared in the geographical department. In the Bereshith, in the Ezechiel of the Jews, some displays of topographic knowledge occur, derived, perhaps from a Babylonian record cotemporary with the new distribution of the Persian provinces, by Darius the son of Hystaspes. But Herodotus is the earliest writer of moment, whose accounts have descended to us entire. His work is rather a tour than a history, which incorporates chronological facts, because they were obtained by local inquiry; it contains information respecting the interior of Africa, obtained apparently from merchants of Cyrene, which modern curiosity has not yet corrected, or superseded. No assistance had then been derived from astronomical observation, to ascertain the distance and bearings of places;

he infers their nearness, or remoteness, from the ground crossed, or the time spent in the journey. The sphericity of the earth, if already discovered by Chaldean astronomers, and taught in the school of Thales, appears unknown to Herodotus. To Anaximander, the pupil of Thales, is ascribed the invention of maps: notice occurs of one, (Herodot. v. 49) perhaps, of his constructing, engraved on a copper-plate, in the possession of Aristagoras of Miletos. Some fragments of instruction have also been derived from Hanno of Carthage, Scylax of Caryæ, Pytheas of Massilia, who first applied the length of solar shadows to the estimation of the latitude, and from Aristotle.

The conduct of Alexander furnished occupation and instruction to geographers. He disturbed the boundaries of the whole civilized world. He extinguished the liberty of Athens, the commerce of Tyre, the magnificence of Persepolis. His armies brought home the names of many Asian cities, which they found inhabited and left in ruin. Dicaarchus began the new compilations, which these changes had rendered requisite. Eratosthenes, a mathematician and philosopher, collected the foregoing accounts, corrected them by his own observations, and proceeded to ascertain the circumference of the earth by the actual measurement of some degrees. Hipparchus improved the mathematical, Artemidorus the historical knowledge of the earth; but without injuring, or rivalling the reputation of Eratosthenes.

What Alexander had performed for geography in the east, Julius Cæsar repeated in the west: he desolated and surveyed vast provinces before unknown. During the peaceful reign of Augustus, the official inquiries of Rome explored what remained indefinite of its dominion. The commerce of Alexandria contributed its experience of the coasts of Lybia and Asia. India was visited by sea. The north west coasts of Europe, and of the Euxine, were approached by garrisons and by ships. Many a peripplus, many an itinerary was published. Of these helps, at the beginning of the christian era, Strabo availed himself. Judicious and informed, he has stated within convenient limits, what it was most interesting to record of the known condition of countries; but he indulges in some digressions which taste would

have shunned; and, like a land surveyor, seems more troubled about the length of his chain, than the soil of his field. His comparison of Rome with Athens, is in very many respects now applicable to London and Paris. Pliny deserves high praise for accuracy and extent of information; but Marinus of Tyre, by introducing the practice of assigning to each place its specific longitude and latitude, may be considered as the father of geographical precision. Ptolemy of Alexandria, corrected and completed the labours of Marinus, and reduced the over-rated measures to a narrower and more probable scale; combining, in rare and convenient alliance, descriptive and mathematical skill, he became, and remained the canonical geographer of the antients. Agathodæmon may somewhat have improved his maps: but, in general, his successors could only abridge, transcribe, and praise.

In modern times, D'Anville, as a mathematical, and Büsching as a descriptive geographer, have obtained the highest praise. D'Anville is properly a map-maker. His excellent memoirs have for their object, not to detail the past or present state of the inhabitants of a country, but to ascertain the position and boundaries, and alternate denominations of its cities and provinces, and rivers. With all his learning, and all his sagacity, he is, perhaps, too much the antiquary, and wastes more industry in ascertaining the latitude and longitude of a forsaken ruin than of a frequented mart. He estimates importance by celebrity, and prefers investigating the site and bearing of towns and highways, whereon desolation has sown the wall-flower and the thistle, to tracing the course of streams, or the trend of coasts, of which commerce fears the shallowness, or covets the navigation. Büsching is, properly, a topographer. His subdivided schedules of contents, enumerate the mennonist chapels and half-dozen militia-men of every German principality, trace the bounds of their parish sovereignties, and note whether the presiding justicer be entitled a prince, a baronet, or an esquire. But, like our country-historians, he stifles attention beneath innumerable insignificant sand-grains of information; and forgets, over barrows and grave-zones, among charters and pedigrees, the objective utility of his survey.



Mr. Pinkerton has a sounder glance, and a juster sense of proportion. He views the earth, neither through the telescope of antiquarianism, nor the microscope of topography, but with the observing eye of a philosopher. It is not in celebrity or triviality, but in availability that he places importance. He has executed his vast survey with a selection of research which D'Anville, with a comprehension which Bäsching might envy.

"No period of time," observes our author, "could be more favourable to the appearance of a new system of geography, than the beginning of a new century after the lapse of the eighteenth, which will be memorable in all ages, from the gigantic progress of every science, and, in particular, of geographical information; nor less from the surprising changes which have taken place in most countries of Europe, and which, of themselves, render a new description indispensable. Whole kingdoms have been annihilated; grand provinces transferred; and such a general alteration has taken place in states and boundaries, that a geographical work, published five years ago, may be pronounced to be already antiquated.

"After a general war of the most eventful description; after revolutions of the most astonishing nature, Europe at length reposes in universal peace. The new divisions and boundaries no longer fluctuate with every campaign, but are established by solemn treaties, which promise to be durable, as at no former period has war appeared more sanguinary or destructive, and at the same time more fruitless even to the victors. These treaties not only influence the descriptions of European countries, but of many in Asia, Africa, and America.

"A new system of geography is also specially authorized and authenticated, by the singular advantage of several important books of travels having appeared within these few years, which introduce far more light and precision into our knowledge of many regions. The embassies to China, Tibet, and Ava, for example, present fresh and authentic materials, without which recourse must have been had to more remote and doubtful information; and the Birman empire is unknown to all systems of geography. The researches of the Asiatic society, and all other late works, diffuse a new radiance over Hindostan, and the adjacent countries. The labours of the African society; the travels of Parke, Browne, and Barrow, have given more precision to our imperfect knowledge of Africa: and the journeys of Hearne and Mackenzie have contributed to disclose the northern boundaries of America. In short, it may safely be affirmed, that more important books of travels, and other sources of

geographical information, have appeared within these few years, than at any period whatever of literary history.

"In this work the essence of innumerable books of travels and voyages will be found to be extracted; and such productions have been the favourite amusements of the most distinguished minds, in all periods and countries, as combining the variety, novelty, and adventure of poetical and romantic narration, with the study of man, and the benefits of practical instruction."

To the preface succeeds an introduction to astronomical geography, or an account of those peculiarities of our earth, which distinguish or assimilate it with other heavenly bodies, its sphericity, dimensions, motions, division, and satellitious attendance. This dissertation is executed with the known skill and science of Dr. Vince. Perhaps too much is said (p. xxv.) of the horizontal moon: in frosty weather, and in southern climates, its appearance alters comparatively so little, that it must depend on the haziness of the lower strata of atmosphere. Even the zodiacal light is possibly also an atmospheric phenomenon, although otherwise explained (p. xxxvi) by this author: for, if the light of a taper be received through a hole in a card on a watch-glass, opposite the eye, and somewhat inclined toward it, the luminous speck, answering to the sun, will appear surmounted by a curvilinear pyramid of fainter whitish light, answering to the zodiacal light. If this theory be true, the appearance should be called the equinoctial light: it should be seen in these climates only during spring and autumn: and it should be of perpetual recurrence, but of smaller extent, at the equator.

Mr. Pinkerton treats of the greater and smaller subdivisions of the earth, in the order of their weight in the political balance; first of Europe, next of Asia, then of America, and lastly of Africa. He proposes, with Strahlenberg, to consider the Ural ridge of mountain as the oriental limit of Europe. Why not include Natolia also, as far as the coast of the Caspian sea? Why not make the Euphrates or the Tigris, as of old, the separation between the eastern and western world? It would be expedient too to throw the Arabian peninsula into Africa. A very false idea of the relative size of countries is impressed on the mind by engraving on so different a scale the maps of Europe, of Asia, and

of Africa. Allotting more territory to Europe would favour the adoption of a uniform scale.

The account of the British Isles, being here of most consequence, occurs first: it is subdivided into four parts, and in this respect it serves as a model to subsequent accounts, which successively treat, of the progressive, the political, the natural, and the civil geography of the country. In the enumeration of the stem-tribes of the British nation, Mr. Pinkerton justly discriminates (1) the Gaelic, who have bequeathed a peculiar dialect to the Irish and Scottish highlanders; (2) the Cimbric, who have bequeathed a peculiar dialect to the Welsh and Cornish mountaineers: and (3) the Gothic, who would have supplied language and population to the eastern and central parts of England. But he very singularly classes the Belgæ, not in the second, but in the third of these divisions: although the Belgæ appear, from Cæsar's account, to have been subject to the druidical discipline, which was peculiar to the Cimbric tribes, as Owen has shown; and although the Belgæ, by the admission of our author, p. 252, dwelled in Brittany, at Vannes, where they have left behind a Cimbric, and not a Gothic patois. If the Belgæ were Goths, Cæsar would not have contrasted them with the Germans; nor would Strabo have described their language as differing little from that of the Gauls; nor would Ariovistus have needed a *long consuetude* to acquire it. That the Caledonians and Picts were Goths, is a highly probable position; and it originates with Mr. Pinkerton. The settlers on our eastern shores, appear to have furnished the main body of English population. The oldest monuments of the dialect (which might be called Northumbrian, (for it extends from the Firth of Forth to the Humber) approach much nearer to the vernacular English, than equally ancient fragments of the patois of the Flemings, who ought to be remnants of Mr. Pinkerton's Belgæ; or than the Anglo-Saxon and Danish monuments of the age of Alfred and Canute.

The second chapter, on political geography, terminates with a sort of diplomatic creed, in which the author recommends the consolidation of Germany, in the hands of Prussia, no doubt. This country entertains an idle jealousy of Prussian greatness: her maritime power

is very remote, even if she were to hold the whole coast from the Weichsel to the Rhine: she is the most mutable of the allies of our hereditary enemy, and, could she be induced to usurp Holland, she would set limits to the northern aggrandizement of France. Prussia, it is true, covets Hanover; but this province might be purchased of its owner, and exchanged with the Danes for Iceland and Greenland; it could then be obtained by the Prussians, and would cease to form an obstacle to cordiality.

The third chapter includes an interesting history of English language and literature. More influence should have been ascribed to the reformation, which introduced the present vulgar English to our worship and our literature: it is a dialect simpler in its inflections than the Norman-English cultivated by Chaucer. One is surprized too, that an examining writer should speak of Hooker's as good prose: his sentences are most unskilfully eked out with useless particles and inept included phrases.

The fourth chapter, which delineates the natural geography, is a very useful subdivision, almost peculiar to Mr. Pinkerton: he is himself a well-read mineralogist, and has been assisted, in the botanical department, by the comprehensive science of Mr. Arthur Aikin. A hydrographic sketch of the contiguous sea, was perhaps to have been wished. There are situations in which the currents of the deep are accumulating considerable shoals: these might probably be assisted in their increase, by sinking ponderous and immoveable masses at the varying extremities: and especially by the transplantation of shell-fish, the artificial multiplication of which has been insufficiently attended to here, though in use in the Mediterranean.

In describing France, Mr. Pinkerton has avoided to include the new departments, and consecrates a separate chapter to the Netherlands, as if they were still an independent territory. The natural limits of an empire are those of its language. As far as the same writers, orators, and lawgivers, can inspire sympathy of opinion, and consentancy of will; so far can one senate conveniently extend its sway. It is probable that the French literature and language are familiar to all the educated classes in the provinces west of the Rhine; more so than the German literature and language: and, consequently, that the re-

cent annexation of these provinces to France, is adapted for duration.

Of the Russian cities Mr. Pinkerton thus speaks:

"In considering the chief cities and towns of Russia, Moscow, the ancient capital, attracts the first attention. This city dates from the year 1300, and is of very considerable extent and population, though injured by a pestilence in 1771. Prior to this mortality, the houses in Moscow were computed at 12,538, and the population at not less than 200,000.\* Moscow is built in the Asiatic manner, in which cities cover a vast space of ground. Petersburg, the imperial residence, is said to contain 170,000 inhabitants; and is the well-known, but surprising erection of the last century. This city has been so repeatedly described, that the theme is trivial. Suffice it to observe, that it stands in a marshy situation, on the river Neva, the houses being chiefly of wood, though there be some of brick, ornamented with white stucco. The stone buildings are few; and Petersburg is more distinguished by its fame, than by its appearance or opulence. The noblest public works are the quays, built of perpetual granite, while we employ perishable freestone.

"Astracan is supposed to stand next to Petersburg in population. This city, near the mouth of the vast river Volga, was the capital of the Tatar kingdom of Capshak; but the churches are chiefly of brick, and the houses of wood. The population is computed at 70,000. Cronstadt in the government of Petersburg, and Kollonna in that of Moscow, are supposed each to contain about 60,000 inhabitants. Cherson, in the government of Ecatharinslav, and Caffa in Taurida, are said each to contain 20,000; while 30,000 are ascribed to Tula, and 27,000 to Riga, a city of considerable trade and consequence. In general the Russian towns are built of wood, and present few remarkable edifices. A cathedral or two, and the royal palaces and fortresses, may deserve a description, better adapted to a book of travels, than to a work of this nature.

"The inland navigations of Russia deserve more attention. Among other laudable improvements, Peter the Great formed the design of establishing an intercourse by water, between Petersburg and Persia, by the Caspian sea, the Volga, the Mesta, and the lake of Novgorod, &c. but this scheme failed by the ignorance of the engineers; and the Emperor afterwards employed Captain Perry, who rather taught the proper manner, than completed any great work. During the long reign of the late empress, many canals were accomplished, or, at least, received such improvements, that the chief honour must be ascribed to her administra-

tion. The celebrated canal of Vishnei Voloshok was in some shape completed by Peter, so as to form a communication between Astracan and Petersburg, the course being chiefly afforded by rivers, and it was only necessary to unite the Tweriza running towards the Caspian, with the Sklina, which communicates with the Baltic. The navigation is performed according to the season of the year, in from a fortnight to a month; and it is supposed that near 4000 vessels pass annually.†

"The canal of Ladoga, so called not because it enters that lake, but as winding along its margin, extends from the river Volkof to the Neva, a space of sixty-seven and a half miles, and communicates with the former canal. By these two important canals, constant intercourse is maintained between the northern and southern extremities of the empire. Another canal leads from Moscow to the river Don, forming a communication with the Euxine; and the canal of Cronstadt forms a fourth. Peter the Great also designed to have united the Don with the Volga, and thus have opened an intercourse between the Caspian and Euxine seas and the Baltic: and the whole empire abounds so much with rivers, that many advantageous canals remain to be opened. Some progress was made in a canal from the river Volkof towards the White sea, which would considerably improve the commerce of Archangel.

"By these means the inland trade of Russia has attained considerable prosperity; and the value of her exports and imports has been long upon the increase. Several manufactures are conducted with considerable spirit.‡ That of isinglass, which is a preparation of the sounds, or air bladder of the sturgeon, flourishes on the Volga, the chief seat also of that of kaviar, consisting of the salted roes of large fish. The manufactures of oil and soap are also considerable; and Petersburg exports great quantities of candles, besides tallow, which abounds in an empire so well replenished with pasturage: nor must the breweries and distilleries be forgotten. Saltpetre is an imperial traffic, and some sugar is refined at Petersburg. There are several manufactures of paper, and of tobacco, which grows abundantly in the southern provinces. Linen is manufactured in abundance; the best comes from the government of Archangel. Cotton is little wrought, but the silk manufactories are numerous: coarse cloths, carpets, and hats, are also made in Russia; and leather has long been a staple commodity. The mode of making Russian leather, is described with great minuteness by Mr. Tooke.§ Shagreen is made of chosen portions of the hides of the horse and ass, impressed with the hard seeds of certain plants,

\* Cox, Travels in Poland, i. 351. Eyo. estimates, from good evidence, the population at 250,000.

† Phillips, 20, 29.

‡ Tooke, iii. 469, &c.

§ Vol. iii. p. 215, &c.

which are trodden in to mark the leather. Russia produces vast quantities of wax, which is, however, generally exported unbleached; nor are there wanting fabrics of earthenware and porcelain. Iron founderies abound; and in the northern government of Olonetz, is a grand foundry of cannon."

It has been a great impediment to the civilization of Russia, that its capital should have been founded in a situation every way so unfavourable to human industry as Petersburg. The work of the builder can only be carried on there during a few summer months. The advantage of a metropolitan demand, is lost to the agriculture of the surrounding provinces, by their incapability of production. The dearth of rent and labour, assesses on commerce a needless and a heavy tax. It is most accessible to produce and provision, while sledges can be employed; but it is then shut up as a sea-port by intraversable gulfs of ice. If, on the fertile banks of the Don, and at the highest point to which vessels can ascend, the great Peter, as he has been called, had founded his new metropolis, to what a height of wealth, and population, and civility, would all the contiguous country by this time have arisen. Lands on which the climate ripens two crops annually, would have repaid the boor with an immense surplus produce. The northern coasts of the Euxine, too long inhospitable, would have attracted the settlement of numerous merchants. The marble rocks of the southern shores, would have been tapestried with vines and olives, while the quarries beneath were supplying the materials of a more than ancient magnificence. A canal communicating with the Volga, would have collected from the Caspian the recondite peculiarities of Asiatic luxury. And the Slavonian dialect, softened in a milder air, would have wafted the almost contiguous literature of Persia, to the banks of the Vistula and of the Drave. Alexander, remove: not with armies in your train, to make ruins, and sprinkle them with blood; but with professors of natural and political philosophy, with civil engineers and industrious artists in your suite, choose a convenient site, and charter freely your dwelling-place, and found a reputation, such as your heart deserves, on the creation, and not on the destruction of populousness. Conquer deserts from

nature; desolate not the conquests of industry. The only Alexandria, which has preserved your namesake's name, is that to which he granted franchises, and invited commerce.

The Austrian dominions are treated of next. The most important portion of them is that which speaks a Slavonian dialect: the Hungarian and Polish part. It would, therefore, probably strengthen the allegiance of the people, if the court adopted this dialect, and transferred eastward the seat of government. It is desirable, that Austria should possess the whole course of the Danube, in order that this river might become a channel of navigation: it is now but a feeble interest with any state, to slacken its rapids, and deepen its shoals. The canal of Zaba may already bring to the Adriatic some of the wines of Hungary, it might float all the productions of the Euxine: and, like the imaginary Ister of the ancient geographers, open one of its mouths near Trieste, and one near Ismailow. At page 334, Mr. Pinkerton thus notices many geographical corruptions in common use among the English.

"Several of the German names of Austrian provinces, differ considerably from our appellations: Carinthia is *Carnten*; Carniola, *Krain*; Stiria, *Steyermark*; Croatia, *Crabaten*; Bohemia, *Boehmen*; Moravia, *Mahren*. Galitz, or Galitzia, is wrongly styled *Galiccia*."

Surely these strange alterations (to which might be added a longer and more barbaric catalogue, as *Leghorn* for *Livorno*, *Groyen* for *Corunna*, *Vienna* for *Wien*, and so forth) ought to be resisted. Until the names in use on the spot are more familiarized, it may be necessary to print the current name, which is mostly the French name, along with the real one; and to speak of *Napoli* (Naples), and of *Firenze* (Florence), with some explanatory concomitant: but how are our maps ever to find a sale on the continent, if every name is misspelled thereon by ignorance conformably to the mincing utterance of indolent affectation? The sooner the reformation is begun, the better; it chiefly depends on the editors of our newspapers to popularize a correct geographical nomenclature: if they would call the *Vistula*, *Weichsel*, and the *Danube*, *Donau*, as they find it in their German tidings, a few months would imprint all the leading proper names in Europe.

Concerning the stem-tribes and historical epochs of Denmark, Mr. Pinkerton thus writes.

"The original population of Denmark appears to have consisted of Cimbri, or northern Celts, the ancestors of our Welch; and who in particular held the Cimbric Chersonese, or modern Jutland and Sleswick. On the progress of the Goths from the north and east, the Cimbri were expelled; and being joined by part of the Teutones, or more southern Germans, they were in quest of other possessions, when they were defeated by Marius. Yet the Chersonese continued to retain their name; and Tacitus mentions, that, in his time, there existed a small state of the Cimbri, probably near the mouth of the Elbe, while the remainder of the Chersonese was possessed by seven Gothic tribes, among which he names the Angli, who afterwards gave appellation to England, and who appear to have resided in the eastern part of Sleswick, where there is still the province of Anglen. The original possessors of Norway, which, with Sweden, constitutes the ancient Scandinavia, appear to have been the Fins and the Laps, who were driven to the northern extremities by the Gothic invasion, allegorically said to have been conducted by Odin, the god of war. The population has since continued pure and unmixed by foreign conquests; and the Norwegians still retain the muscular frame, blooming countenance, and yellow hair, of the Normans, so well known in France, Italy, and England.

"The progressive geography of Denmark may be traced, with some precision, from the first mention of the Cimbric Chersonese by astonished Rome. Pliny supplies some omissions in the description of Tacitus, by mentioning the Sinus Cœdanus, or Baltic, and some bays and islands in this vicinity. Tacitus describes the *Suiones*, ancestors of the Danes, not of the Swedes, as imagined by careless geographers, as consisting of states situated in the sea, that is in the islands of Zealand, and others which still form the seat of Danish power.\* He adds, that they had fleets, their ships being of a singular form, capable of presenting either end as a prow; that they had acquired wealth, and were ruled by a monarch. The whole circumstances, as well as the course of the narration, might easily be shown to apply to the Danes, and not to the Swedes, who are the *Sitones* of that great writer. The progressive geography of Denmark may afterwards be illustrated from various passages, especially from Jornandes, and the Francic historians, till Adam of Bremen, in the eleventh century, gave a minute description of the country, and their own historian, Saxo

Grammaticus, composed his classical work about the year 1180.

"The geography of Norway, as may be expected, is more obscure; nor is there reason to believe, that any part, except in its most southern extremity, had been seen by the Roman mariners. It seems, therefore, a vain conception, merely arising from similarity of names, to suppose, that the Nerigon of Pliny is Norway; and to add to the absurdity, that the city of Bergen, which was only built about the year 1070, is the Bergos of that author! The passage belongs to his description of Britain;† and it would be more rational to enquire for these isles (for he especially mentions Bergos as a separate isle), among the Orkneys, or perhaps off the coast of Jutland, where it is well known, that isles have been lessened and devoured by the fury of the western waves. In his attempt to illustrate this subject, D'Anville has sunk into the grossest absurdities; and his arguments are not only puerile, but he even corrupts the text of Pliny. Suffice it to observe, that he extends beyond all rational bounds, the ancient knowledge of northern Europe; and supposes, that the promontory of Rubens is the furthest extremity of Danish Lapland, instead of a cape in the north of Germany, stretching into the Baltic! It is painful to observe so able a geographer following, in this instance, the dreams of Cluverius and Cellarius, while he justly restricts the ancient knowledge of Asia and Africa. Few materials afterwards arise for the progressive geography of Norway, till the time of Jornandes; whose account is succeeded by the navigation of Ohter reported to the great Alfred, and the description by Adam of Bremen.

"The chief historical epochs of these conjunct kingdoms must be separately considered, till their union in the fourteenth century.

"1. The most ancient population of the continental part of Denmark by the Cimbri, who probably possessed the adjacent large isles, the ancient and chosen seat of the Danish monarchy; but of this last position there is no evidence.

"2. The conquest by the Goths, who appear to have proceeded from Scandinavia into the isles, and Jutland, as the dialect differs greatly from the German Gothic, while it is a sister of the Swedish and Norwegian.

"3. The Roman and Francic accounts of Denmark, from the time of Pliny and Tacitus to that of Charlemagne.

"4. The fabulous and traditional history of Denmark, which extends from about the year of Christ 500, to the reign of Heriold, mentioned by the Francic historians in the time of Charlemagne.

\* Germ. c. 44.

† Lib. iv. c. 16. *Britannia et Hybernia* "Sunt qui et alias prodant, Scandian, Dumnam, Bergos: maximamque omnium Nerigon, ex qua in Thulen navigatur."



"5. The conquest of Denmark by Olaf II. king of Sweden, about the year 900. The Swedes appear to have been expelled by the Norwegians, for we afterwards find Hardegon of Norway, king of Denmark. The Danish antiquaries have not shown much judgment in extricating the ancient history of their country, in which they should have preferred the Francic historians to the Icelandic Sagas. Some difficulties, indeed, arise, because Jutland, and the isles were occasionally divided into two monarchies; but if the Danish writers shewed as much acuteness as industry, the embarrassments might disappear.

"6. The more certain history commences with Gurm, or Gormo, A.D. 920, but there seems no evidence whether he sprung from a native race, or from the Swedish or Norwegian. Gormo is succeeded by his son Harald Blaatand 945, who is followed by his son Swein 985, well known by the invasion of England, where he, in some measure, usurped the sovereignty, and died A.D. 1014.

"7. The reign of Canute the Great, king of Denmark, England, and Norway. The conversion of Denmark to Christianity, had commenced in the beginning of the ninth century, when St. Amsgar began to diffuse the light of religion in Jutland; and towards the middle of that century there were churches at Sleswick, and even at Arhus: but Christianity was far from being universal in Denmark, till the reign of Canute the Great, when it was followed by its universal consequences, the cessation of piracy and rapine, and the diffusion of industry and civilization. In the year 1086, Denmark displayed to Christendom a regal saint and martyr, in Canute IV.

"8. The wars of Denmark with the Wends, or Slavonic inhabitants of the southern shores of the Baltic, who by the ignorant historians of the middle ages, are styled Vandals, as the Gutæ of Ptolemy are by them styled Goths, whence the Swedish Gothland instead of Guthland.

"9. The reign of Waldemar, surnamed the great, A.D. 1157, who defeats the Wends in many battles, and subdues the isle of Rugen. Hence followed slowly the conversion of Pomerania, and of the countries on the east. Waldemar is regarded as the parent of the Danish laws. In 1223 the second Waldemar with a fleet of 1000 ships, subdued a part of Livonia and Estonia; on which occasion is said to have been first displayed the noted banner of Dannebrog, being red with a white cross.

"10. The marriage of Hakon VI. king of Norway, with Margaret, daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark, A.D. 1263, produced the memorable union of the three crowns of the north. On the death of her young son, Margaret ascended the throne of Denmark and Norway in 1387, and that of Sweden in 1389. She died in 1412; and

Sweden soon after prepared to throw off the yoke. Her husband, Eric of Pomerania, reigned about twenty-six years after her death; and was followed by Christopher of Bavaria, who removed the royal residence from Roskild to Copenhagen, the source of the elevation of the latter city.

"11. The accession of the house of Oldenburgh, in the person of Christian I. A.D. 1448. The repeated revolts of Sweden were suppressed by his successor John, who was crowned at Stockholm in 1497, and the next year concluded an alliance with Louis XII. of France, and James IV. of Scotland. John had repeated wars with the Hanseatic league, which supported the Swedes against his authority.

"12. The tyrannical and unhappy reign of Christian II. when Sweden was emancipated by the efforts of Gustaf Wase.

"13. The abolition of the Roman Catholic religion by Christian III. 1537; but the Lutheran had been already introduced in 1526.

"14. The reign of Christian IV. who carries on unsuccessful wars against Austria and Sweden; the latter being continued by his successor Frederic III. who was constrained to sign a treaty in March 1660, by which he abandoned to Sweden the valuable province of Scone, and other parts in the south of Scandinavia, which had long remained in the possession of the Danes, together with the fertile island of Rugen.

"15. The memorable revolution of the 29th of October 1660, by which the crown was declared absolute and hereditary. The subsequent events have been little memorable."

It is probable, that if Denmark had retained a free constitution, it would have acquired that rank and situation in European politics which now belongs to the Prussian kingdom. The smaller sovereignties of Germany would more willingly have incurred consolidation with a represented than with a despotic empire; and would consequently have inclined to choose, as their chieftain and arbiter, and ultimate devourer, rather the court of Copenhagen than the court of Berlin. If the latter, on the contrary, should offer a sort of senatorial rank to the satellite princes, in commutation for their nominal rights of sovereignty, it would shortly be able to comprise the whole north of Germany, and probably Denmark itself, in its well-conducted dominion. No employment is worthier of the publicists of Germany, than to devise some simple method of disentangling the Austrian and Prussian interests; and of erecting a separate and protestant combination of the northern

states on a basis favourable to their eventual freedom and consortion. The Danish and Prussian monarchs would form the natural consuls of departments so confederating, and of people so congenial.

The following anecdote seems to have escaped our historians:

"It is not a little remarkable, as D'Anville observes, that Witikind of Corvey, and Adam of Bremen, assert, that the Saxons with whose assistance Thieri, king of Austrasia, conquered Thuringia in 531, came from Great Britain, having landed at Hader, between the Weser and the Elbe. This tradition seems to have been preserved by the people, as it is also reported by Eginhard, who had particular opportunities of information."

With an account of the Italian States closes the description of Europe, and the first volume.

The introductory dissertation concerning Asia includes the following classification of its stem-tribes:

"The population of Asia is by all authors allowed to be wholly primitive and original; if we except that of the Techuks or Tehuktechi, who, by the Russian travellers and Mr. Tooke, are supposed to have passed from the opposite coast of America. A few colonies have migrated from Russia to the northern parts, as far as the sea of Kamtchatka; and there are well known European settlements in Hindostan and the isles to the S. E.; but the first serious attempt to colonize what is esteemed a part of Asia was the recent settlement at Port Jackson. With these, and other trifling exceptions, Asia presents a prodigious original population, as may be judged from the following table, which will be found more clear than any prolix discussion on the subject:

LINNEAN TABLE OF THE NATIONS AND LANGUAGES IN ASIA.

Ordo.	Genus.	Species.
I. Assyrians.	Assyrians.	Chaldec.
	Arabians.	Hebrew, &c.
	Egyptians.	
II. Scythians.	Persians.	Armenians.*
	Scythians	<i>intra et extra</i>
	<i>Imaum.</i>	<i>&amp;c.</i>
III. Sarmats.	Medes.	Georgians.
	Parthians.	Circassians.
IV. { Seres.	Hindoos.	Northern and
{ Indi.		Southern, &c.
V. Sinæ.	Chinese.	†
	Japanese.	

Barbaric nations from north to south, and according to the degrees of barbarism.

Ordo.	Genus.	Species.
VI. Samoieds.	Ostiacs, Yurals, &c.	
VII. Yakuts.	Yukagirs.	(Expelled Tatars, according to Tooke and Lesseps.)
VIII. Koriacs.	Techuks or Tehuktechi.	
IX. Kamchadals.	Kurillians.	
X. Mandshurs or Tunguses.	Lamuts.	(Ruling people in China.)
XI. Monguls.	Kalmucs.	Soongars. Tonguts. Burats, &c.
XII. Tatars or Huns	Türks.	Nogays.
	Khasars.	Bashkirs.
	Uzes.	Kirguses or Kaizaks.
	Siberians.	Teleuts.

"Besides these numerous original nations, the Malays and Asiatic islanders constitute another large and distinct class of mankind, with a peculiar speech, in the south of the extensive continent of Asia."

For what reason the Parthians are classed among the Sarmatic or Slavonian tribes is not obvious. From the great intercourse which prevailed between them and the Jews, it is probable that they spoke dialects reciprocally intelligible; and consequently that the Parthians belong to the genus Assyrian. The Medic troops, and friends of the son of Hystaspes, may have introduced some Slavonian words into the dialect of Babylon; but the basis of the language seems rather Cimbric than Slavonian. The Greek followers of Alexander may also have produced a similar innovation. But as the Parthians consisted of that portion of the ancient Persians which recovered its independence; and as they got possession of Seleucia, so as to retain the ancient national metropolis, it is probable that their language differed little from that which prevailed before the time of Alexander: it was consequently a modification of Hebrew. Of the discourses of Sir William Jones concerning the primary Asiatic nations, the fifth, which respects the Tartars, or rather Tatars, is some-

\* The Parsi and Zend are cognate with the Gothic, Greek, Latin, according to Sir William Jones. *Indian Dissert.* vol. i. p. 206. The Penlavi is Assyrian or Chaldaic. *Id.* 187, 188, 206.

† These have a Tataric form and face: they are probably highly civilized Tartars, Monguls, or Mandshurs.

what deficient in satisfactory information; and might have been improved and corrected by an attentive perusal of the long previous publications of Schloetzer.

The account of the Malays deserves transcription, as it may stimulate inquiry:

" Travellers who make observations on the Malays, are astonished to find in the centre of Asia, under the scorching climate of the line, the laws, the manners, the customs, and the prejudices, of the ancient inhabitants of the north of Europe. The Malays are governed by feudal laws, that capricious system conceived for the defence of the liberty of a few against the tyranny of one, whilst the multitude is subjected to slavery and oppression.

" A chief, who has the title of king or sultan, issues his commands to his great vassals, who obey when they think proper; these have inferior vassals, who often act in the same manner with regard to them. A small part of the nation live independent, under the title of *Oramcai*, or noble, and sell their services to those who pay them best; whilst the body of the nation is composed of slaves, and lives in perpetual servitude.

" With these laws the Malays are restless, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigrations, colonies, desperate enterprises, adventures, and gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery, whilst they are universally considered by those with whom they have intercourse as the most treacherous, ferocious people on the face of the globe; and yet, which appeared to me extremely singular, they speak the softest language of Asia. What the Count de Forbin has said, in his memoirs, of the ferocity of the Macassars, is exactly true, and is the reigning characteristic of the whole Malay nations. More attached to the absurd laws of their pretended honour than to those of justice or humanity, you always observe that amongst them the strong oppress and destroy the weak; their treaties of peace and friendship never subsisting beyond that self-interest which induced them to make them; they are almost always armed, and either at war amongst themselves, or employed in pillaging their neighbours.

" This ferocity, which the Malays qualify under the name of courage, is so well known to the European companies who have settlements in the Indies, that they have universally agreed in prohibiting the captains of their ships who may put into the Malay islands, from taking on board any seamen of that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed two or three.

" It is nothing uncommon for a handful of these horrid savages suddenly to embark, attack a vessel by surprise, poniard in hand,

massacre the people, and make themselves master of her. Malay barks, with twenty-five or thirty men, have been known to board European ships of thirty or forty guns, in order to take possession of them, and murder with their poniards great part of the crew. The Malay history is full of such enterprises, which mark the desperate ferocity of these barbarians.

" The Malays who are not slaves go always armed; they would think themselves disgraced if they went abroad without their poniards, which they call *cris*; the industry of this nation even surpasses itself in the fabric of this destructive weapon.

" As their lives are a perpetual round of agitation and tumult, they could never endure the long flowing habits which prevail among the other Asiatics. The habits of the Malays are exactly adapted to their shapes, and loaded with a multitude of buttons, which fasten them close to their bodies in every part. I relate these seemingly trifling observations in order to prove, that in climates the most opposite, the same laws produce similar manners, customs, and prejudices: their effect is the same too with respect to agriculture.

" The lands possessed by the Malays are, in general, of a superior quality; nature seems to have taken pleasure in there assembling her most favourite productions. They have not only those to be found in the territories of Siam, but a variety of others. The country is covered with odoriferous woods, such as the eagle, or aloes wood, the sandal, and the *Cassia odorata*, a species of cinnamon: you there breathe an air impregnated with the odours of the innumerable flowers of the greatest fragrance, of which there is a perpetual succession the year round, the sweet flavour of which captivates the soul, and inspires the most voluptuous sensations. No traveller wandering over the plains of Malacca, but feels himself strongly impelled to wish his residence fixed in a place so luxuriant in allurements, where nature triumphs without the assistance of art. . . . . In the midst of all this luxuriance of nature the Malay is miserable; the culture of the lands, abandoned to slaves, is fallen into contempt. These wretched labourers, dragged incessantly from their rustic employments by their restless masters, who delight in war and maritime enterprises, have rarely time, and never resolution, to give the necessary attention to the labouring of their grounds; their lands in general remain uncultivated, and produce no kind of grain for the subsistence of the inhabitants.

" The reader who wishes for more ample information concerning this peninsula, may be referred to the voyages of Nieuhof and Hamilton. As the latter asserts, that the inland inhabitants, whom he calls the Monocabocs, are a different race from the Malays, and of much lighter complexion, it

would seem probable that the Malays passed into this country from the north or south, and there is no small difficulty in accounting for their origin. The language should be skilfully collated with those of the neighbouring countries, and even with the ancient dialects of Hindostan, as, perhaps, they may be found to be the same with the Pallis, traditionally said to have been the most early inhabitants of that celebrated country."

Under the well chosen name Polynesia our author describes that numerous collection of islands scattered in the Pacific Archipelago: to the most important of them, commonly called New Holland, he proposes to assign, without a very obvious advantage, the name Notasia. Like Natolia, the whole region is too small to take, with any epithet, the name of Asia; and it would be mistaken in our language for a privative, and wholly English word. This country, of which the native appellation will, no doubt, ere long, be ascertained, is become very interesting to Britons, since the prospect has dawned of a successful colonization. Mr. Pinkerton indicates (at p. 482) the expediency of a settlement in Papua: this end could surely be effected from Hindostan, in a manner more adapted to the climate, than from the mother-country.

To the description of Asia succeeds that of America. In the introductory dissertation Mr. Pinkerton gives strong reasons for questioning its supposed form, and for omitting the inland sea or bay, commonly called Baffin's, on the maps. In this case, when the climate shall have softened by the progress of settlement, it is probable that ships will be able to sail along the north coast of America, out of the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean.

'In 1616 some spirited gentleman sent captain Bilot to attempt a north west passage. William Baffin sailed with him as pilot: and this voyage is one of the most singular in the whole circle of geography. Far exceeding the utmost stretch of Davis, they discovered Horn Sound, Cape Dudley Digges, Hakluyt Island, Sir Thomas Smith's Sound, Cary's Islands, Alderman Jones's Sound, and Sir James Lancaster's Sound; all of them totally unknown to any preceding or succeeding navigator. Baffin thus pretended that he had, in an inland and a narrow sea, (which, to increase the absurdity, is laid down in our maps with all its shores, a matter never before attempted from a first and imperfect visit,) proceeded to the latitude of more than  $78^{\circ}$ , while Captain Cook, the most skilful of modern navigators, could not

exceed  $79^{\circ}$ , in the open Arctic ocean, and Davis himself was stopped at  $72^{\circ}$ , in this very sea, supposed to be inland, while it is probably only part of that ocean. It is further remarkable that this voyage is very imperfectly known from Baffin's relation, published by Purchas; and all the charts and maps of this pretended bay have been merely laid down from the observations contained in his journal; for if Baffin made any chart it was not published by Purchas. It is, perhaps, equally remarkable, that no doubt seems yet to have been entertained concerning the existence of Baffin's bay; while it is not improbable that he is merely a bold impostor, who wished to recommend himself to his employers, by pretence of having imposed their names on grand and important features of nature, and by his numerous *sounds*, to have laid a scheme for drawing more money from his protectors, for the investigation of a north west passage. Yet it would seem that strong doubts prevailed even at the time, for these supposed discoveries were entirely neglected.

"Supposing that Baffin's bay were dismissed from our maps, it is probable that Greenland is a continuation of the continent, and spreads to the west about lat.  $75^{\circ}$ ; or it may be detached land, like New Holland, extending towards the pole. The general line of the Arctic sea in this quarter, as seen by Mr. Hearne 1772, and Mr. Mackenzie 1789, is about lat.  $70^{\circ}$ ; and it is not improbable that at a little higher latitude it coalesces with what is called Baffin's bay; in which case Greenland is a detached land, and the country, on the north of Hudson's bay, consists of several large islands in the Arctic ocean."

In the account of Canada it would have been, perhaps, worth while to observe that the commerce of that country seems to be approaching a state, in which the institution of fairs, or marts, would be expedient. Many commodities might be dispersed among the Indians, if they were called together at certain places and times, for the purpose, and with the opportunity of barter. Pedlars could not pursue the wanderings of the tribes; nor would their demand support the institution of perennial stores: but occasional stalls of cutlery, drapery, and whiskey, pitched at the places where the fur-traders convene, might become a signal for amusements that would civilize, and exchanges that would benefit both parties. The admirable survey of the Missouri inspires a deep regret, that the practicability of acquiring New-Orleans should not have occurred to ministers during the late war. In the account of the botany of Canada, the whole of which merits the praise of elegance and preci-

sion, the following observation especially deserves notice.

"One however, the *zizania aquatica*, deserves to be mentioned: this graminaceous vegetable is nearly allied to the rice; it grows abundantly in all the shallow streams, and its mild farinaceous seeds contribute essentially to the support of the wandering tribes of Indians, and to the immense flights of swans, geese, and other aquatic fowls which resort hither for the purpose of breeding. Productive as it is, and habituated to the climate, inhabiting also situations which refuse all other culture, it is surprising that the European settlers have as yet taken no pains to improve a plant which seems intended by nature to become at some future period the bread corn of the north."

With the description of Africa Mr. Pinkerton concludes. His account of Egypt is so discouraging, that one almost wishes the French had happened to obtain that grant during the negotiation for peace: it would not in their, or any hands, have endangered our own distant possessions. They would have taken it, because it is a glorious acquisition, at more than a fair valuation; and would probably have allowed us for it the Cape, where we might have founded in Africa an English population. This would, probably, be a more expeditious form of establishing civilization there, than to undertake the tuition and government of an inveterate, indigenous population.

Creoles, skilled in tropical agriculture, could be obtained in the West-Indies, and would at once found the sort of industry, which we can keep in perpetual motion.

There seems, however, a possibility of obtaining, by negociation, from the Portuguese, the permission of re-colonizing Loango or Congo. Along the river Zair all the productions of the African climate can be reared with peculiar ad-

vantage; and it offers an extensive inland communication, which would facilitate the distribution over the interior of all European commodities. The mouth of the Orange river is also adapted for a settlement; it is wholly unclaimed, and may be occupied without previous concert; and it would be a convenient asylum for those, who have cast their plans of life, on the presumption that Britain would have persisted in retaining the Cape.

At page 767, Mr. Pinkerton proposes to adopt, as the first meridian, that of the peak of the Azores. Desirable as it undoubtedly is that some neutral point should be substituted both on French, English, and German maps, to the meridians of the respective European metropolises, it may be doubted whether the meridian of Dresden be not better adapted than any other for the convenience of geographers. It is the most central meridian; so that if Dresden be elevated to the zenith, the upper hemisphere of the globe includes all the quarters of the world. It is, therefore, very nearly the centre of gravity of human population, the middle point of terrestrial existence, and, inasmuch as it is so, entitled to become the separating line between the right and left sides of the earth. Cosmopolitical grounds of preference can alone avail in a question of which national competitions at present inconveniently prevent the uniform decision.

Mr. Pinkerton, from a passage in his preface, seems to aspire for no higher praise than that of the Strabo of the modern world. Were we to anticipate future opinion, we should expect it would allow that his redaction is neater, his range of study more comprehensive, his selection of intelligence more tasteful, and his views more statesman like.



## CHAPTER V.

## BRITISH TOPOGRAPHY

AND

## ANTIQUITIES.

TOPOGRAPHY, like all other subjects of investigation and inquiry, has received more numerous and important accessions during the last century, than have been derived from all the preceding ones. This may chiefly be attributed to the increased facility of travelling, and better accommodations in towns and remote villages, to a more urgent curiosity concerning our national antiquities and local history, and to the general prevalence of tours of pleasure, in which so many of our countrymen, who are in easy circumstances, liberally indulge. Even our county and parish histories, instead of exhibiting a dull, uninteresting series of municipal and ecclesiastical officers, of families never heard of beyond the bounds of their own estates, and of names even yet more obscure, sedulously and indiscriminately collected from tombstones and parish registers, are by slow degrees shaking off their barbarism, and aspiring to their proper rank in our national literature.

Of all the subjects of investigation included under Topography, the study of Antiquities seems to be that which prompted the earliest and minutest surveys of Great Britain. The rude remains of the tribes who possessed the island previously to the invasion by the Romans, the roads and other monuments of civilization, constructed by these enlightened and enlightening conquerors, the military, the civil, and ecclesiastical architecture of the succeeding ages, all furnish a multiplicity of objects interesting in themselves, and eminently illustrative of the public and private history of the country. These have been described, explained, and classed, with various success, and form the original basis of British Topography. In the early part of the sixteenth century, Leland, the royal antiquary, traversed the island in various directions, for six successive years, and presented to the public the fruit of his researches in his "Itinerary, and Collectanea." This worthy example was soon followed and surpassed by Camden, who in his "Britannia" has erected a lasting monument to his own fame and his country's glory. Within the short space of fifteen years, no less than five editions were published, which more than any thing else produced a general taste for topographical inquiries. The effects of the impulse thus communicated soon appeared in Lambard's "Perambulation of Kent;" the first of our county histories; in Erdeswick's "Collections relative to Staffordshire;" and Carew's "History of Cornwall." Numerous works on a similar plan speedily followed, so that now a considerable proportion of the counties of England have been illustrated by their

local historians; and even single towns and parishes have in many instances been the subjects of minute and laborious investigation.

The attention to antiquities in our early topographers, was excessive, and almost exclusive. The most flourishing towns were passed over with slight and inadequate notice; and the agriculture, the natural history, the picturesque scenery of the island, remained wholly unrecorded. The itineraries of the illustrious Ray, about the middle of the seventeenth century, appear to have first opened the eyes of Englishmen upon the natural history of their native country, and the "*British habitats*," inserted in his "*Catalogus Plantarum*," have been copied, with additions from various sources, into all the succeeding county histories. In a description of Cornwall, it was not possible wholly to omit all mention of its mines and minerals; nor could Bath, Buxton, or Harrowgate, be described without some notice, however slight and inaccurate, of their medicinal springs. The caverns and other natural curiosities of Derbyshire were, from very early times, the wonder of travellers; and from the first attention of inquirers into these subjects to the present day, the natural history of Britain has been more and more regarded as an important and essential department of its topography.

In perusing the itineraries of our more ancient tourists, there is nothing that surprises the modern reader so much as the apparently total insensibility to those sublime and beautiful scenes of nature which have of late employed all the eloquence of the pen, and the magic of the pencil, in their illustration. Ray, a native of Essex, and a resident in Cambridge, in his different excursions, passed through the vallies of Derbyshire, ascended the mountains of North Wales, and beheld the glories of the Cumberland lakes; yet, from the whole of his itineraries, not a single sentence can be gleaned, expressive of that wonder and delight with which every one at the present day is irresistibly affected. But, indeed, a perception of the beauties of picturesque scenery is quite of modern growth. Even Addison, a man of sensibility and imagination, in the account which he has published of his journey through the south of France, Italy, and Swisserland, will appear remarkably frigid and reserved, when compared with those who have gone over the same ground in the course of the last twenty years.

Some of the first specimens of picturesque description, are nearly contemporary with the introduction of that style in gardening which is peculiarly termed the English; but though the intimate and necessary connection between the two will be readily acknowledged, it does not appear easy to determine which of them is entitled to priority of origin. The embellisher of Hagley was the first who discovered and published to the world the exquisite beauties of the vale of Festiniog, and a few other selected portions of British scenery. The poet Gray soon after pointed out some of the characteristic features of the north of England, as Pennant and Cordiner did of Scotland: lastly, Mr. Gilpin, surveying the most striking varieties of country which Great Britain affords, with a profound knowledge of the principles of landscape, and a delicate susceptibility of picturesque effect, has, perhaps, brought to perfection this interesting and delightful branch of topographical investigation.

If, however, our modern tourists have a larger and more various range than their predecessors, yet upon some subjects, especially antiquities, their inquiries must of

necessity become more contracted, and less interesting. All the architectural remains which from their magnitude, their beauty, or other circumstances, are peculiarly interesting, have been so repeatedly described, as to be incapable of further elucidation, and that ruin must be obscure and trifling indeed, concerning which there remains any unpublished history or tradition; in many cases too, even the ruins themselves have fallen down, or have been destroyed; nor can any adequate successors to them be expected, on account of the altered style of modern architecture. The ruined face of a turf or stone bastion, almost upon a level with the ground, will be a very humble substitute for picturesque effect, to the massy walls, and lofty turrets of the ancient castle.

It appears therefore, that natural history, statistics, manners, and the permanent features of landscape, must be constantly rising in importance to the British topographer; and that the writers in this department will for the future be acting more wisely for their own fame, and the public advantage, in attending to these great objects, than in wasting their time in painful and unsatisfactory researches upon the very refuse of the rude ages that are gone by, without adding to the common stock a single fact of importance, in illustration of our national, or parochial antiquities.

ART. I. *British Monachism, or Manners and Customs of the Monks and Nuns of England.* By THOMAS DUDLEY FOSBROOKE, M. A. F. A. S. In 2 vols. 8vo.

THAT "British monachism" is a subject peculiarly interesting to Britons, might be easily proved from its intimate connection with almost every branch of our national antiquities, independently of its attraction as an object of curiosity, and as a "picture of manners and customs never to return." Few persons, even the most illiterate, can contemplate its dilapidated monuments, "venerable in ruins," but must wish to know some history of those times, of which they remain the memento; still the ornament of our landscape, they enrich the scenes of the painter; they give to the descriptive colouring of the traveller its warmest glow; and afford to the antiquary the sublimest objects of admiration and regret.

These reflections naturally suggested themselves on perusing the above title; and we confess it was not without anticipating considerable pleasure that we took up the volumes; but whatever that pleasure might be, we must say, it ended in disappointment on a farther acquaintance with their contents. It is an unpleasant part of our task when circumstances concur in warranting censure where we wish to praise: in the present instance we are certainly compelled to this disagreeable duty, for we do not recollect to have seen such an

indigested mass of materials in any published book. We are inclined to think that Mr. Fosbrooke sent the result of his readings to the press just as they occurred in his memorandums, without attempting to put them into any kind of order; as we cannot otherwise account for the striking irregularity and inattention, which are every where so conspicuous.—These defects are the more to be regretted as the work contains some curious and valuable information, which has evidently been procured with much research and labour. The reader will, however, be enabled to make his own conclusions from the following analysis, and the extracts which accompany it.

The author, after a short preface which neither explains the plan that he means to pursue, nor the object of the book which he intends to produce, commences with an "introduction," as he calls it, equally unsatisfactory; the first sentence of which requires some sagacity and attention in the reader to comprehend.

"BRITAIN, could more be conceded to the legendary antientry of Glastonbury, than that it was a place of religion, of which nothing certain is known, would have been prepared for the susception of monachism by the existence of similar institutions among the Druids. With these, however, his

tory has not presumed to connect the monachism of the Britons, the introduction of which is assigned to the fourth century. The simultaneous coincidence of frequent pilgrimages to Jerusalem, as explaining why the Egyptian rule according, it seems, to the method of Pachomius, was the first here known, has been hitherto unnoted.

"The institutes of Pachomius were these. The punishment of speaking or laughing, during psalmody, praying, or speaking in the midst of the lesson, was loosing the girdle, inclination of the head, depression of the hands to the lower parts, a standing position before the altar, and a reprimand from the chief of the monastery. The same was to be done in the convent, when assembled for refection. The punishment of tardiness, "when the trumpet sounded to convoke the congregation in the day," was similar. No one was to leave the congregation without leave. The monks were to remember orders. On Sunday no divine service was permitted without leave of the prelate and "seniors of the house;" no one was to be absent. In the morning, after prayers, the monks were to study the weekly disputations, made by the prelates in their cells. If any one was asleep during these disputations, he was to rise; if asleep in a sitting position, he was to be compelled to rise, and to continue till the prelate ordered him to sit. The monks were to assemble at the signal, nor to light the fire before the disputation. At the dismissal of the congregation they were to meditate in their cells bareheaded, but to dine covered. When ordered to pass from one table to the other, they were to go, and not to hold out their hands at the table before the prelates, nor gaze at others eating. Laughter, or speaking, in refection, and tardiness in coming to it, were forbidden, and silence enjoined, &c."

How far this explains the nature, intent, or design of monachism, we submit to the readers determination. The remainder of the "institutes of Pachomius" occupy the ten succeeding pages, and are detailed without explanation, order, or the least attempt at perspicuity and harmony; nor does the author give the smallest information concerning Pachomius, either who he was, when he flourished, when his institutes were compiled, or what were the various rites they enjoined. The same may be said of his pages relating to Benedict the founder of the grand rule, and indeed of all the other names mentioned in the course of the work.

At page 19 we come to another division of the book, which is headed "*part the first,*" and professes to treat of

"Benedictine monachism from the reign of Edgar to the dissolution."

"It is only from the days of Edgar," observes Mr. Fosbrooke, "that monachism begins to assume a uniform aspect. This prince, and a noble Saxon named Alfreth, gave a manor to Ethelwold, bishop of Winchester, on condition that he should translate the rule of Benedict from Latin into Anglo-Saxon, which he accordingly did; and such a version now exists, as well as a short tract of that prelate's, 'of the Rule of the Monks;' Oswald, archbishop of York, in the same era, 'enlarged the rule by his own authority.' All these, however, as Junius observes, were consolidated in the 'Concord of Rules by Dunstan,' which regulated the practice of the monks till the year 1077. On account of the decay in the observance of it, through the consequences of Danish invasions, Lanfranc, then found it necessary to issue new institutes, which, says Reyner, (falsely) were hindered from taking firm root by the peculiar circumstances under which the Norman kings reigned in this country. To remedy this defect of influence in the decrees of Lanfranc, a synod of Lateran issued emendatory statutes in the year 1215. Upon the superannuation of these statutes, Benedict the 12th, in the 14th century, published constitutions which biased monachism to the dissolution. The view of the institutes made in those respective eras, consequently shews the only method by which a satisfactory account of monachism can be obtained; and a particular attention is due to the codes of Dunstan and Lanfranc, as, in the one or the other of these, every custom of moment, whatever variation it may have undergone in subsequent eras, has its basis; and analogy positively proves, that the observation of these codes, rather enlarged than mutilated in form, continued till the dissolution.

"Dunstan's concord of rules was this: At every season in the nocturnal hours, when the monk rises to divine service, let him first sign himself with the cross, and invoke the Holy Trinity. Then (after certain prayers) let him provide for the bodily necessity of nature, and so hasten to the church, repeating a psalm, with such care and reverence, as not to disturb others praying; and then on his knees, in the usual and suitable place, repeat three prayers, &c."

Here at least we expected to have had the *history of monachism* investigated and regularly traced; instead of which we are told, that by means of Edgar, Dunstan was enabled to compile a "concord of rules," which with some few alterations and emendations, continued until the dissolution. Yet Mr. F. asserts, that the *only* method of obtaining a "satisfactory knowledge of monachism" is by a view

of the "institutes" made in their respective eras. Surely something more is required, and we do not hesitate to say, that it *ought* to be given in a work expressively and *exclusively* written on "*British monachism*." However, as our author has not given us a complete picture, we must endeavour to comprehend and explain his sketches. He proceeds with another translation of rules, which occupy thirty-nine pages. These are of the same complexion with those already noticed; and indeed one half of them are merely a repetition of the institutes of Pachomius. Thus, instead of descriptive information, we have literal dry translations of rule after rule to the seventy-third page, when we arrive at the *second part*, which treats of "monastic officers." Here we gladly behold some gleaming rays of amusing information to cheer our aching eyes. This part contains particular descriptions of the manners, customs, dress, &c. of ABBOTS: of whose stately ceremony we find the following account:

"When he" (speaking of the abbot of Eusham) "pleased to sing vespers, the vestment and cope for his use, water in silver basins, towels, the comb, mitre, gloves, and staff, were placed in the vestiary. The abbot then, having combed his head and washed his hands, clothed himself in the vestiary with the alb, robe, mitre, gloves, ring and crosier, his chaplains humbly attending upon him. Upon his being robed, *a peal of all the bells struck up*; and entering the upper choir, preceded by the chantors and prior robed for the occasion, he went to his stall below, which, whether he was in pontificals or not, was to be adorned with a *carrel*\*; when the bells had done, the abbot, standing in his stall, began *Deus in adjutorium*; and after the beginning of the first psalm, a senior, kissing his hand, took the crosier and laid it near him; which ceremony of kissing his hand was to be always used upon the receipt or delivery of any thing from or to him†.

"Besides these high distinctions," continues Mr. Fosbrooke, "discipline was always to be observed in his presence, and in reproof the delinquent was to stand till he ordered him to sit, and repeatedly solicit pardon as long as he was angry. The abbot was, however, to shun this before seculars. When he was in the choir, no one was to discipline the children without his orders; and while he was abed in the morning, the master was to awake them at the proper hour, by striking the rod upon the bed-clothes; after which they were to wash, comb themselves, say their prayers, go to

their school, and sit silent until the abbot rose. When he sent letters to the convent, all were to bow and kneel, as to those of the pope and king; for other persons they only bowed. If he gave a command, the monk who received it was immediately to kneel. If a monk came to him, he was to say *benedicite*, and then tell the cause of his coming; nor was he to sit in his presence, or depart without his leave; after which he was again to say *benedicite*, and go. If any thing new was done in his absence, it was to be submitted to his discretion upon his return; and when he staid out a whole night, a monk, penanced with abstinence, was upon his return absolved."

The extraordinary power, authority, and human omnipotence of the abbot, is thus explained.

"Commensurate with the power of an abbot were his privileges. At one time to make knights, to confer the lesser orders, to dispense with irregularities in his monks, to give the benediction any where, to consecrate churches and cemeteries and other ecclesiastical appendages, to appoint and depose priors of cells, to hold visitations once a year, and if there was a necessity oftener, to regulate the reception of nuns in subservient houses, and to give the benediction to subject nuns.

"Besides parliamentary honours, they were sponsors to the children of the blood royal. Bells were rung in honour of them when they passed by churches belonging to them. They rode with hawks on their fists, (a mark of the highest gentility) on mules with gilded bridles, saddles and cloths of blood colour, and with immense retinues. The noble children, whom they educated in their private families, served them as pages. They styled themselves by 'Divine permission,' or 'the grace of God,'—and their subscription was their surnames and the name of the house. They associated with people of the first distinction, and shared the same pleasures with them, being accustomed to visit and dine with them. The abbot of St. Alban's usually sat alone at the middle of the table of the great hall, where he was served in plate; and when any nobleman or ambassador, or strangers of eminent quality, came thither, they sat at his table towards the end of it. Like the nobility, so they had their "privy councils" of certain monks."

Abbots were not merely pre-eminent in official authority, but assumed much pomp in deportment, and grandeur in externals. And though the spirit was sometimes doomed to mortifying prescriptions, yet the abbots deemed sumptuous dresses necessary auxiliaries to dignity.

\* Pew. † From M. S. Bodl. Barlow 7 fo. 2.



"The public dress of an abbot," observes Mr. Fosbrooke, "is known to have consisted of the dalmatic or seamless coat of Christ; signifying holy and immaculate piety: of the mitre, emblematic of Christ, the head of the church, whose figure bishops bore; of the crozier, or pastoral care; of the gloves, which, because occasionally worn or laid aside, typified the concealment of good works for shunning vanity, and the demonstration of them for edification; of the ring, as Christ was the spouse of the church, and scripture mysteries were to be sealed from unbelievers, and revealed to the church; and of the sandals, because, as the foot was neither covered nor naked, so the gospel should neither be concealed, nor rest upon earthly benefits.

"The mitres appear to have been worn, like those of bishops, though it is said, the episcopal, were gold; the abbatial, argent garnished with gold; all of them murrey labels: a mere distinction of the writer or painter. Their parliament robes ("A parliament robe of *quite*, furred with lettese," says an inventory) were, however, different from the episcopal, for they wore gowns, hoods, and cassocks. The pastoral crooks were sometimes barely curled, sometimes more ornamented, sometimes like beadies' staves, more like maces than croziers. The rings worn on various fingers were either of a circular or oval form, and set often with seals of arms and devices, and antique gems. The bull of Honorius, respecting the privileges of St. Alban's, only allows the abbot to use his pontificals within his own churches and cells on festival days, and on other times within the house to wear the habit conformable to the rule; and they did so, though with trifling uncanonical variations. The foppish prelate who wore the taberd, which the French call *canis*, (a thin gown) despising the common round robe of priests, and had double garments of scarlet, crimson, and party-coloured, scarcely reaching to the knees, and boots, without a fold, 'like the sign of the leg,' is a singular instance." \*

That abbots, nuns, and friars, were not divested of "the common feelings of human nature," requires but little argument or evidence to prove; but that they had passions and partialities, like other frail children of Eve, is sufficiently apparent by the following anecdotes.

"In M. S. Ashmole Mus. 1519. f. 28. 6. The abbot of Welbeck is described as one who, 'vixit et vivit in fornicarie amplexibus tenendo diversas mulieres,' i. e. who has lived, and still lives in fornication, by keeping divers women."

"The abbot of Fountains is described thus by the visitors, 'Pleas it your mastershippe

to understand, that the abbot of Fountains hath so gretely dilapidated his howse, wasted the woodys, notoriously keeping of hoeres, defamed à toto populo, &c.'—M. S. S. Cott.

"The manner of catching the abbot's whore of Langden abbey, is such a perfect picture of the triumphant vulgar brutality of a little mind inflated with office, that I shall give it in the ruffian's own words.—'Whereat I immediately descending from my horse, I sent Bartlett, your servaunt, with all my servants, to circumspect the abbey, and surely to keep all backe dores and starting hoiles, and I myself went alone to the abbot's logyng, joyning upon the felde and wode, even like a coney clapper full of starting holes, a good space, knocking at the abbot's dore, *nec vox nec servus apparent*, (i. e. not a mouse stirring) saying the abbot's litle dogge, that within his dore fast lokkid bayed and barkide. I found a short polax standyng besyde the dore, and with yt I dashed the abbot's dore in peisses, *ictu oculi*, (the twinkling of an eye,) and set one of my men to keep the door, and about howse I go with that polax in my hande, *ne forte*, (lest perhaps) for the abbot is a dangerous desperate knave, and a hardy; but, for a conclusion, his hore, al's his gentlewoman, bestyrrede hyr stumps towards his starting hoilly's, and then Bartlett, waiching the pursuit, towke the tender damoisell, and afir I hade examynede hir, I sent hir to town, then to the maior to set hir in the cage or prison for viii dayes, and I brought holy father abbot to come and heyr.' Cott. M. S. S. ut supra 127 a."

"But above all was the prior of Maiden Bradley. Richard Leyton says, 'Whereat is an holy father prior, and hath but vii children, and but one dowghter marriede, yet of the goods of the monasterie trysting shortly to marry the rest. His sones be tall men waytyng upon hym, and he, thank God, a none meddler with *marritt women*, but all with *madens* the fairest could be gottyn. The pope, considering his frailltie, gave hym lycens to kepe an hore, and hath goode wrytyng, sub plumbs, to discharge his conscience.' Id. 249. a. Burnet, &c."

The remaining part of the first volume contains some miscellaneous notes concerning, and descriptions of, the offices and duties of *abbots* and other monastic officers; *obedienitaries*, or officers under the abbot; the *prior* who was next to the abbot; *prioress* and *sub-prioress*; *cellarer* and *cellaress*; *subchantor*; *præcentria*; *kitchener*; *cooks*; *seneschall* *treasurer* or *burser*; *sacriste* or *secretarius*; *lecturer*; *almoner*; *master of the novices*; *mistress of the novices*; *infirmarer*; *infirmaress*; *porter*; *refectioner*; *hospitaler*; *chamberlain*;

*rener of the house; granetarius or keeper of the garners; master of the common house; virgultarius or orchander; porcarius; and several other inferior officers.*

"Thus terminates the account of the monastic officers," says our author, "and such was the effect of puritanical principles, that the very name became odious; and at the dissolution, the dean and other officers of Exeter cathedral, requested to be styled by the scriptural appellations of pastor and preachers."

In a short appendix to this volume, Mr. F. introduces some additional memoranda relating to the foregoing subjects.

The *second volume* is divided into two parts, and treats of the following subjects: "Monks, nuns, friars, hermits, novices, lay-brothers, lay-sisters, and servants." In describing the habitudes and manners of these people, Mr. Fosbrooke fills his pages with unconnected extracts and laconic remarks; but sometimes he adduces a few apposite and illustrative observations, which evince the possession of genius and talents, that ought to have been more and better exerted in this performance. At page 8 in the present volume, we unexpectedly find, a few desultory remarks on "Monachism," which, says our author, "was an institution founded upon the first principles of religious virtue, wrongly understood and wrongly directed. Superstition has its basis in the will, and therefore monachism never succeeded but when it was an act of volition. As soon as its duties became mechanical operations, the work was performed, and the principle disregarded, while the heart, left open to the world, was constantly prompting those aberrations, which naturally result from the opposition of sentiment to duty. Shame is of no avail, where security is to be gained from copartnery, evasion, or secrecy. Hence the vices of the monks; gluttony, the grand crime, is the natural pleasure of those who are debarred from other enjoyments, whether by physical or moral causes. What these crimes were, in the greater part, the *'Inquirenda circa conventum'* of Henry's visitors will show. These were, of what rule? of what age? what vows? what local statutes? whether of good company and living? whether defamed for incontinence, apostasy, paed-rastia, heresy, treason, perjury, or any noted crime? Whether possessed of pro-

perty unknown to the superior? Whether they carry on any bargaining, chevisaunce, or such worldie business for their own profits?" &c. and various other enquiries of a similar kind. The author afterwards answers most of these questions, by adducing numerous instances, stories, and relations, to prove the excessive vices of the monks; who are depicted in all the glare of infamy, and without one atom of goodness or virtue.

This volume contains an account of the principal monastic offices. "Emendations of Bishop Gibson's version of the Saxon chronicle." "The triumphs of vengeance, or the court of Julian, an ode." And, what the author very improperly calls, "observations on certain parts of this work."

We cannot discover the propriety of introducing the ode, or the emendations, as they have no connection or affinity with the avowed object of the work. But we have already extended this article to a considerable length, and must content ourselves with a few concluding observations. By the preceding account it will be seen, that Mr. Fosbrooke deserves our commendations for bringing forward some curious and original information, on a subject intimately connected with the history and antiquities of Britain, but that he has subjected his readers to much inconvenience, embarrassment, and difficulty, from the ambiguity of his style, and the want of perspicuous, or luminous arrangement of his materials. Respecting the first, he apologizes in his preface, by stating, that "to my style I could not give elegance, because I had to translate most motley materials, and did not choose to destroy precision and particularity by generalizing my language; however, I have endeavoured to render the work as pleasing as I could, and certainly am entitled to credit, inasmuch as I may have contributed somewhat to check that spirit of monachism and popery, which has lately been revived." Admitting the difficulty of giving elegance to his style, we cannot readily admit any apology for the careless indifference which appears in the following passages. "Though it saves me from occasional localities springing up, unnoticed by me, by no means establishes the principle," &c. "No one was to leave the congregation without leave." "They had no leave to send any one to

any place." "While the boys conversed with the abbot or prior, in *confession*, no one could call any of the *confessed* to *confession*."

In a note appended to this work, Mr. Fosbrooke announces "A history of Gloucestershire," which we shall be glad

to see; and hope the gentlemen of that county will facilitate his labours by prompt and ample communication: but we must beg Mr. F. to give his readers, *better printing* and *better paper*, than appear in this work; also a *complete index*, and *cheaper volumes*.

ART. II. *The Beauties of England and Wales; or Delineations topographical, historical, and descriptive, of each County: Embellished with Engravings.* By JOHN BRITTON and EDWARD WEDLAKE BRAYLEY. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 574. 25 plates.

FROM the absurd, because inadequate title of this book, "the Beauties of England and Wales," we had prepared ourselves for a surfeit of that picturesque and sentimental cant, by which, for the last twenty years, the public taste has been vitiated and enfeebled. In this expectation, however, we have been happily disappointed; and it gives us sincere pleasure to be able to announce a work of real sterling merit. We shall, therefore, make no apology for a somewhat extended account of the present publication, in which we shall set forth plainly and explicitly, such of its merits and defects as have come under our notice.

There is, perhaps, no country whose topography, antiquities, statistics, agriculture, and natural history, have been investigated with so much diligence and minuteness as those of England and Wales. Our county histories, our voluminous descriptions even of towns and single parishes, our innumerable tours of various merit, and other published memorials illustrative of the present or former state of our native country, are, from their magnitude, their numbers, and their expence, equally beyond the limits of a moderate income to purchase, and of a moderate leisure to read. The importance of the topic, and the almost universal interest with which books of this description are perused, occasion continual additions to this already extended branch of English literature, so that no small thanks are due to those, who, by a judicious expenditure of their time and abilities, select and arrange with taste and skill, out of this heterogeneous mass, whatever may contribute best to the instruction and amusement of the public.

The two first volumes of the work before us, include Bedfordshire, Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Cambridge-

shire, Cheshire, and Cornwall; as these however, were published anterior to 1802, the notice of them does not fall within our plan: from a cursory perusal they appear to be on a *par* as to manner and matter with the third volume. This contains the county of Cumberland, the Isle of Man, and Derbyshire

The description of Cumberland is introduced by a clear and succinct view of its history, from the Roman invasion to the union of the Scottish and English crowns. As this county was upon the frontier of the two rival kingdoms, alternately possessed by the English and Scottish monarchs, the devastations committed within its boundaries were, perhaps, greater than those experienced by any of the adjacent counties. The principal of these are enumerated, and present us with a bloody, though interesting catalogue of martial exploits.

To the history succeeds an account of the boundaries of Cumberland, its dimensions, population, civil and ecclesiastical divisions, &c. The agriculture, soil, buildings, and manufactures, are next noticed; and these are followed by a list of the minerals. The mineralogy, however, is very defective; no mention being made of the carbonated barytes of Aldston moor, or of the beautiful specimens of sulphated barytes, with which this county has supplied almost every extensive cabinet in the kingdom. On that most important subject, the geology, or composition of the mountains, it was in vain, in the present low state of mineralogical science in this country, to expect much satisfaction, yet the fine slates which Dr. Watson has ably described in his essays, ought not to have been entirely omitted.

The picturesque description of the lakes and mountains is, in our opinion, too long, and disfigured by perpetual

quotations. The authors should have been aware of the exaggerating spirit of almost all tourists, and have kept in mind, for it is impossible that they should be ignorant of it, how utterly hopeless is the attempt to convey to the mind, through any other medium than that of painting, a vivid, and at the same time correct image of natural scenery. An account of the rivers closes the general description of the county.

Among the towns and parishes, Carlisle, the capital, occupies the first place, and is treated of considerably at large. The etymology of its name, and a history of the hostile attempts which it either repelled or yielded to, including its siege and surrender in the rebellion of 1745, are narrated in a perspicuous and satisfactory manner: the topography and public buildings, including the cathedral, are next noticed; to which succeeds an important and interesting relation of the trade, manufactures, and other statistical particulars, which we shall extract for the information of our readers.

"The population and building of Carlisle and its suburbs, have increased in a very rapid manner during the preceding century; but the augmentation has been principally made within the last forty years. In 1763 the inhabitants were enumerated with much care under the direction of Bishop Lyttleton, and their number was then found to be 4158. In 1780 another survey was made under the direction of Dr. Heysham, and the number then returned was 6299 inhabitants, and 891 houses. A third enumeration was made in 1796, superintended by the editors of the history of Cumberland, and the result was 8516 inhabitants, and 1293 houses. The last survey was made under the population act, during the year 1801, and the inhabitants were found to have increased to 10221; viz. 4679 males, and 5542 females; the number of houses was 1338.

"This astonishing augmentation may be attributed to three causes: the general prevalence of inoculation for the small-pox; the salubrity of the air and situation, evinced by the number of deaths not exceeding one out of thirty persons annually; and the introduction and increase of the various branches of the cotton manufacture. The progress of trade, and of the general improvement of Carlisle, is detailed at considerable length in the history of Cumberland, from which we shall abridge some particulars on this subject.

"Soon after the rebellion in the year 1745, a company of Hamburg merchants fixed upon Carlisle as a convenient place for an extensive woollen manufactory, and two gentlemen, brothers, were sent over to super-

intend the work. In this establishment all the different branches, from the sheep-shearing to the finishing the pieces of broad and plain cloths, were performed. For some time every loom that could be got was engaged, and the undertaking flourished greatly; but the elder brother, who had been the chief conductor of the business, at length died, and, by the imprudent conduct of the survivor, the company was declared insolvent; no person could be found willing to risk a second failure, the establishment was therefore given up, and all the effects sold by auction.

"At this period the roads in the vicinity of Carlisle were impassable to carriages for several months of the year, and the intercourse with distant towns was by this means greatly impeded: goods were chiefly brought to the city upon pack-horses. The neighbouring farmers were also so slothful, or ignorant, that the corporation were obliged to pay an annual salary, and supply an occasional new cart, to have the manure removed from the streets. A few whips and fish-hooks, and a small quantity of linen, were the only articles manufactured for sale.

"About the year 1750 a small manufactory of coarse linen cloth, called Osnaburghs, was established; and also a new woollen-manufactory; but the latter was of short duration, and hardly any person has since attempted to revive the business. The roads were now repaired, or new ones made; and the lands contiguous to the city were better cultivated. The manure began to be in request; and its value has so progressively increased, that it is now sold by the corporation for fifty pounds on the average, annually.

"Between 1750 and 1755 several manufactories for spinning and weaving cotton and linen were established; and the population began to augment by the settlement of many weavers from Scotland and Ireland. The inhabitants began to acquire riches, and every year houses were rebuilt in a more convenient and elegant manner. In 1756 a brewery was commenced in the suburbs, but was for some time in a declining state. A year or two afterwards the streets were paved, and various nuisances removed; and in 1759 a post-chaise was for the first time sent from an inn of this city. The increasing opulence of the inhabitants was also marked by the erection of a neat assembly-room.

"In the year 1761 various new works were established: a company from Newcastle began the calico-printing business, which has progressively increased ever since, and now furnishes employment for many hundred of men, women, and children. Land began to rise in value; wages became higher, and provisions dearer. Before this time eightpence, or ten-pence per day was as much as a labourer could earn; and a woman must have been exceedingly industrious with her wheel, to have obtained more than one shil-

ling a week: the wages of children were proportionable.

"On the establishment of the calico-manufactory, the exertions of individuals were better remunerated; the women were engaged to pencil the colours into the different pieces; at each table three or four female children were employed, and the youngest could earn eighteen-pence, or two shillings weekly. This encouragement induced a number of families, from distant parts of the country, to settle in the city; and so great was the alteration, that a common labourer, who, with his wife's assistance, could scarcely have obtained eight shillings weekly, was now able to earn between twenty and thirty. The buildings were increased, and the general state and appearance of the city much amended.

"Previous to this period the principal part of the manufacturing business was chiefly confined to a few check and Osnaburgh looms, but cotton looms were now set up; and machinery for carding, roving, and spinning of cotton, was erected in various parts of the neighbourhood of the city. At the present time there are four print fields, which employ about a 1000 persons, and pay upwards of £20,000*l.* to the revenue annually. Besides these there are eight other manufactories; and some of them execute every branch, from preparing of the raw materials, to the completion of checks, calicoes, muslins, and all kinds of fancy work. The brewery before-mentioned has become established, and three others have also been erected: a soap manufactory has likewise been built; and so greatly has the trade of the city increased, that the duty paid on licences and excisable articles amounts to more than 110,000*l.* yearly. The growing importance of Carlisle is evinced by the establishment of two banks, both of which have been opened within a few preceding years."

Of the remarkable occurrences that have happened in Carlisle, only two are noticed: the one a slight shock of an earthquake in 1786; the other, the birth of a living child without a brain. The description of Carlisle is closed by a short notice of the principal remains of antiquity that have from time to time been discovered there.

The account of Netherby, the seat of the Grahams, forms a peculiarly interesting article, to which, however, the works of Mr. Gilpin and Pennant have largely contributed. In the description of Naworth castle, we meet with a long extract from Mr. Warner's northern tour, containing an interesting sketch of the character of Lord William Howard, one of its former occupants.

"This nobleman being made warden of

the borders by Elizabeth, and appointed to controul and chastise the *moss-troopers*, whose devastations were such as to awaken the notice of government, he prepared himself for the unthankful office, by strengthening his castle, and securing his own apartments in every possible manner, to prevent attack from without, and filling it with 140 soldiers, to enable him to carry on his offensive operations. A winding staircase, dark and narrow, admitting only one person to ascend at a time; guarded by a succession of strong doors plated with iron, which on their massive hinges turning, *grated harsh thunder*, and when shut, defied all human strength to open, led to the rooms which he occupied; a library, a chapel, and a bed-chamber. The first apartment is like all the other rooms, small, dark, and inconvenient; the situation sufficiently secluded, and secure, at the top of the tower, which contained his own suite of apartments. The roof is rudely carved, and the windows far above the head. Here we have a proof of this nobleman's attachment to letters, in a vast number of books, chiefly of controversial divinity, legendary history, and early translations of the classics; many of them inscribed in the first page with the hand of Lord William, in very good writing. Some manuscripts of no great antiquity are among the volumes; particularly a great wooden case, above a yard in height, containing three leaves, in each of which are 100 pages of vellum fairly written with the legend of Joseph of Arimathea. In this cell Lord William is said to have consumed a great part of his time, nourishing his natural severity by silent solitude. To interrupt these hours of seclusion, was an offence cautiously avoided by the domestics, particularly as one intrusion has been attended with fatal effects.

"His lordship was one day deeply engaged among his schoolmen or fathers, when a soldier, who had captured an unfortunate moss-trooper, burst into the apartment, to acquaint his master with the circumstance, and enquire what should be done with the captive. 'Hang the fellow!' said Lord William, peevishly; an expression intended to convey no other meaning than displeasure to this intrusion upon his privacy. The servant, however, accustomed to the most implicit obedience, immediately construed this passionate expression into a command; and a few hours afterwards, when Lord William directed the fellow to be brought before him for examination, he was told, that, in compliance with his orders, the man had been hanged.

"The government of Lord William produced a wonderful change in the lawless manners of the surrounding district, and introduced a degree of security, where every thing before had been violence and licentiousness. The means employed were, however, of the harshest kind, as the modes of imprisonment and punishment fully evince.



Prompt execution on a lofty gallows followed the hearing of his dreadful tribunal; and till his leisure allowed investigation, the prisoners were confined in the dungeons; four horrible apartments, that still exhibit the rings to which criminals were chained, to secure them during the dreadful interval that passed between capture and death."

In tracing the monumental records of past ages, the authors have preserved a happy medium between that rage for collecting which descends to copy tombstones, and that neglect which passes over without notice, even such national antiquities as illustrate the history and customs of the country. A laudable attention is paid to those arrangements of unhewn stone, which, though erected at different periods, and by different races of people, have long been and are still vulgarly confounded under the vague appellation of druidical remains. One of the largest really druidical circles in the kingdom is that near little Salkeld called Long Meg and her daughters, which is thus described by the editors.

"This is an extensive circular arrangement of unhewn and rude stones, the circumference measuring nearly 350 yards. The entire circle consists of sixty-seven stones, of very unequal heights and irregular forms, but mostly approaching to that of the parallelepipedon: some are extremely massive, being from twelve to fifteen feet in girth, and almost ten feet high; while others are of various intermediate sizes, down to the height of only two or three feet, and of proportionable bulk. The stones are chiefly at regular distances, excepting at the sides fronting the east, west, and north points, where, between two stones of somewhat greater magnitude than the rest, the spaces are rather larger, as if intended for entrances to the inclosed area. Opposite the stones forming the south-west entrance are two others, placed without the circle, so as to make a kind of square recess, or portal; and at about seventeen yards further is the stone called *Long Meg*, the height of which is eighteen feet, and its greatest girth nearly fourteen: it is of a square form, tapering upwards: its substance is a red grit, or free-stone, of a similar kind to that procured in a quarry at Crawdundale, a few miles distant. The substances of the other stones are different; some are of flint, others of blue and white lya, and many of granite: these must have been brought from a considerable distance, as none of the same quality or dimensions can be found in any part of the adjacent country: but not the least mark of a tool appears on any of them.

"This is one of the most extensive druidical circles in the kingdom, and its antiquity

is, perhaps, as great: it exhibits an example of immense labour, and may be considered as having been, in remote ages, the chief centre of congregation for this part of the island. The area within the circle is now cultivated, and intersected by the boundaries of two inclosures: it commands an extensive tract of country, especially to the south, where the view is limited only by the distant mountains."

Workington, Cockermouth, Egremont, Keswick, and Whitehaven, are ably and satisfactorily described. The authors appear to have exerted much laudable industry in the collection of authentic materials, and have arranged them in a lucid and agreeable order. A short analysis of these articles would display but very imperfectly their contents; therefore, as a sample of the whole we shall select the beginning of the description of Whitehaven.

"The effects of trade, industry, and enterprise, have scarcely ever been so strikingly exemplified, as in the rise, progress, and increasing importance, of this rich and flourishing town. From an obscure hamlet to the village of St. Bees, it has become, in the course of little more than a century and a half, of considerably greater magnitude than many cities; and, both in extent of buildings, and in population, by far exceeds the capital of this county. Its rapid advancement to prosperity will be easily conceived, when it is stated, that in the year 1566, it consisted only of six fishermen's cabins, and a small bark; in 1633, of nine or ten thatched cottages; in 1693, its buildings were sufficiently numerous for 2272 inhabitants; in twenty-two years afterwards, for 4000: in the year 1785, its population amounted to 16,400; but since this period there has been some considerable variation; yet as the numbers returned under the late act do not appear to be correct, we forbear to state them. The increase of shipping has been equally progressive: in 1685, the whole number of vessels belonging to the port was forty-six, exclusive of boats; in 1772, they amounted to 197; in 1790, to 216; and have since increased to about 230: the quantity of tonnage is nearly 74,000 tons.

"The honour of raising this town to its present high importance must be given to the *Lowther* family, by one of whom, Sir John Lowther, knight, the lands of the dissolved monastery of St. Bees were purchased for his second son, Sir Christopher, about the commencement of the reign of Charles the first. At this period the use of coals first became general; and it seems that Sir Christopher conceived the idea of making his possessions productive, by opening some collieries; but no considerable progress was made till after the restoration, when Sir John Lowther, who had succeeded to the estates, form-

ed a plan for working the mines on a very extensive scale; and that all opposition to his intended series of operations might be prevented, he procured a grant of all the ungranted lands within the district. This was in the year 1636. Two years afterwards he obtained a further accession of property, by the gift of the whole sea coast for two miles northward, between high and low water mark. Sir John now directed his attention to the port, which was neither large nor convenient, and, by his judicious schemes, laid the foundation of the present haven. It has since been greatly improved, particularly during the last reign, when an act was obtained to perfect, and keep it in repair, by a tonnage on shipping.

"This haven is protected by several piers or moles of stonework; three of them project in parallel lines from the land; a fourth, bending in the form of a crescent, has a watch-house and battery, and at its extremity a light-house. At low water the port is dry, and the shipping within the moles lie as in dry docks. The coal *staith*, or magazine, adjoins the harbour on the west side of the town: here, on an under floor, sufficiently extensive to contain about 3000 waggon loads, the coals are deposited when there are no ships ready to receive them. The method of delivering the coals into the vessels is singular: the greatest part of the road from the pits is on a gentle descent, along which railways are laid, which communicate with covered galleries terminating in large flues, or *hurries*, placed sloping over the quay. When the waggons are loaded, they run by their own weight on the rail-way, from the pit to the staith, where the waggon bottoms striking out, the coals fall into the *hurries*, whence they are discharged into the holds of the ships, rattling down with a noise like thunder. Each waggon is guided from the pits by one man: and where the descent is so steep that the motion becomes too rapid, he retards it by pressing down one of the wheels with a piece of wood, called the *convoy*, which is fixed to the waggon for that purpose. When the waggons are emptied, they are carried round by a turn frame, and drawn back to the pits by a single horse, along another road. Eight or ten vessels, from an hundred to one hundred and twenty tons burthen each, are commonly laden at one tide, and on extraordinary occasions, twelve: the expence of loading is ten shillings per vessel. Most of the coal exported from this haven is conveyed to Ireland: the quantity raised annually, on the average of twenty years, is about 90,000 chaldrons."

After the towns, villages, parishes, castles, and seats, have thus been noticed according to their relative importance, the account of Cumberland closes with a well written and extremely interesting

sketch of the manners and customs that characterize the inhabitants.

"The effect of adventitious circumstances on human conduct is strikingly illustrated by the peculiar customs observed in Cumberland, and by the great difference in the manners of those of its inhabitants whom local situation has confined to particular districts. The variation in the latter respect is, indeed, so considerable, that the Cumbrians may be divided into four classes, each distinguished by a peculiar and independent character. In this division, the first class will comprehend the descendants of those fierce borderers, who for centuries were in the habit of gratifying every lawless inclination, by deeds of rapine and plunder; and whose unyielding spirits were hardly ameliorated till the period of the union with Scotland. The present generation, though more completely civilized, still retains that fearless resolution, and sort of savage courage; in dangerous enterprises, which distinguished their hardy ancestors. They bear the greatest fatigue with patience: live contented on homely fare; and are still so zealous of independence, that an officer of justice does not attempt to secure a violator of any of the penal laws, in the presence of his countrymen, without feeling some apprehensions of danger. Robberies or murders are not often committed; and, in general, the individuals of this class are religiously exact in avoiding those actions which they conceive to be criminal; but, from that loose kind of morality incumbent on vague principles, smuggling, and over-reaching in buying and selling, are seldom included among the proscribed practices. Many of them are dealers in horses and cattle, and are said to neglect no opportunity of deceiving in the way of their vocation. The residence of this class of Cumbrians is in the vicinity of Scotland: their general behaviour is rude and coarse, but their hospitality to strangers free-spirited and liberal.

"The individuals who compose the second class, occupy a more genial soil in the open, cultivated part of the county, which, from being intersected by the principal roads, has admitted of more intercourse with the rest of the kingdom; and the inhabitants, in consequence, have acquired habits more refined, but less hospitable. Here the manners are not particularly variable from those of many other parts of England.

"The third class includes the happy people, who inhabit the peaceful dales shut up among the mountains, where labour and health go hand in hand, and luxury and discord have had little opportunity of extending their baneful influence. The behaviour of this class is modest, unaffected, and humble; and their civility to the traveller, who visits their delightful retreats, is the pure emanation of nature and honesty, being neither ac-

accompanied by the expectation of profit, nor attended by that prying species of curiosity, which renders proffered services unacceptable. Their chief occupation is tending their bleating flocks upon the hills; and such is the confidence reposed in individual integrity, that in some vales of the southern district, the exchange of strayed sheep is only regularly made once in each year. This is on St. Martin's day, when every farmer, who has any in his possession, attends at the place appointed, and delivers them to the respective owners, without expence. The meeting concludes with a feast on roast geese and ale. Among these villagers, honesty is the only qualification requisite to entitle its possessor to the best company: and so accustomed are they to consider mankind as equal, that the *Lord* of a manor will cordially associate with even the meanest workman who has preserved his character," &c.

The description of the Isle of Man succeeds that of Cumberland; and is, to us, the most interesting part of the whole volume. It is introduced by a history of the internal revolutions, and the hostile or friendly transactions with the kings of Denmark, Norway, Ireland, Scotland, and England, in which this little sovereignty has been concerned, from the earliest records to the present time. To this succeeds a brief account of the constitution of the island, and the most important changes that it has undergone. The legislature is at present fourfold, and consists of the governor, the governor's council, the two deemsters or judges, and the house of keys; and without the concurrence of these four constituted authorities no new laws can be promulgated.

The house of keys consists of twenty-four members, formerly elected by the people, but since the year 1450 they have held their places for life, and in the event of any vacancy, the house presents two names to the governor, who is bound out of these to select the new member.

The produce of the island is chiefly barley, potatoes, butter, sheep, and cattle. A small breed of wild swine, called *purrs*, is also still met with in the central and mountainous districts. A few manufactures of coarse cotton and linen goods, to the amount of about 5,000*l.* are annually exported to England: but the principal trade arises from the produce of the herring fishery. The fleet of fishing boats belonging to the island is composed of nearly 500 sail; the ave-

rage burden of each is about eight tons, navigated by six men. A salmon fishery of considerable importance is also carried on. The Manks still retain a large portion of the superstition of their forefathers; but the admirable institution of parochial libraries and schools, which owe their origin to Bishop Wilson and Dr. Bray, will, no doubt, in time, afford an effectual remedy to these errors. The population in 1726 amounted scarcely to 14,000; at present the number of inhabitants is estimated to exceed 30,000.

The most remarkable building in the island is Castle Rushen, built by the Danish prince Guttred in the year 960, and the royal residence of most of the succeeding kings of the island. The adjoining town, called Castletown, is still the seat of government: here the house of keys assembles, and the law courts are established. Douglas, however, is the most populous town in the island: it is possessed of a tolerable harbour, and is the principal fishing station.

The antiquities of the Isle of Man are very numerous, consisting chiefly of entrenchments, barrows, and Runic inscriptions.

The latter half of the volume before us is occupied by the account of Derbyshire. Its arrangement is similar to that of Cumberland, which has been already explained, and, therefore, need not be repeated. The agricultural reports, and other respectable authorities, have been had recourse to for a concise, yet interesting, sketch of the soil and rural economy of the county: and the works of Pilkington, Whitehurst, Faujas St. Fond, Mawe, &c. have furnished ample and authentic materials for its mineralogy, a most important department, which is treated of, upon the whole, in a very satisfactory manner.

Derby, the capital of the county, is described considerably at length, and forms a curious and very entertaining article. It includes, besides the usual topographical notices, a particular account of the silk-mill established here by Mr. John Lombe, of the porcelain manufacture, and of the apparatus and processes for cutting and polishing the alabasters, gypsums, and fluor spars, of Derbyshire. Those two eminent men, Flamstead, the astronomer, and Wright, the painter, were natives of this town; the editors have, therefore, properly in-

produced here a short, but characteristic, sketch of their discoveries and peculiar merits.

The subterranean wonders of Derbyshire, including the vast natural excavations, and the most remarkable and extensive of the mines, have been by most tourists and topographers so exaggerated and distorted, and so sedulously arrayed in fictitious terrors, as to set all truth and probability at defiance. This, however, is not the case in the work before us. The authors appear to have described all these striking objects from actual inspection, and with a resolution to show, by the force of contrast, how infinitely more satisfactory and sublime is a simple and perspicuous representation of nature, than the wildest inventions of romancing travellers. As an example of the really terrific, we shall select the following narrative of an event that occurred in the year 1797:

"Two miners, named Job Boden and Anthony Pearson, went into the mine on the morning of the 13th of January, and while they were at work, Pearson at the depth of forty-four yards, and Boden at the depth of sixty, the earth above them, together with a quantity of water, suddenly rushed in, and filled the mine to the depth of about fifty-four yards. The other miners began immediately to draw out the rubbish in search of their lost companions, and on the third day after, Pearson was discovered dead, in an upright posture. The miners would now have discontinued their exertions, as there seemed little probability of their labours being of any avail; but, being encouraged to proceed (chiefly by the influence and persuasions of Charles Hurt, esq. of Wirksworth), they at length discovered Boden, about three o'clock in the morning of the 20th; and, though he had not received any kind of nourishment during the eight days of his confinement, he was still living, but greatly emaciated. On being taken out, and treated with proper care, he so far recovered, as to be able to return to his work in the space of fourteen weeks, and is now alive and well, having several children, one of whom was born within a twelvemonth after the accident.

"To render the particulars of this extraordinary escape more intelligible, it should be observed, that the entrance to the mine is by a perpendicular shaft, forty-four yards deep, from the bottom of which extends a *gait*, or *drift* (a passage in an horizontal direction), eight yards in length, at the end of which descends a second shaft (or, as the miners term it, a *turn*), to the depth of sixteen yards. At the bottom of this is another gait, about twelve yards in length, from the extremity of

which another shaft extends to the depth of nearly twenty-four yards. At the top of every shaft a windlass was placed, for the purpose of drawing up whatever might be extracted from the mine; and Pearson's employment was to draw up to the top of the second shaft, the ore, &c. that was obtained by Boden at the bottom.

"At the distance of seventy yards from the entrance to the mine was a pool of water, which, though generally containing but a small quantity, had, at the time of the accident, been much increased through wet weather. The ground between the mine and the pool had been undermined in searching for lead ore; and it is supposed that the additional weight of water over the security, had forced down the earth, which filled the mine to the depth of ten yards in the second shaft. As the earth that rushed in descended below Pearson's station at the mouth of this shaft, he was consequently jammed in there, and was discovered dead, as already mentioned. The remarkable circumstance, that the rubbish did not sink into the mine so low as to reach Boden, but stopped in its descent a few yards above him, may, in some measure, be accounted for by observing, that the part of the mine where its fall ended, was somewhat straitened by the projection of a large stone, an obstacle which Boden had often ineffectually attempted to remove.

"It appears, from a conversation lately held with the man thus strangely preserved from death, that, after contemplating his horrid situation awhile, during the first hours of his imprisonment, he lay down and slept. On awaking, the idea of perishing for want of food rushed upon his mind, and he recollected that he had four pounds of candles with him in the mine: with these, when pressed by hunger, he endeavoured to appease his appetite; but after two or three vain attempts to swallow such loathsome food, he desisted; and the candles were found after his release: his thirst, which he had no means of alleviating, was excessive. Feeling extremely cold, he tried to remove this inconvenience by exercising himself in turning the windlass at the further end of the drift; but having the misfortune to let the handle fall into the shaft below, he was deprived of this resource.

"After the space of three or four days, as he imagines, being almost in a state of distraction, he ascended, by means of a rope that hung down, to that part of the mine where the rubbish had stopped in its descent, and, by labouring hard, caused a large quantity of it to fall to the bottom of the shaft. He was employed in this manner, when, at length, he heard the miners at work above him, and by the expedient of knocking with a stone, contrived to apprise them that he was still alive. Though it is evident, from this circumstance, that he retained his senses, he can hardly be persuaded that he was not

deprived of them, and fancies that he was prompted to make the signals by some friendly voice, receiving from it an assurance, that if he did so, he should be rescued from his dreadful prison.

"The signals which he made were heard by the miners about eight hours before they reached him; and he describes himself as so much terrified by their noise, and by apprehensions that persons were coming to murder him, that he should certainly have destroyed himself, if he had not been closely confined by the earth which he had drawn down, and which so filled the lower part of the shaft, that he was almost prevented from moving. In the midst of the panic that agitated him, he swallowed a considerable quantity of earth, which was afterwards expelled by proper remedies. He complained most that his legs were benumbed and dead; but their natural heat being restored by friction, no bad consequence ensued. When the accident happened, he was forty-nine years of age, and then weighed upwards of twelve stone; but imagines that he was reduced to half that weight by his confinement in the mine; yet, as he was not weighed, this cannot be affirmed with certainty. The anniversary of his deliverance from his subterraneous prison, he regards as a day of thankfulness and jubilee; and surely few individuals have ever had more reason than this man to express their gratitude to a protecting Providence."

The picturesque beauties of Derbyshire are found principally in the glens and narrow vallies, through which rush the mountain torrents of the Peak in their passage to the Trent. The scenery on the Derwent at Matlock, and the varied charms of Dovedale, have been repeatedly described, though the most laboured and accurate description cannot but fall infinitely short of the delightful originals. By way of giving our readers a short specimen of the style of the authors, we shall select the following account of Monsaldale:

"Between Tideswell and Ashford is a road which runs through Litton, and winds beneath the elevated lands that form the northern boundary of MONSALDALE. The scenery of this sequestered retreat is in some places romantic; but its general character is picturesque beauty, which it possesses in a most enchanting degree. Near the head of the Dale, the rocks jut out on the south side, like the immense towers of a strong fortress, having the stream of the Wye sportively flowing at their feet. Lower down, the crags soften into verdure, the Dale expands, and the eye dwells enraptured on the rich prospect that presents itself. The mountainous banks on each side are partially diver-

sified with fine masses of wood, which occasionally slope down to the margin of the river, and wave their pendant branches over its translucent waters. In other places, the grey colour of the rocks is beautifully harmonized by shrubs, underwood, and green turf, which intermix their varying tints, and increase the general richness of the scenery. More distant, the bosom of the Dale spreads wider; and the stream softly meanders through luxuriant meadows, having its margin occupied by a small farm-house, partly concealed by trees, and, with its accompaniments of a rustic wooden bridge, broken rocks, &c. composing a very picturesque scene. The back ground is formed by a steep precipice, variegated by short herbage and brushwood, with occasionally a starting rock breaking its continuity of surface. On ascending this eminence, and looking back from its brow upon the Dale, the sight is delighted by one of the most beautiful views that the plastic hand of nature ever arranged. Wood, water, and rock, intermingle in the prospect, and so happily combine with the fertile meads that spread immediately beneath the eye in strong contrast with the barren heights to the right and left, that imagination itself could hardly pourtray a scene more lovely. At some little distance from the point where the course of the river is concealed by a projecting hill, its waters form a natural and not uninteresting cascade."

A few instances of error and bad taste have been already pointed out, nor ought we to pass over in silence some others that have obtruded themselves on our notice. These are principally certain inaccuracies, perhaps arising from oversight and haste, such as "*tractless*" for *trackless*; "*the number of representatives are six*;" "*one pair are sufficient*," &c. We have also remarked an instance of mistranslation, which a very moderate knowledge of the Latin language ought to have rendered impossible, "*permansit fidelis*. He *passed through, faithful*." At page 96 is another strange instance of ignorance: "*Dis manibus*," the commencement of a Roman monumental inscription, being rendered, "*by the favour of the gods*."

We could, with pleasure, enlarge our account of this excellent work, but our limits oblige us to draw towards a conclusion. Two things more, however, in its praise we must remark: first, that at the end of each volume there is a copious and useful account of the principal books, maps, and views, that have been published in illustration of the topography and antiquities of the several coun-



ties; and secondly, that the engravings for the most part well chosen, and ably with which the work is ornamented are executed.

**ART. III.** *Figures of Mosaic Pavements discovered at Horkstow, in Lincolnshire.*

**ART. IV.** *Remains of Two Temples, and other Roman Antiquities, discovered at Bath.*  
By SAMUEL LYSONS. Parts 1 and 2, large folio, with several Plates. pp. 16, in two Parts.

HOWEVER numerous or considerable may have been the *Roman buildings* in England, not one has escaped the ravages of time or accident: and what fragments have been discovered, are mostly of a military character. A few traces of *public baths*, and a few remains of *villas*, have been occasionally rescued from the earth: these, with many mutilated figures, statues, tessellated pavements, votive altars, and funeral inscriptions, are the principal vestiges of this once powerful and proud people, in our island. It is a common, but, we believe, fallacious opinion, as relating to the British-Romans, that they erected splendid edifices, and indulged in many elegant conveniences, and luxurious comforts. But when we know, that very few solid remains of extraordinary structures have ever been discovered, and that, as military despots, they were obliged to preserve security and subsistence by great vigilance, we may safely infer, that they could not have much time or opportunity to pursue the polite arts, or cultivate the pleasures of refined civilization. A few of their permanent stations were certainly adorned with *comfortable* houses, and *ornamented* edifices; fragments of which have been obtained at Bath, Leicester, Canterbury, St. Albans, Dover, &c. Many learned and ingenious authors have written on these subjects; but as none of them knew the principles of drawing, or employed correct draughtsmen, all their works are very deficient in the essential article of *faithful* representations. Governor Pownall and Mr. Warner have described and descanted on the Roman antiquities of Bath, but the plates in their works are extremely inaccurate and tasteless. This rendered a correct publication a desideratum: which Mr. Lysons has attempted to supply in the second part of his "*Reliquiæ Romanæ*."

This gentleman has commenced a new work; and offers the above two parts as specimens of his plan, and style

of execution. In this publication he proposes, as he informs us in the advertisement, "to exhibit figures of the most remarkable Roman antiquities discovered in Great Britain, under the title of *RELIQUIÆ ROMANÆ*, to be published in separate parts, four of which will make a volume. With the fourth part will be given a general title page and table of contents."

"The third part will contain ten plates, representing several Mosaic pavements discovered near Frampton, in Dorsetshire. Of a work of this kind it is impossible to ascertain the extent, as that must, in a great measure, depend on future discoveries."

The first part contains seven plates, and four pages of letter press, comprising a very brief description of the plates. These are, "a view of Horkstow hall, in Lincolnshire, shewing the situation of the Mosaic pavement discovered there." "A map of the country round Horkstow, shewing the Roman remains in that neighbourhood, with a plan of Horkstow hall and garden." "One of the compartments of the great Mosaic pavement discovered at Horkstow." "Central compartment of the same." "The design of the whole pavement restored." And "fragment of another Mosaic pavement discovered at Horkstow."

"The village of Horkstow," observes our author, 'is pleasantly situated under a range of hills, which, for the space of several miles, form the eastern boundary of the flat country, through which the river Ankholt runs at the distance of about a mile and a half south of the river Humber.' The Mosaic pavement, which constitutes the subject of this publication, was 'accidentally discovered in the year 1796, near Horkstow hall, at the depth of about three-feet below the surface of the ground. Roman coins had been found, several years before, near the same spot.'

"Several Mosaic pavements, and other Roman antiquities, have been found at Winterton and Roxby, each about four miles from Horkstow hall."

"Considerable\* Roman remains have also been discovered at Broughton, about eight miles from the same place, and at Hibaldstow, about four miles farther. One of these last mentioned places is supposed, by Horsley, to have been the station Prætorium in the first iter of Antonine's itinerary."

In the advertisement to the second part, which relates to the Roman antiquities of Bath, Mr. Lysons observes, "my chief aim has been to present figures of these interesting remains, drawn with the most scrupulous accuracy: and I am happy to say, that I can with confidence offer them as such, having been so fortunate as to obtain the able assistance of Mr. Robert Smirke, jun. by whom the whole of the architectural parts have been carefully measured and drawn."

This part contains twelve plates, which are neatly engraved, in the aquatinta style, by Mr. W. Daniell, and are very different and distinct from the plates in the first part. In the latter they represent tessellated pavements only, but in the former they all relate to architectural ornaments, as will be seen by the following list of the subjects which are engraved. "Fragments of a column, and of a cornice and frieze:" also, "of the temple of MINERVA, and its portico, and the temple of SULMINERVA." Plates 8 and 9 are of "various Roman antiquities," and 10, 11, and 12, of "various Roman inscriptions." In some of the plates Mr. L. has represented parts of the buildings as he supposes they originally appeared when standing; and, in a vignette title page, he and his draughtsmen have exercised their fancy in erecting three or four temples, with a column, colonade, &c. as presumed to be when *Aquæ Solis*, or *Sulis*, was inhabited by the Romans.

"There is no ancient authority," says Mr. Lysons, "for the name of *Aquæ Solis*, except the itinerary of Antoninus, in which work many of the names of places are evidently corrupted, and many of them are allowed to be of a late date, even by those who contend for the greater antiquity of the work itself. Ptolemy calls Bath simply *Ἰδατὰ Σιγῶν*, whence it is fair to conclude, that it had not obtained the appellation of *Aquæ Solis* when he wrote. The name of *Aquæ Solis* is supposed to have been derived from Apollo

presiding over the hot waters there; but I have not been able to find any authority for this, earlier than the monkish historians of the middle ages. It is asserted by Richard of Cirencester, but in such a manner as to render his assertion of very little weight: he almost literally quotes the passage above alluded to by Solinus, with the interpolation of the name of Apollo, thus: *Ibi fontes calidi opipare exculpti apparantur ad usus mortalium; quibus fontibus præsules erant Apollinis et Minervæ numina, in quorum ædibus perpetui ignis, &c.*" It would be somewhat extraordinary, had these waters been considered by the Romans as under the patronage of Apollo, and the place called after him, that among the great number of votive altars discovered there, not one should be found dedicated to that deity, which is the case, as far as I have been able to learn; nor among the great variety of antiquities which have been discovered there, do I believe that one has been produced that can with certainty be said to relate to him."

From a consideration of these circumstances, Mr. Lysons conjectures, that the Roman name of Bath, as given by Antoninus, and adopted by all subsequent historians, might have been a corruption from *Aquæ Sulis*, implying the waters of *Minerva*, and not the waters of *Apollo*, as has been generally admitted. Mr. Warner, in his history of this fashionable city, has asserted, that, about the year 208, "a new name was imposed on the hot springs, which, instead of *Ἰδατὰ Σιγῶν*, received the appellation of *Aquæ Solis*, or waters of the sun: they were, at the same time, solemnly dedicated to *Apollo Medicus*, the deity who invented medicine, and was supposed to impart medical properties to waters, herbs, and plants. The magnificent bronze statue of this god was then also cast, and set up in the city, under his tutelage." We quote this passage from Mr. Warner, to show how positively and decidedly he writes on subjects beyond the reach of document, and how credulously he admits an assertion of an old writer, and endeavours to substantiate that assertion by fallacious reasoning. The arguments of Mr. Lysons are much more probable; though the writer of the following article has adopted the old name in preference to that proposed by our author. Had Mr. Lysons obliged us

\* Does Mr. Lysons mean, by this word, to imply considerable "as worthy of consideration," &c. or does he mean numerous? If the latter, we apprehend he might have adopted a word more appropriate and correct.

with a little more information on the above subjects, and on the domestic economy, &c. of the Romans in Aquæ Sulis, we should have felt more satisfied in the perusal of his works. A brief description of a few fragments is extremely dry and unsatisfactory; and the reader is justified in expecting more from such a veteran author and antiquary as Mr. Lysons. Besides, the *fine* style of execution, and *high price* of these works, entitle the purchaser to look for something near perfection. In proportion to his disappointment will be his complaints. If Mr. Lysons supposes his readers equally informed with himself, he imposes on them by publishing, but if he wishes to give general satisfaction, and afford useful information, he should condescend to communicate the result of his researches and enquiry. As he boasts *particularly* of the accuracy of the drawings, he should first have carefully compared them with

the originals. *This we have done;* and were disappointed and distressed in observing some evident errors: one of which is strikingly apparent in "the winged head surrounded with serpents, interwoven with locks of hair." This is very defective in drawing and character, and the serpents that appear under the chin are completely misrepresented. These may be deemed trifling defects; we admit that they are not very considerable; and admit, that Mr. Lysons' work is very far superior in *illustrative* embellishment to any thing of the kind that has been published. But we are desirous of seeing accuracy and excellence, especially in very expensive works, and those from authors of ability and fortune. We hope Mr. Lysons will be more communicative in his new topographical work, which he has long announced for publication, in conjunction with his intelligent brother.

ART. V. *An historical and descriptive Account of Bath and its Environs.* 12mo. pp. 175.

ALTHOUGH the writer of this work has not thought proper to put his name to the title page, yet it requires but little sagacity to discover him in his style and sentiments. These are strikingly characterized in the former productions of Mr. Warner; and we immediately recognise him in the first page of the present work, which, taken in the whole, is a very imperfect abridgment of his expensive quarto "History of Bath." In the present *vade mecum* the writer professes to treat of "ancient Bath, of modern Bath, of the trade and civil government, the arts and amusements of Bath," with a description "of the neighbourhood of Bath," and the "botany of the country round Bath."

When we consider the number of local guides to this city, that are already published, we feel some surprise in beholding another; especially as it presents so little novelty to the purchaser, and less useful information than some of the preceding works. Indeed we are sorry to see a book so very imperfect in its execution, and so badly digested and printed, come from an office, which, for typographic display, ranks justly among the very first of our provincial presses.

In the first thirty-three pages of the above work, we are presented with a

concise account of "ancient Bath," from its first establishment under the Romans, to the present time. The editor has judiciously rejected the fabulous story of Bladud and his pigs; yet he relates, that a belief in them "made one of the necessary qualifications for an introduction into the body corporate. But the present generation are wiser, and more prudent than their forefathers; and rather more attentive to the *value* of their springs than their origin, have at length forgotten the antiquity of their discovery, in the agreeable contemplation of the large rents which they throw into the corporation chest."

In the reign of Claudius, Mr. W. observes, a Roman colony was *first* established at Bath. But Mr. Whitaker opposes this, and contends, that Bath was not colonized till a subsequent period; and states, that this part of the country was not subdued before the year "50 of our era," which is six years after the period assigned by Mr. Warner to the origin of the town and station. Besides, it seems extremely probable, if Claudius was the first founder of a station, or town, at this place, that his name would have been recorded among some of the numerous relics that have been discovered here. But this is not the case. Mr. Warner proceeds to describe the

town and baths as established and constructed by the Romans; and gives some account of the great roads which they formed in connecting this city with "the neighbouring stations; one directing itself to *Durocorinium*, or Cirencester; another to *Verlucio* or Westbury," &c. Respecting the last station he has added a note, saying, that antiquaries are divided in opinion with respect to its situation; some conceiving it to have been at Westbury, others at Eddington, and others at Warminster. Men will ever differ in opinion respecting these subjects, if they make their calculations and deductions only from maps and descriptions. As Mr. Warner resides so near these places, it was his duty to have explored them: by which he might have been enabled to decide the controversy, and have given authoritative information in the place of conjecture. It is truly absurd to say, that *Verlucio* was at Warminster; and extremely improbable that Westbury corresponded with the distance, &c. as given by Antoninus and Richard: but the situation and distance of *Heddlington*,\* not Eddington, presents us with a union of correspondencies that seem to us decisive.

Of "modern Bath," our author gives the following description.

"The beauty and singularity of its situation are not to be exceeded: planted originally in the bottom of the narrow valley where its hot waters boil up, it continued for ages to be confined to the dimensions which the Romans had at first marked out for it; and till within these seventy years, the ancient walls (inclosing a space of about fifty acres) formed the boundaries of Bath; but the spirit of building, about that time, began to discover itself here: and being encouraged by the company which flocked to the place from all parts, and which occupied the houses as fast as they were erected, the town rapidly increased in extent, and the streets multiplied with uninterrupted vigour, till they stretched from the parent city in all directions, and formed a town above a mile and a half in length, containing a population of 30,000 souls, built of the beautiful *oolite*, or granulated egg-like freestone, which forms the basis of the surrounding hills; the houses are as remarkable for neatness as for splendour; and being thrown over the sides of the broad acclivity of Lansdown (which rises to the north,) in elegant groupings of streets, squares, parades, circusses, and crescents, they present to the eye an appearance equally singular, magnificent, and beautiful.

"Bath is divided into the parishes of St. Peter and St. Paul, St. James, St. Michael, and Walcock; for Bathwick, though now connected with it by a continuity of buildings, is not within the jurisdiction of the city. Of these parishes, the three first were consolidated, by Queen Elizabeth, into one sole rectory, and the patronage of it granted to the corporation of the city. The parish of St. Peter and St. Paul occupies the central part of the city, and contains 340 rateable houses, and a population of 1048 males, and 1412 females. The annual expence of its poor is about 1300*l.* per annum; its annual contribution to the king's taxes, 3220*l.* 4*s.* 7*d.*; and its proportion of income tax, 2638*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.* In the year 1570, its baptisms were 12, marriages 3, and funerals 25; in the year 1701, its baptisms 50, marriages 7, and funerals 34; and in the year 1792, baptisms 43, marriages 21, and funerals 38."

The author proceeds to enumerate the different parishes, churches, and chapels, among which the abbey church is very copiously described in an extract from the quarto volume. The hospitals, alms houses, charity schools, and societies, are next particularized. One of the latter, whose proceedings are well known among agriculturists, is described in the following extract.

"*The Bath and west of England society, for the encouragement of agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce*, and which, under the skillful direction, persevering activity, and judicious management, of Mr. William Matthews, the late secretary, has decidedly surpassed every other establishment of the same nature in Europe, was suggested and established by the late Mr. Edmund Rack, of Bath, in the year 1777. Its operations were at first chiefly restricted to the counties of Somerset, Wilts, Gloucester, and Dorset; but having, in the course of a few years, extended its correspondence, and increased its members (who at present amount to nearly 600,) its views became gradually wider; and now, every part of economics, and every branch of philosophy connected with husbandry, in the most general acceptation of the term, is an object to which the society bends its attention, under the powerful patronage of the Duke of Bedford, the president; and assisted by the communications of some of the best farmers, both practical and scientific, in the kingdom: the establishment is rapidly extending itself in magnitude and utility; and the volumes which it already has published, and still continues to publish occasionally, bid fair to form a mass of agricultural information, which no other country in the world can boast. The meetings are held in

\* See *Beauties of Wiltshire*, vol. I. p. 40, and vol. II. p. 47.

Hetting-house, formerly the winter Bath residence of the noble family of Hungerford."

We next meet with some account of the trade and civil government, the arts and amusements of Bath. In treating of these subjects, the editor observes, that we must not expect "to find the din of manufacture, or the busy hum of commerce," in a place like Bath, which is principally resorted to by the "invalid, and felicity hunter." The buildings of this city are justly admired for their neatness and symmetry; many of them may be considered as elegant. But architectural science never shewed itself in Bath till Mr. Wood commenced building about the year 1728. Since which time it has made extraordinary advances in the extent and taste of its edifices.

In local guides like the present, we are accustomed to meet with injudicious

flattery; this is abundantly displayed in the present work. When speaking of the Bath artists, this writer is very extravagant and glaring in his colouring. All are painted equally excellent, and the whole picture is made up (we cannot say *composed*) entirely of bright lights, without the least tint of shading, gradation, keeping, or discrimination of character.

Concerning "the neighbourhood of Bath," the writer has said but little, and that relates principally to Prior park, and Ralph Allen, esq. who is said to be the antitype of Fielding's Allworthy.

The work is concluded with "a sketch of a *Bath Flora*," which was communicated to the writer by Mr. J. F. Davis. Without preface, or conclusion, and without map, index, or any prints, this "History" cannot be considered as better than a few slight sketches from, or for, a larger book.

ART. VI. *The History of the Roman Wall which crosses the Island of Britain, from the German Ocean to the Irish Sea, describing its ancient State and its Appearance in the Year 1801.* By W. HUTTON, F.A.S.S. 8vo. pp. 350.

THE entertaining, interesting, and novel manner, which this worthy veteran author adopts in his topographical and antiquarian writings, must be pleasing to almost every class of readers. In the preface to the present work we discover particular and engaging traits of the author's mind, and at the same time meet with that information on the subject, and on antiquities, in general, which afford us much gratification.

"There are few pursuits," observes Mr. Hutton, "more dry than that of antiquity. The antiquary feeds upon withered husks, which none but himself can relish; nor does he seem to possess the art of dressing up his dried morsel to suit the palate of a reader, for his language is often as dry as his subject; as if the smile was an enemy to truth. Mere dull description like a burnt cinder, is dead matter. If he designs a *treat*, why not infuse a little spice to suit the taste of his guest? The description also of antiquities is not only the dullest of all descriptions, but is rendered more dull by abstruse terms; by as much learning as the author can muster, and Latin as the page can conveniently hold. Instead of inviting, it rather repels a reader. Thus truth, dressed out like a beau, in flourishing trappings, is scarcely known, but would please in a plain dress. I would enliven truth with the smile, and the anecdote; and while I travel the long and dreary wall would have you travel with me though by your own fire side; would have you see and feel as I do;

and make the journey influence your passions as mine are influenced.

"If the mind is delighted at the sight of a watch worn by Charles the first; a sword carried through France before Edward the third; a spur worn by William the conqueror; or with a Danish battle axe; what astonishment must arise at the sight of the grandest production of art in the island! the united works of a commander in chief and two emperors, assisted by three powerful armies, and aided by a long series of years!—Having had the pleasure of seeing many antiques of various ages and people, it naturally excited a desire of proceeding in further research; and the eye, unsatisfied with seeing, induced a wish to see the greatest of all the curiosities left us by the Romans, *The Wall*, the wonderful and united works of Agricola, Hadrian, and Severus."

Many authors have written on the Roman Wall, but few of them ever visited the place, and not one ever traced its course. This task was reserved for our historian; who observes that

"Poor Camden travelled it till he was frightened, ran away, and wrote hastily. Horsley was weary and retreated; but wrote more correct. The judicious Warburton, whom I regard for his veracity, rode on, desisted, and then remarked; 'he believed he had trod upon ground which no foot had ever trodden since the Romans.' He also transcribes Horsley, which Mr. Gough professes to follow.



"Perhaps I am the first man," continues Mr. Hutton, "that ever travelled the whole length of this wall, and probably the last that ever will attempt it. Who then will say he has, like me, travelled it *twice*? Old people are much inclined to accuse youth of their follies; but on this head silence will become me, lest I should be asked, what can exceed the folly of that man, who, at seventy-eight, walked six hundred miles to see a shattered wall."

Such is the account Mr. Hutton gives of himself, of other authors who have written on the same subject, and of his own performance. He proceeds to relate some historical particulars of this celebrated rampart, and discriminates the parts which were erected at different periods, and by different generals. This part of his work furnishes many interesting traits of the history and policy of the Romans, and strikingly characterizes the unhappy times when plunder, murder, and all the consequent miseries of savage war conspired to deluge the plains with blood.

"This place," observes Mr. Hutton speaking of the wall,—"has been the scene of more plunder and murder than any part of the island of equal extent. During 400 years, while the wall continued a barrier, this was the grand theatre of war, as well as during ages after its destruction.

"The first barrier made between the Romans and Picts was constructed by Agricola, who was considered the ablest general, and most accomplished statesman of the age. This work was principally a bank and ditch, extending about 74 miles across 'the narrowest part of the island,' from sea to sea. To this was added a range of castles at unequal distances. But these had received various injuries in the course of thirty-seven years, and the emperor Hadrian, 'in the year 121, repaired the works of Agricola, and added some of his own to strengthen them.' These alterations obtained it the name of Hadrian's wall, which has improperly prevailed to this day. The Picts made continual encroachments on these works, till the time of Severus, who having driven them among 'their bogs, mosses, mountains, and impenetrable woods,' deemed it prudent to repair and strengthen the ramparts made by the two former chiefs. In the year 200, he began to 'erect a wall of stone,' parallel with the former work. To accomplish this, 'two legions were employed, the second and sixth, consisting of about 12,000 men. A plan of the wall was first determined on, divided into four parts; the second legion was appointed to the first and third parts, beginning in the east; and the sixth legion to the second and fourth. This is proved by a variety of inscriptions. Perhaps every mile in this long range was begun

at the same time. This was necessary, because the whole isthmus would be secured, from one sea to the other. The wall was about eight feet thick, and twelve high to the battlements, which rose about four more; so that viewed in profile, it would appear much like a chair, the main part forming the seat, and the embattled part the back."

"Along the line of the wall the emperor constructed of stone, three kinds of fortification, which were *stations, castles, and turrets*. The *stations*, or cities, are said to have been eighteen in number, with seventeen intervals, ranged at unequal distances, the average about four miles each. These were fortified inclosures, about one hundred and thirty-six yards square, the wall itself constituting its north side. They were designed for residence as well as guard, and were appropriated to the same use as our modern barracks; also buildings for family use, suitable to various occupations. If the cohorts were full, six hundred and sixty-six military men were probably the lot of each station. There were eighty-one castles, called by the country people *mile castles*, because they were nearly a mile asunder, or rather seven furlongs. About four of these on an average were fixed between every station. They were about ninety-six feet square, the wall still forming the north side.—The turrets were small castles, castlelets or watch towers, ranged along the wall, at the distance of about three hundred and eight yards each; consequently there must have been about three hundred and thirty. They were twelve feet square: each castle commanded about ten turrets, five on a side, which were daily supplied with a guard, probably of two or four men each."

In the preceding extract we have a concise, but perspicuous view of the extraordinary works which were raised by the Romans, to intimidate and repel the hardy Picts. Yet the policy and science of the former were often foiled by the cunning and force of the latter, who repeatedly broke through this barrier, revenged themselves on their intruding enemies, plundered them, and again retired among the mountains and bogs north of the wall. During the whole stay of the Romans in Britain, this place seems to have been the theatre of repeated tragedy, nor did the curtain drop even when these invaders left the island. The demon of war had contaminated the air, and the Britons and Picts imbibed the pestilence of mutual animosity. In the contest for victory, the Britons were quickly subdued, and the wall was broken through in many places.

In pursuing the history of this district through the Saxon and Norman dynas-

ties, we discover such a repetition of discord and murder, that the mind shrinks from the subject; and shudders while contemplating human nature, and society, degraded to such a contemptible state. An account of these contests, and times, is briefly given by our traveller, who also relates some anecdotes of the borderers, moss-troopers, &c. which tend to illustrate the subject.

Mr. Hutton gives a short account of the places he passed through in his pedestrian excursion from Birmingham to the Roman wall: had he been entirely silent on them, he would have done himself and his readers more justice: for two or three trite sentences of remark on a town can neither afford satisfaction nor information.

The printer is still more reprehensible, for he has contrived to occupy a *whole page* with one or two sentences; and this in several places. We were extremely sorry to see such tricks from a respectable office, which ought to set good examples to others rather than follow bad ones. In page 117, we are only told this. "Hulme's chapel, sixteen miles, a pretty smart church, inclosed in a small square of about seven houses—The village consists of about twice that number, in a situation delightful."

Page 120 contains only the following sentence, "Prescot, nine miles, seems to have risen from an ancient and obscure village, to a modern, handsome, and pleasant market town, from its vicinity to Liverpool."

This is not very reputable, especially as the author informs, in page 325. "I design this work a *present* to a bookseller. As it will be cheap to him, I wish it cheap to the purchaser. I would have it sweet as the apple; but, if I load it with parings, like putting garlic into his repast, it will swell the book, the price, and the disgust."

Mr. Hutton gives a description of his journey in tracing the wall from the first station at Syedunum, or the wall's end, to the eighteenth station Tunnocelum, now called Boulness. In this excursion he meets with various characters, scenes, and incidents, which are related with much good humoured quaintness, and the account he gives of the present appearance of the works serves to gratify our curiosity, and correct some mis-statements of preceding writers.

"All our historians," he observes, "have failed in two points: they have not given us the dimensions of the mile-castles, which always joined the wall, and were from twenty two, to twenty four yards square; nor distinguished the works of Agricola from those of Hadrian; but have confused both under the name of the latter."

The preceding extracts, and remarks, will enable our readers to appreciate the character of the volume before us, which on the whole we consider as an amusing and interesting portion of topographical history. The lively and cheerful manners of the author captivate the fancy, and we follow him through the progress of his journey with sympathy and curiosity. The venerable relic which attracted his notice excites the latter, and we cannot but sympathize with the respectable and amiable author who at the age of 75 undertook such "a laborious, romantic, and quixotic undertaking," as he terms it.

In concluding his account of the wall, he is decided in opinion that, no writer ever passed the whole length of it, and that very few have ever seen it; but "that the first historian, however ignorant, like the first horse in a team, was implicitly followed by the rest." An old author says, that "Hadrian was the first who drew a rampart of prodigious bulk, as high as a *mountain*." This proves that he never saw it, nor knew its history.

"Another evidently mistakes Antoninus's work in Scotland, for Severus's in England. A third says, 'the wall was begun by Hadrian, and finished by Severus.' This supposes only one work. A fourth says, 'Severus only repaired Hadrian's wall.' A fifth, 'the wall was 35 miles long.' A sixth, '122 miles long.' Even the venerable Bede 'cannot allow that Severus built a wall, because *wall* implies a work of stone.' Can we suppose that he ever saw, thought, or inquired about it, although a neighbour to the place? He and Gildas both observe, 'that when the Romans quitted the island, they advised the *Britons* to build a wall from sea to sea, to keep out the enemy,' which shows how little they knew of the matter; yet these are repeated in our best ancient writers. Again, 'They made the wall between two straits, or bays of the sea, a thousand miles!' Surely this must be charged to

the printer. Some authors have amused themselves and readers with a brass pipe running through the internal part of the wall, to convey intelligence. From the above absurdities, and fifty more I could

select, can a reader form a regular set of ideas as he peruses a work? The eye of the historian should see, and it rests with him to cause the reader to see as he does."

ART. VII. *Londinum Redivivum; or an ancient History and modern Description of London, compiled from parochial Records, Archives of various Foundations, the Harleian Manuscripts, and other authentic Sources.* By JAMES PELLER MALCOLM, vol. 1. 4to. pp. 452.

THE British metropolis has long been the acknowledged emporium of the arts, commerce, and literature of Europe, has given birth to many of our most celebrated literary characters, and has furnished a theme for several volumes, in describing its history, antiquities, and multitudinous curiosities. Indeed we cannot enumerate the quantity of books\* which have been expressly written on this vast, wealthy, and populous city, without feeling considerable astonishment; and that astonishment is heightened, from a conviction that not one of this number can be properly called a complete and satisfactory history of London. Other works are still published, and more will be required, until some person shall have the courage, perseverance, and judgment, to produce this national desideratum. We hoped and expected to find it in Mr. Malcolm's book, but are sadly disappointed in the present specimen. Yet, perhaps, our author is not wholly to blame, for to accomplish such a task requires a great library, and a considerable fortune; it should be supported by a combination of various talents, and a liberal pecuniary contribution. But let us see what the first volume of *Londinum Redivivum* promises. Mr. Malcolm professes himself "an ardent admirer of the ancient and modern wonders of this great metropolis," and is "sanguine enough to hope its attractions may be described once more without producing satiety." He, therefore, offers to the public the first volume of an intended series, containing its ancient history and modern description. "To present to the world a work worthy of its patronage," he adds, "I sought a path which would lead me to unknown facts: whether it is found, and if found, whether it has been pursued to any purpose, my readers must decide." Such is

the explanation we have in the "Advertisement," but this is by no means explicit or satisfactory. We have no plan pointed out, or particulars of any kind detailed; we are neither told what the volumes are to comprise, nor their probable extent, nor the method of arrangement. These are natural inquiries, which arise spontaneously in the mind of every inquisitive reader, and answers should not have been omitted.

Mr. Malcolm first considers London in respect to its increased magnitude, and commences his work by stating that,

"It would be a labour of little less difficulty to attempt to describe the varying form of a summer cloud, than to trace from year to year the outline of London. Ever upon the increase, these pages will scarcely have been perused, ere new matter might be found to swell them. When this enormous mass will be completed, is beyond our powers of calculation. The fallacy of conjecture on such subjects may be proved from Sir William Petty's 'Political Arithmetic, 1683,' when he endeavours to demonstrate that the growth of London must stop of itself, before the year 1800; 'at which time,' he adds, 'the population must be 5,359,000 persons.'

"Although the city hath been wonderfully enlarged since Sir William's time, his plan must be extended some centuries further, before his latter prediction can be verified, supposing the increase to be in the past proportion."

To illustrate this increasing population, the author, in the succeeding pages, describes the various new improvements which are taking place, particularly on the northern side of the city; such as Bedford-square, Tavistock-square, and the streets and buildings adjacent. The investigations of former writers are comprised in the following very circumscribed limits.

"He that would write of the age of Lon-

\* Upon looking over our own private catalogue of books relating to London and Westminster, (which may now be considered as one town), we find no less than 16 folios, 27 quartos, 48 octavos, and 24 duodecimo volumes, besides several smaller works.

don, would endeavour in vain to find *new* matter. Let it suffice for us, that we inhabit it at a period when it is most improved, and most worthy of being called the emporium of the world; whether we view it as covering so many miles of ground, or for its riches, or for its mild and equal government. Shall I speak of the derivation of its name? That would be fruitless; for have not Siowe, and all his successors, told us the same story? Or of its governors? Do we not all know, that they are a corporate body, composed of mayor, aldermen, and common-council men? Would it not also be unnecessary to dwell on the division of wards and parishes? Be it my task," continues Mr. Malcolm; and here he unfolds something of his plan, "to search among the almost forgotten and decayed writings of past ages, for circumstances of interest and amusement; to place in a new light the manners and transactions of our ancestors. To trace the lapse of ages has ever been my favourite pursuit. It is the irreversible decree of Nature, that the hard fronts of rocks shall be excoriated by numberless tempests, sides of mountains be swept down by torrents, and the strongest and most durable buildings moulder into dust. What shall the historian do more than record the era, or describe the surface?

"Many and various are the subjects of the following pages; yet all, except one, are from the hands of man, perishable as himself, and their duration but for a few centuries.

"Not so Nature's grand ruin, now first known on the Isle of Dogs. There full scope for conjecture is spread before us. All remnants and tottering fragments of what we call antiquity, are modern in comparison.

"By digging a certain number of feet, and laying the earth taken out on the adjoining ground, at the depth necessary for the docks, hath a *forest* been hidden for unnumbered centuries.

"The surface of the isle is a fine black mould, producing rich pasture for many herds of cattle that have fattened there.

"The strata are composed of reddish-yellow and blackish-yellow earth, sand, lead-coloured clay, in some instances veined with a beautiful vivid blue, and some pebbles, mixed with black mud, similar to the low water borders of a river.

"Beneath those, eight feet from the grass, lies the forest; a mass of decayed twigs, leaves, and branches, encompass huge trunks, rotted through, yet perfect in every fibre. The bark is uninjured, and the whole were

evidently torn up by the roots. I have some pieces of this wood, which, when gathered, were of full size; they are now shrunk like a withered vegetable; but do not crumble like those trees which fall and decay in forests. Much of it has been dried, and burnt by the inhabitants of Poplar.

"There were elms of great bulk, and one of three feet four inches diameter. I saw but one fir, and that was about twelve inches diameter.

"It was not without good reason that the ancients reduced the remains of their friends to ashes. The incorruptibility of that substance was well known to them; and as a further proof of it, I found one branch of complete charcoal, as sound as if burnt yesterday. Thus might their dust be preserved for ever.

"After a most minute examination of every part of the works, where the softness of the soil would permit me to tread, I have seen human bones; a thigh, and pieces of a skull, with those of other animals, glass, chalk, oyster and muscle shells, broken filberts, but no metals.

"I feel it impossible to leave this sublime display of the progress of time, without risking some conjectures, which naturally arise from the subject. The first question that occurs is, how happened it that such a forest existed upon a spot many feet below the present water mark? and what convulsion could have levelled so many and such vast trees (in one direction) from south-east to north-west.

"Many elms are now growing round the scite of the ancient chapel, mentioned by our historians, but their roots barely reach to the bodies of those in question.

"How many ages, therefore, must have passed away, before the quantity of soil now on them could have accumulated by the flux and reflux of the river, supposing an embankment to have given way.

"Or are we to conclude an earthquake, similar to that which sunk Port Royal, in Jamaica, admitted the water of the Thames in an instant, and thus swept the trees before it all one way? The situation of the river makes this idea, at least, plausible. It is reasonable to suppose the catastrophe was sudden, from our finding human bones. Remote, indeed, must the dreadful scene have been, as both records and tradition are silent on the subject."

The following description of "London, in a picturesque point of view," as

\* To develop the "*Original History of London*," is a task reserved for the learned and acute historian of Manchester, who has been long employed on the subject; and among other curious and interesting particulars which he will bring before the public, we are assured he has some novel information concerning the above phenomenon. That the vale of London was inundated at some remote period, is evident from various circumstances; and it will be very interesting to ascertain the time when the waters subsided; when London was first established, what was the scite of the first buildings; when the Roman walls were built, &c.

Mr. Malcolm calls it, is treated in a novel and interesting manner.

"Smoke, so great an enemy to all prospects, is the everlasting companion of this great city; yet it is the smoke of London, emblematic of its magnificence.

"At times, when the wind, changing from the west to the east, rolls the vast volumes of sulphur towards each other, columns ascend to a great height, in some parts bearing a blue tinge, in others a pale flame colour, and in a third, accumulated and dense, they darken portions of the city, till the back rooms require candles. A resident in London cannot form an idea of the grand and gloomy scene; it must be viewed from the environs.

"In the spring, before fires are discontinued, during a calm day, *Vesuvius* itself can scarcely exceed this display of smoke. It is pleasing to observe the black streams which issue from the different manufactories; sometimes darting upward, while every trifling current gives graceful undulation; at others rolling in slow movements, blending with the common mass; but when the dreary season of November arrives, and the atmosphere is dark and damp, a change in the wind produces an effect dismal and depressing. The smoke sometimes mixes with the clouds, and then they assume an electric appearance. When the sun breaks through this veil during the summer, its beams have a wonderful effect on the trees and grass; the green is bright, and inconceivably beautiful.

"London is not without attractions on a dark evening; chiefly so in the winter, when a strong south wind prevails. It is then that the innumerable lights in the shops and streets send their rays toward Heaven; but, meeting with the smoke, depressed by a wet air, they are reflected and multiplied, making an arch of splendour, against which the houses and steeples appear in strong outlines. I have found the reflection so powerful as to dazzle my sight, and make the path dark and dangerous. A general illumination occasions great brilliancy.

"Let us now view our subject from the surrounding country; and this should be done on a summer morning, before the industrious inhabitants begin their labours. The most perfect and delightful landscape is from Hampstead-heath, when the wind blows strong from the east. Then it is that the clear bright sand of the fore-ground, broken into a thousand grotesque shapes, gives lustre to the projecting front of Highgate, topped with verdure, and serving as a first distance, from which in gradual undulations the fields retire, till lost in a blue horizon. Hence, spread before you, are numberless objects to please the most difficult. The suburbs, as advanced guards, meet the eye in all directions, contrasting their fawn-coloured sides with the neighbouring

trees. Beyond them reposes in full majesty the main body, with its mighty queen, whose lofty cupola overlooks her phalanx of children, crowned with spires of various sizes and beauty, protected to the south by a long chain of hills.

"Much of the external splendour of London, I conceive, must have been lost on the suppression of religious houses. Numerous towers and spires were destroyed, and those of the most venerable character. Several attempts to preserve Saint John's, Clerkenwell, and St. Augustine's, were without success."

The above extracts will show the style and sentiments of our author; and they contain nearly all that is given relative to the general history of London.

The next page commences with a particular description of the parish of Saint Alphage, which occupies twenty-seven pages, wherein is given the origin of its name, an account of the church, and ancient customs; also a memorial of the dead; benefactions, since 1700; and some extracts from the parish registers, &c. Next follow accounts of Sion College, its library, hall, and the pictures, with a catalogue of presidents, since 1724. Had this list been worth printing, it should have been done in small note letter, or in the appendix; though we think the same space might, and ought to have been better occupied.

A similar plan and arrangement are adopted in treating of the following districts and places, which occupy the remaining pages of this volume.

Allhallows, Thames-street; with the Hans Town or Steelyard Company; Allhallows, Lombard-street; Quakers' Meeting, in White-hart-court; Saint Andrew's Undershaft; account of the India-house, and Saint Mary at Axe; Abbey of Westminster, its curiosities, abbots, priors, monks, &c. coronations, funerals, and other particulars; Saint Bartholomew the Greater and Less, with a minute account of the ruins and priory of the former; Saint Benedict, Gracechurch-street; Saint Leonard, Eastcheap; Saint Botolph, Bishopsgate, its volunteer corps, Quakers' meeting in its parish, and East-India warehouses; Saint Bridget, Fleet-street, Fleet prison; Charterhouse and Charter-house; additions and corrections.

The principal *new* matter brought forward to illustrate these subjects, consists of

An inventory of vessels, dresses, and



effects, belonging to Elfringe Spital, temp. Henry VI.; and a bull of Pope Nicholas, demanding their accustomed offerings.

A grant of privileges to the Hans Towns, from the parliament rolls.

Extract from a curious MS. of George Fox, the founder of the Quakers; containing part of an address made by him at the meeting in White-hart-court; with some particulars relating to the celebrated William Penn.

Curious documents relative to the rise and progress of the India House.

Original instruments relative to the foundation and endowment of Henry the Seventh's chapel. Services for its founder. Solemnities used at his funeral, and that of Henry the Fifth. A curious extract from a speech made by abbot Feckenham in parliament against the Liturgy. Yearly expences of the Abbey, from the treasurership accounts of Dr. Busby. Ancient ceremonies used at the installation of a knight of the Bath, and at the coronation of Richard III. Henry VII. Henry VIII. Edward VI. and Elizabeth. Specimens of ancient ceremonies at funerals, with a detail of that of O. Cromwell. Legend of the foundation of St. Bartholomew priory and church; lists of its possessions, viz. estates, books, sacred utensils, dresses, &c. For most of these curious papers the author is indebted to the Harleian and Cottonian MSS. Besides the above, here are numerous extracts from parish registers; containing accounts of their possessions, ancient state of their churches, receipts, disbursements, benefactions, births, christenings, burials, chauntries, vicars, incumbents, &c.; together with all the memorials of the dead at full length, since the year 1700 to the present time.

From these copious materials we shall select some particulars illustrative of Westminster Abbey church. This celebrated edifice, though often described, receives some new lights from Mr. M.'s statements. His reflections on it are, in general, judicious, the pictures of ancient costume correct and animated, and the additional circumstances brought forward highly interesting.

After noticing (we think somewhat abruptly) the present altar-piece, Mr. M. says,

" Descending two steps of white marble, which cover part of the grand Mosaic platform, we tread on the wreck of the most glorious work in England; venerable through age, costly in its materials, and invaluable for its workmanship. What must have been the beauties of this holy place soon after the completion of the church! The altar-piece, resembling in workmanship its transcendent back in Edward the Confessor's chapel; the shrine of that saint beaming with jewels, gold, and silver; statues, and other offerings; the sides of the choir shewing glances of the numerous altars in the chapels, with the rich tombs on the right and left; and this pavement, sparkling with the bright rays of vast tapers, and ever burning lamps! And hither did Henry the Sixth, after making a public entry into London, come,

" Where all y<sup>e</sup> convent, in copis richely,  
Mette with hym, as of custom as yey ouzt;  
The Abbot aft; most solempnely  
Among y<sup>e</sup> reliques, y<sup>e</sup> scripture out he souzt  
Of Seynt Edward, and to the kyng he brouzt,  
Thouz it were longe, large, and of gret weizte,  
Zit on his shuldres, y<sup>e</sup> kyng bar it on heizte  
Ex duabr arboribr re Sci Edwardi et Sci Lo-  
dewyce

In the mynstre, whiles all the bellys ronge  
Till he com to y<sup>e</sup> heize auter,  
And ful devoutly Te Deum y<sup>e</sup> was songe."

The account of "*Abbot Ware's pavement*" succeeds; of which the following description is given. This pavement

" Is separated from the modern one by a skreen of iron rails. The materials are lapis lazuli, jasper, porphyry, alabaster, Lydian and serpentine marbles, and touchstone. It was made at the charge of the Abbot, and is said to have been purchased by him in France. An admirer of the arts must view it with the deepest regret. It was injured, no doubt, at the reformation, when the high altar was removed; at its restoration by Queen Mary; and afterwards almost demolished. The most irreparable attack was from the workmen at erecting the present altar-piece. The following description will shew its injuries; and even now, since it has been the custom to shew the choir for money, it is trodden, worn, and dirtied daily by hundreds, who are unconscious of its value, and barely look at it. Is it not a national treasure? When it is quite destroyed, can we shew such another? It may be seen over the rails adjoining; and may it in future be seen from thence only! The centre of the design is a large circle, whose centre is a circular plane of porphyry, three spans and a quarter in diameter; round it stars of lapis lazuli, pea-green, red, and white, which, being of most beautiful colours, have been much depredated; those enclosed by a band of alabaster;

and without, a border of lozenges, red and green; the half lozenges contain triangles of the same colours. A dark circle held bras letters, whose places may be seen, but are now reduced to six. The extreme lines of this great circle run into four smaller circles facing the cardinal points; that to the east, a centre of orange and green variegated; round it a circle of red and green wedges; without that, lozenges of the same colours; and completed by a dark border. To the north, the circle has a hexagon centre of variegated green and yellow; round it a band of porphyry and a dark border. The west circle nearly similar. The south, a black centre within a variegated octagon. A large lozenge incloses all the above circles, which is formed by a double border of olive colour; within which, on one corner only, are 138 circles intersecting each other, and each made by four oval pieces enclosing a lozenge. The other parts vary in figure, but would take many pages to describe."

It appears that the various figures here mentioned were not only designed as beautiful objects, but to convey a meaning; in other words, they were intended as a sort of hieroglyphical writing, and expressed the time when the work was performed, the person who bore the charges, the place where the materials were purchased, and by whom, together with the name of the master workman. That so invaluable a specimen of skill and ingenuity should have been so abused and neglected, justly excites the regret of the author, as it must also that of every person of taste.

Speaking of the seats in the choir appropriated to the use of the Westminster scholars, Mr. M. observes,

"The works of those skilful carvers, who (seated here) have with broken dull knives formed them into so many shapes, shew the activity of the human mind and hands, that can perform the rites of religion, and at the same time, cut initials, or carve a name!"

As Mr. M. professes to give only inscriptions since 1700, the most curious and interesting are consequently omitted. They have certainly been often copied before; but the indiscriminate rejection of all for that reason, is censurable, especially as their places are usurped by many uninteresting names from the pavements, and elsewhere. In fact, to blend entertainment with utility, nothing should be allowed to swell the work but what is, on some account, worth preserving; and in monumental inscriptions, only such as are remarkable, either

for the persons buried, the inscription itself, the age of the monument erected, or some peculiarity in its structure or materials.

The chapel of Henry the Seventh calls forth our author's descriptive talents to considerable advantage. He thus contrasts its ancient and present states:

"Divesting the subject of every vestige of superstitious veneration, and viewing it merely as a spectacle of extreme grandeur, I cannot avoid calling to my reader's recollection the superb scene Henry the Seventh's chapel must have presented when just completed. Then the windows were filled with painted glass; and the light which streamed through them was tinged with a warm glow of colours, that heightened the brilliancy of the gold and silver utensils of the various altars, and the embroidered vestments of the priests; at the same time touching one pendant of the roof with purple, another with crimson, and a third with yellow. The burning tapers, waving with every current of air, varied the strong shadows on the exquisite statues above them, and shewed their features in every lineament.

"In the centre stood the vast cross of gold, the statue of the Virgin, and the high altar. Behind it, the polished brazen skreen, and within it the tomb and altar, glowing with the light of tapers. The sculptured walls, and exquisite minutely carved roof, bounded this unparalleled view; and, thanks to the skill of its architect, still enchants us, though all its accompaniments are buried in irretrievable ruin."

Our author adds,

"Though my faculty of seeing was almost dazzled by its numerous perfections, yet I could trace the powerful works of time, whose keen tooth, ever unsated, feels upon its beauties. The rough assaults of western and northern blasts, aided by the insinuating efforts of subtle rains, have made many a breach in the numerous windows, whose mullions, corroded as they are, will scarcely sustain the weight of their broken glass. Would the effort be very, very great, or painful, to restore those mullions, and replace the panes? Surely, a few hundred pounds expended thus would cheerfully be voted by the representatives of the nation, did they know its decays. Is there a man in England, who looks upon the ruins of its outside falling daily into dust, that would not wish it restored? Are not the shapeless masses, which once were pinnacles and towers, silently reproaching them who can, and yet do not, repair them?"

"It is a thousand pities that the stone of which they are composed is so perishable: where the rain has had full effect, even the

deepest marks of the chissel are lost. In some parts, the badges, arches, quatrefoils, and other ornaments of the outside, are quite perfect."

Respecting the foundation of this chapel our author brings forth a variety of curious and interesting original documents. From a very rich book, now in the British Museum, are inserted the services which Henry the Seventh commanded to be used for the repose of his soul after death, with other particulars, which serve to depict the manners, customs, and superstitions of the times.

"The first article binds every monk in the monastery to assist at high mass at the high altar, to pray for the king's prosperity and welfare during his life. Then follows the service, to be pronounced *while the world shall last*, at high mass, at the high altar, after the king's decease.

"These priests, after the king's decease, addressed the congregation thus: 'Sirs, I exhorte and move you specially and devoutly of your charitie to praye for the soule of the most christen Prince, Kyng Henry the 7th, late Kyng of Englonde, founder of thre daily masses, perpetually to be sayed at this altier, whosys body restesth here buried.' At a quarter of an hour before each mass, the great bell of the Abbey was tolled forty strokes. As this altar was intended only for a temporary purpose, it was removed on certain days of ceremony to the south aisle, facing the chapel of St. Benedict.

"On the 12th of February, annually, the *hearse* for the king and his *altar* were adorned with 100 tapers, each weighing twelve pounds, and nine feet in length; twenty-four almsmen were arranged round it with torches, twenty-four pounds in weight. After those were prepared, the bells began to toll, as for the anniversary of Richard the Second,

"A procession then commenced through the choir to the high altar, formed by the monks, prior, and abbot; the lord chancellor, lord treasurer, chief justice, master of the rolls, chief baron of the exchequer, and five other justices, together with the lord mayor, recorder, and sheriffs of London. The abbot then proceeded to the high altar, and began the mass of requiem, while the monks kneel before it. The officers of state kneeling before the *hearse* said the psalm *De profundis*, with the prayers belonging to the office.

"The *hearse* had four tapers, eleven feet in length, placed on the middle of each side (to burn perpetually), and thirty to be lighted only during the obit, mass, and even song. The sockets were set in crests of roses and portcullises; and the tapers never consumed lower than four feet, when they were replaced.

"We have little reason to wonder at his thus besieging heaven, after perusing the prelude to his will, which he made March 31st, 1509:—"We save at this tyme, as sithence the first yerres of discresonne we have been accustomid, theis wordes, Dne Ihu Xe, qui me ex nihilo creasti, fecisti, redemisti, et predestinasti ad hoc quod sum, tu seis quid de me facere vis; fac de me sdm voluntatem tuam cum misericordia. Therefore doe of mee thy will; with grace pitie and mercy, most humbly and entirelie I beseeche thee. And thus unto the I bequeth, and into thy most mercifull handes my soule I committe. And howbeite I am a sinful creature, in sinne conceived, in synne have lyved, knowing perfectlie that of my merites I cannot attaine to the lyfe everlastinge, but onlie by the merites of thy blessed passion, and of thy infinite mercy and grace; nathlesse, my moste merciful Redeemer, Maker, and Saviour, I trust that, by the speciall grace and mercy of thy moste blessed mother, ever virgin, our ladie St. Mary, in whom, after thee, in this mortall lyfe hathe ever byne my moste singuler truste and confidence: to whom in all my necessities I have made my continuall refuge, and by whome I have hitherto in all my adversities ever hadd my speciall comforte and reliefe; will now in my most extreame neede, of her infinite pitie, take my soule into her handes, and it presente unto her most dere sonne; whereof sweetest ladie of mercie, verie mother and virgin, wel of pitie, and surest refuge of all needfull, most humblye, moste entirelie, and most hartlie, I beseech thee; and for my comforte in this behalfe, I trust also to the singuler meditacon and praiers of all the holic company of Heaven: that is to saye, anges, archanges, patriarks, profits, apostles, evangelistes, masters, confessours, and virgines; and especiallie to mine accustomed avours I calle and erie, St. Michael, St. John Baptist, St. John Evangelist, St. George, St. Anthony, St. Edwarde, St. Vincent, St. Anne, St. Mary Magdalen, and St. Barbara; humblye beseechinge not onlie at the hower of death soe to aide, socore, and defend me, that the aunciente and gostlie ennemye, nor non other evell or dampnable sperete, have no power to invade me, nor with his terribleness to anoy me, &c."

In giving his executors directions for his funeral, which follow this supplicatory exordium, he particularly charged them to avoid "dampnable pompe, and outrageous superfluities;" a piece of advice little consistent with other parts of his will, which indicate the excessive *grandeur* of his establishment, and from which we further learn, that the high altar, dedicated to our lady, was to be adorned with the large image of her in his possession; a cross plated, with gold

and silver gilt candlesticks; the vestments for the priests officiating were to be of gold tissue; and on solemn feasts was placed a fragment of the real cross, set in gold, and resplendent in jewels, with golden and silver chalices, cruets, candlesticks, embroidered altar cloths, vestments, &c.

"Lest his soul might not rest in peace, although every precaution certainly was taken by him that poor sinner could take, he requested 10,000 masses should be said in the monastery, London, for its repose; 1500 in honour of the Trinity; 2500 in honour of the five wounds of the Lord Jesus Christ; 2500 to the five joys of our Lady; 450 to the 9 orders of angels; 150 to the honour of the patriarchs; 600 to the 12 apostles; and 2300 to the honour of all saints; and all those to be sung in a little month after his decease.

"He directed that a statue of himself kneeling, three feet in height from the knees, should be carved in wood, representing him in armour, with a sword and spurs, and holding the crown of Richard III. won by him at Bosworth Field."

This figure was to be plated with fine gold, and enamelled with his arms, to be placed on a table of silver gilt, on the shrine of Edward the Confessor, and dedicated to God and the Virgin.

With the ceremony of this monarch's "BURIAL" we shall take leave of the Abbey:

"On the 9th of May 1509, his body was placed in a chariot, covered with black cloth of gold, which was drawn by five spirited horses, whose trappings were of black velvet, adorned with quillions of gold. The effigies of his majesty lay upon the corps, dressed in his regal habiliments. The carriage had, suspended on it, banners of arms, titles, and pedigrees. A number of prelates preceded the body, who were followed by the deceased king's servants; after it were nine mourners; 600 men bearing torches surrounded the chariot.

"The procession was met in St. George's Fields by all the priests and clergy of London and its neighbourhood, and at London Bridge by the lord mayor, aldermen, and common-council, in black. To render this awful scene sublimely grand, the way was lined with children, who held burning tapers; those, with the flashes of great torches, whose red rays darting in every direction upon the glittering objects, and embroidered copes, shewing the solemn pace, uplifted eyes, and mournful countenances, must have formed a noble picture. The slow monotonous notes of the chant, mixed with the sonorous tones of the great bells, were not less grateful to the ear. When the body had

arrived at St. Paul's, which was superbly illuminated, it was taken from the chariot, and carried to the choir, where it was placed beneath a hearse, arrayed with all the accompaniments of death. A solemn mass and dirge were then sung, and a sermon preached by the Bishop of Rochester. It rested all night in the church. On the following day the procession recommenced in the same manner, except that Sir Edward Howard rode before on a fine charger, clothed with drapery, on which was the king's arms.

"We will now suppose him removed by six lords from his chariot to the hearse prepared for him, formed by nine pillars set full of burning tapers, inclosed by a double railing; view him placed under it, and his effigies on a rich pall of gold close to him; the nine mourners, near them knights bearing banners of saints, and surrounded by officers of arms. The prelates, abbot, prior, and convent, and priests, in measured paces silently taking their places; when, breaking through the awful pause, Garter, king at arms, cried with an audible voice, "For the soul of the noble Prince King Henry the Seventh, late King of this realm." A deep peal from the organ and choir answers in a chant of *placebo* and the dirge; the sounds die away, and with them the whole assembly retires."

The next objects described are the church and priory of St. Bartholomew the Great, in West Smithfield.

Mr. M. details at length a legend relating to the foundation of the above. It has all the characteristic improbability of similar stories, and is only interesting from its age and connection with the subject. Our author, however, endeavours to prove from it, that *Raybere*, the founder, was not Henry the First's jester, as is commonly said, but merely a promoter and lover of the buffoonery which prevailed at that dissolute prince's court.

The Latin lists of possessions of this and other places, Mr. M. should have translated either in notes, or in an appendix. They occupy a considerable space at present, and are useless to many readers.

The ancient and curious church of St. Bartholomew is, perhaps, the most perfect specimen of the Saxon style of architecture now remaining in London, and we have no reason to complain of its being superficially described. Mr. M. takes considerable pains to trace the priory ruins among "stables, carpenters, and farriers' shops;" but want of room prevents our following him; to the anti-

quary, however, we recommend the result of his researches as pregnant with useful and interesting information.

Bartholomew, the Lesser, and the hospital adjoining, have nothing to detain us. St. Benedict, Gracechurch Street, has some curious particulars in its churchwardens' accounts, but nothing that we can form an extract from to gratify the reader; St. Leonard, Eastcheap, we believe, was an incorporated parish with the latter. St. Botolph, Bishopsgate, contains scarce any thing of history anterior to the reformation, and what relates to it after that time is chiefly lists of benefactions. We cannot see why the volunteers are "called over" here, unless the same plan had been adopted in other parishes, which, as well as this, were mostly provided with corps. Some accounts of the antiquities which have been here discovered at different times, we think would have been more appropriate. The Quakers' meeting and Bethlem Hospital we pass by: as likewise St. Bride's, or Bridget's. A particular history of the Chartreuse, since called the Charter House, finishes the volume. The first was founded by Sir Walter de Manny in 1372, and continued a Carthusian monastery till the dissolution. This event, and its effects on the society, are particularly described by Mr. Malcolm.

There are very few remains of the original building, and those are so altered that their destination can scarcely be now conjectured. The admirable foundation of Mr. Sutton has more usefully supplied their place, and excites no regret that the gloomy recesses of superstition have become the hospitable mansions of benevolence and philanthropy.

The prodigious sums left by this great and good man for the establishment and support of his excellent charity are really astonishing. Independently of the annual revenue from his numerous estates, and the purchase and fitting up of the building, it appears from the will that his executors received, from the day of his death to 1620, 45,163*l.* 9*s.* 9*d.*

The regulations by which this society is governed, the exalted characters of those who preside, and the accommodations which it affords, are excellent: yet our author observes,

"It is a melancholy reflection, that of eighty persons, which is the number of pen-

sioners, not one is generally found alive at the close of the tenth year; in short, the inhabitants undergo a total change in that period. Whence doth this arise? Surely not from their mode of living! Plenty, the best of plain provisions, and cleanliness, forbid such a supposition. It is a grand and affecting sight to see the majestic hall, decorated even for royalty, with tables arranged with shining metal, supported by a large loaf to each plate, and covered by dishes smoking with excellent viands, excellently cooked, and eighty ancient, respectable, venerable men, seated, partaking of the bounties of the immortal Sutton, a bounty of nearly 200 years standing. If we follow these men to their apartments, we find them furnished with every necessary to make them comfortable. Their age is such as to preclude a wish for excesses; nor are such permitted. Their minds are kept as quiet as possible, by every discouragement of dissension; and they are led to prayer twice in each day. Surely all this should tend to preserve health and life, even to patriarchal years.

"This is a proof of the miserable state of man, who is obliged to owe his existence to many causes which are not to be controuled. Here we find him solitary in the midst of numbers. The pensioner must be old, unmarried, and desolate, before he can be admitted. He retires to his bed, and rises in the morning, without a friend to converse with. He has had relations, but they are not with him; his affections wander towards them; regret, amidst plenty, invades his thoughts; his spirits sink, and his body wastes, till death relieves him. Such is man without the society of his relatives. Yet think not, reader, I condemn those regulations expelling friends; the weary pensioner, deprived of them by calamity, is here sheltered and protected. What would be his fate, had he not such an asylum?"

We have thus followed Mr. M. through the various subjects of his volume, and shall conclude with a few observations.

Feeling the same partiality with our author for any information, however minute, which tends to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge respecting the metropolis; we perused his work with more than usual gratification. After making this acknowledgment, as a just and deserved tribute to its general merit, we hope it will not be thought invidious if we freely point out what we think its defects. In so doing we have no intention to depreciate the work, but to suggest some hints which may tend to its future improvement. The objections that we shall make, do not only apply to the deficiencies observable in many places, and



the frequent admission of uninteresting articles, but the striking irregularity of the plan and arrangement.

With respect to its deficiencies it is obvious, that, as far as this volume extends, it is rather a history of *particular parishes* than of London: few things are described not immediately connected with the *inside of the parish church*, though there are many miscellaneous objects of curiosity and interest in almost every parish gone through, besides those mentioned. The omission of inscriptions and particulars of monuments prior to 1700, though in general most remarkable on account of their antiquity, we cannot see the propriety of; their having been before given, we do not conceive a sufficient reason for withholding a great deal of essential information; unless, indeed, this publication is intended as a mere supplement to preceding authorities: in which case one-half of its present contents are superfluous, for at least that portion has been anticipated. But we do not imagine this is Mr. M.'s intention, because he elsewhere assigns as "his reason for omitting, *as much as possible*, epitaphs previous to the year 1700," that he "would not swell his work beyond tolerance." If the author had, in pursuance of this reason, which is undoubtedly a very potent one, left out great part of the tedious and uninteresting registers of births, marriages, christenings, and burials, except where *really curious*, we must have allowed the argu-

ment its full weight. The old plan of dividing the city into wards, though here rejected for the sake of greater novelty, is decidedly the most eligible; as the arranging of parishes alphabetically, notwithstanding its seeming advantages, is highly inconvenient, the reader being obliged to jump from one end of the town to the other, instead of tracing the objects according to their relative situations, and thereby immediately recognizing them from their vicinity to each other. Besides this, the advantages of alphabetical arrangement may be completely gained by an index: admitting, however, its propriety, Mr. M. has not adhered to it himself; for under the letters A and B, not above *two-thirds* of the parishes beginning with those letters are described. It is true, we are told, "that circumstances have prevented his arranging his subjects into strict alphabetical order." But to what confusion must this lead? It destroys all system and regularity.

We mention these defects because we hope in future to see them remedied; in which case the deficiencies of the present volume may be partly corrected by additions at the end of the work. It is certainly a valuable one, and no means should be neglected to make it still more so.

This volume is illustrated with ten prints of antiquities, mostly drawn and engraved by the author.

ART. VIII. *The Picture of London for 1803; being a correct Guide to all the Curiosities, Amusements, Exhibitions, Public Establishments, and remarkable Objects in and near London; with a Collection of appropriate Tables, &c.* 18mo. pp. about 420.\*

AS this pocket *vade mecum* certainly contains much useful and curious information concerning the principal objects of amusement and exhibition in London, it must be an acquisition to foreigners and strangers, who visit this great emporium of arts, manufactures, and commerce. We readily agree with the publisher, in "its obvious and indispensable utility," and are much surprised that no work upon a similar plan had hitherto made its appearance.

"Every city and considerable town in

Great-Britain has for many years been provided with its pocket guide, and yet London, a place which contains such an infinite number of matchless curiosities, was, till the present work, unprovided with a modern description, sufficiently practical and circumstantial to relieve the embarrassments, answer the enquiries, and direct the pursuits of strangers and foreigners."

This is a singular fact, and it is equally singular that nine-tenths of the inhabitants of London are as much in want of a description as foreigners are.

It is often remarked by country people

\* We say about 420 pages, for the bookseller has directed *one page* to be printed with the figures 380 and 384. This was adopted to correspond with a certain number of pages that are worked by wholesale, as they relate to the fares of hackney coachmen, watermen, &c. But as an alteration has taken place in the latter, these will not, with much propriety, answer to a new title page for 1804.

after visiting the metropolis, that they know more of its curiosities than the inhabitants who have resided in it all their lives. This is not peculiar to Londoners, for it seems almost an universal principle with mankind, to travel in search of curiosities, beauties, and rarities, and overlook, or totally neglect those that are in the immediate vicinity of their abodes. Though we admit the general utility of the work before us, yet there are some passages against which we must enter our protest: and that we shall do the more decidedly on account of its extensive circulation, and the consequent degree of injury that may be produced by false statements, and sophisticated sentiments.

"Of the 'origin of London, and etymology of its name,' one of the writers states\*, that it 'appears to have been founded, in times prior to the invasion of Cæsar, by inhabitants of Britain, the descendants of Goths, who emigrated from Scandinavia. In the ancient language of the Goths, *lun* signified a *grove* and *den*, a *town*; and at this day there are in the modern Scandinavia, towns or villages which retain the name of *Lunden*. The first rude towns of the Goths, were places of strength in woods: the northern Gauls, who were Goths from Scandinavia, traded with Britain; and it is probable that the southern parts of the island with which they carried on the traffic, had been seized and colonized by that bold and adventurous race." As the whole of this hypothesis, which the writer seems positive in, is merely an echo to the assertion of Mr. Pinkerton, we can neither acquiesce in it, nor suffer it to pass without a few animadversions. Those that believe London to have been first peopled by the Celts, who spoke a language nearly similar to the ancient British, or Welsh, have recourse to that language for information, where they find several words sounding like that of London; but which is the most suitable and descriptive involves some degree of doubt. Without noticing the whole, let us see what it is called by the modern Welsh, who are likely to preserve the same appellation by which it was formerly known. They call it *Caer Lundaïn*; which name strictly applies to the situation of the town. *Caer* means a

rampart, a fortress or city, and *Lundaïn* as a compound of *Lun* and *tain*, (becoming *dain* in composition). *Lun* implies an expanse of water, and *Tain* is the British name for Thames. This river formerly spread its waters over a considerable tract of land from Battersea to Erith; and from Kentish town over most of the intermediate space to St. George's Fields, &c. *Caer Lundaïn*, therefore, means literally *the town on the broad water of the Tain or Thames*. The Britons would not have used *Caer* with *Lundaïn* if the last syllable had been *din*, a town, as it would be a palpable pleonasm; neither would the Saxons have called it *Lunden*-ceaster, *Lundenburg*, and *Lundenwic*, if the same termination had been identified with *den*, *ton*, or *toun*, for the same reason.

But to return from this digression to the work before us.

Those who are acquainted with Mercier's *Tableau de Paris* may, perhaps, from the similarity of title, expect a resemblance between that rambling, desultory but entertaining publication, and the "Picture of London;" this, however, is by no means the case. The former paints the gay fantastic and ever-changing scenes of the French metropolis, having principally in view the amusement of the reader; while the chief object of the latter, is to perform the office of an active and intelligent *ciceroni*, and founds its claim to public esteem upon the accuracy and utility of the information which it communicates. We are, indeed, in the course of the volume, presented with "a sketch of the state of society and manners in London;" but this, in our opinion, constitutes by no means the most valuable or interesting part. It is drawn up in a stiff inflated style, and abounds with invectives that will, by most, be ascribed to mortified vanity, rather than philosophic discrimination. The hacknied complaints of the neglect of genius and literary talents are truly absurd. In the commercial part of the town, wealth will necessarily obtain the highest consideration; in the courtly circles, rank and influence must be the chief centres of attraction; nor is it to be supposed that genius, destitute of common sense, should be respected by the one, or be a favourite

\* By the difference in style and sentiments, that appear in this work, we are induced to believe that two or three writers have been employed in the compilation of it.

with the other, except when allied with the graces.

The following is a specimen of the paltry declamation, which in more places than one, deforms a work, possessing in other respects much merit.

"The wide expansion of literature has been an augmenting fountain of knowledge, ever since priestcraft and bigotry became palsied by those energies of mind, which have of late years burst forth with an invincible and gigantic dominion. Every man, nay almost every woman, now reads, thinks, projects, and accomplishes. The force of human reflection has taken off the chain which once shackled the mind; and the poorest peasant is at this period enabled to trace the language of truth in pages calculated by the plainest doctrines and the most rational reasoning, to awaken, enlighten, harmonize, regulate, and refine the human understanding.

"The metropolis presents such an extensive field for the display of talents, that the observer is bewildered where to choose its samples of superior excellence.

"Literature, in all its branches, has claimed the laurel; and the distinctions of fame have not been confined either to rank, sex, or profession, yet the tree of knowledge has flourished spontaneously; for patronage has been frigid; and the lot of the sons and daughters of the muses has been too often marked by neglect, or chequered by calamity; men and women of superior literary endowments are rarely seen at the tables of the wealthy and ennobled. The most obscure habitations have known no cheering ray, excepting that which mental lustre has diffused; and even our prisons have been illumined by the brilliancy of talents, which would have spread the brightest radiance round the throne of Britain.

"It is singular that in an age when literature and the arts are so generally cultivated, when books are known to enlighten all classes of the people, authors of acknowledged celebrity should so rarely mingle with the *soi-disant* patrons of the muses. The cabinets of our statesmen are closed against the *aristocracy of genius*; the habitations of our nobles are also unfrequented by artists of every description, excepting when they are daily employed in the labours of their profession, even in public they are seldom acknowledged; and if by chance they are recognised, it is by a nod of condescension, which mortifies and degrades the person whom it ostentatiously aims to distinguish."

We hope that the following remarks on a popular publication will have some effect in counteracting its prejudicial tendency.

"A book of great popularity, written by a very celebrated magistrate, has spread an opi-

nion among foreigners, among Englishmen, residing in remote parts of the country, and even among many of the inhabitants of this city, of extreme depravity and dishonesty in the two large classes of poor shop-keepers and labourers. This gentleman and his book remind us of the satire of Musæus; who in writing a work to ridicule the abuse of the science of physiognomy, has introduced a magistrate a physiognomist, that sees a villain in every face, having himself had little commerce but with rogues.

"The author we allude to has written a large book to prove the incompetence of the police of London to its purposes. It would be curious to see what that gentleman would make of London, by planting his bodies of police officers at pleasure, and erecting his central board of police in the heart of the metropolis. We have heard of a brick-maker who never saw a green field, or a corn field, without comparing its small profit to the owner, with the profit of one of his brick-fields, in the vicinity of London. A police officer may wish to turn the metropolis into a warehouse, filled with his sort of goods, but two of the things in London that fill the mind of the intelligent observer with the most delight, are, the slightness of the restraints of police, and the general good order that mutually illustrate each other. A few old men (called watchmen), mostly without arms, are the only guard through the night, against depredations; and a few magistrates, and police officers, the only persons employed to detect and punish depredators; yet we venture to assert, that no city in proportion to its trade, luxury, and population, is more free from danger to those who pass the streets at all hours, or from depredations, open or concealed, on property."

Though we find some defects in the work, and have stated a few objections, yet we wish them to be considered as suggestions for improvement, rather than unqualified censure. To notice some of its advantages will be a more grateful part of our duty. The volume is divided into several distinct chapters, which are again subdivided under different heads, and the whole is accompanied with an alphabetical index; a map of London, another of the environs twelve miles round it, and embellished with seven small prints. In the course of the work we discover some curious and original information concerning many of the public places, hospitals, churches, &c. and the various and honourable charities which dignify the British name and its metropolis.

The capital of England is, perhaps, without exception, the most wealthy, extraordinary, and admirable city in the

world. Annually augmenting in build, ing, and inhabitants; its magnitude, population and wealth excite the greatest astonishment. The busy citizens are so much involved in the speculations and concerns of trade, that they have neither time, nor inclination, to calculate the extent of the city that they live in. The following extracts on this subject will enable the stranger to form some estimate of its present state, annual consumption of food, &c.

"There is one cause of the general salubrity of London, that leads us to its consumption of food. Perhaps no city exists in the world, where the labouring people, and certainly none where the middling classes, enjoy so large a share in the necessaries and inferior comforts of life, as in this metropolis; and that liberality of condition is no doubt a powerful agent in the health, as well as the happiness, of a people. The great quantity of animal food consumed in London is a proof of the liberal condition of the bulk of the inhabitants; for though there are wealthy persons who waste a great deal of animal food in the composition of certain dishes, yet their number is so small, that the waste is not to be taken for much in a comparison with the whole consumption.

"*Animal food.*—The number of bullocks annually consumed in London is 110,000; of sheep and lambs, 776,000; calves, 210,000; hogs, 200,000; sucking pigs, 60,000; besides other animal food.

"It does not, however, give a perfect idea of the immense consumption of animal food in London, to speak only of the number of bullocks, and other animals, brought to the London market; their size, and fine condition, should be seen by a stranger, to enable him to judge of its extent. Improvements in the breed and feeding of bullocks and sheep, have, within the last forty-five years, added, at least, one-half to the former average weight of those animals. The present average weight of bullocks is 800 pound each; calves, 140; and sheep, 80; lambs, 50.

"*Milk.*—The quantity of milk consumed in London surprises foreigners; and yet few strangers have even a suspicion of the amount of that consumption, which is not less than 6,980,000 gallons annually. The number of cows kept for this supply, is 8,500; the sum paid by the retailers of milk to the cow-keepers, is annually 240,833*l.* on which the retailers lay an advance of *cent. per cent.* making the cost to the inhabitants the annual sum of 481,666*l.* Not content with this profit, the retailers add water to the milk, to the extent, on an average, of a sixth part. Although the cow-keepers do not themselves adulterate the milk (it being the custom for the retailer to contract for the milk of a certain number of cows, which are

milked by his own people), yet they are not wholly to be acquitted of the guilt; for in the milk-rooms, (places where the milk is measured from the cow-keeper to the retailer,) pumps are erected for the express purpose of furnishing water for the adulteration, which is openly performed before any person who happens to be on the spot.

"*Vegetables, and Fruit.*—There are 10,000 acres of ground near the metropolis, cultivated wholly for vegetables, and about 4,000 acres for fruit, to supply the London consumption. The sum paid at market for vegetables, annually, is about 645,000*l.*; and for fruit, about 400,000*l.* independently of the advance of the retailers, which, on an average, is more than 200*l. per cent.* making the entire cost of vegetables and fruit for the London supply upwards of 8,000,000*l.* sterling.

"*Wheat, Coals, Ale, and Porter, &c.*—The annual consumption of wheat in London is 700,000 quarters, each containing eight Winchester bushels; of coals 600,000 chaldrons, 36 bushels in each chaldron; of ale and porter, 1,113,500 barrels, each containing 34 gallons; spirituous liquors and compounds, 11,146,782 gallons; wine, 32,500 tons; butter about 16,600,000 pounds; and of cheese, about 21,100,000 pounds.

"*Fish, Poultry, &c.*—The quantity of fish consumed in London is comparatively small, fish being excessively dear; and this is, perhaps, the most culpable defect in the supply of the capital, the rivers of Britain, and the seas round her coast, teeming with that delicate and useful food. There are not more, on an average, than 14,500 boat loads of cod, and other sea fish, brought annually to the London market, exclusive of mackerel, which is sometimes plentiful, and tolerably cheap. Poultry is seldom at the tables of any but the wealthy and luxurious, the supply being, from the state of agriculture, inadequate to a general consumption, and the price most exorbitant. Although game is not sold publicly, the quantity consumed in London is very considerable, and it finds its way by presents, and even by clandestine sale, to the houses of the middling classes. Venison is sold in London (chiefly at the pastry-cooks) at a moderate rate; but great part of the whole consumption of this article, (which is considerable) is at the tables of the proprietors of deer-parks, or their friends.

"*Quality of Provisions.*—Provisions in London are generally of the most excellent kind. A portion, however, of the animal food, is ill fed, and even some of it unfit for consumption; but this is, in fact, a very small portion, and if the poor were aware of its being really dearer than meat of the highest price, it would soon be banished from the London market, as it ought to be, for want of sale. However small the quantity a poor family can afford to consume, more nourishment would be derived from half that quan-

city of wholesome and well-fed meat, with a due proportion of vegetables. The improvements we have mentioned in the breed and feeding of cattle and sheep, although they add greatly to the bulk, by no means tend to ameliorate the quality of the meat, which, however it may astonish in point of fatness, is thus rendered coarse and insipid."

By the following list of PLACES OF PUBLIC WORSHIP we may safely infer, that religion is not totally neglected in this gay city; and when we know that almost all these places are generally well filled, it is highly honourable to the moral character of the inhabitants.

"As a general toleration in religion prevails in this kingdom, London is distinguished by the number and variety of its places of worship. It contains 116 churches of the established religion; 62 chapels of ease, being chapels of the established religion in parishes, the population of which is too great for the magnitude of their respective churches; 11 roman catholic chapels; 17 churches and chapels belonging to foreign protestants; 6 synagogues, or places of worship for the Jews; and 132 meeting houses, or places of worship belonging to different English protestants dissenting from the established religion; making a total of 344.

"*Hospitals, and Charitable Institutions.*—Among the moral features of the metropolis, is the multitude of its institutions for the relief of the indigent and poor, in their various wants. Besides two hospitals supported at the public charge, (one for maintenance of invalid seamen, and the other for invalid soldiers), (*Greenwich and Chelsea*) London has 22 hospitals, or asylums, for the sick and lame, and pregnant women; 107 alms-houses, for the maintenance of old men and women; 18 institutions for the maintenance of indigent persons of various other descriptions; 17 dispensaries for gratuitously supplying the poor with medicine, and medical aid, at their own dwellings; 41 free-schools, with perpetual endowments, for educating and maintaining 8,500 children of both sexes; 17 other public schools, for deserted and poor children; 165 parish schools, supported by their respective parishes, with the

aid of occasional voluntary contributions, which, on an average, clothe and educate 6000 boys and girls; and in each parish a workhouse, for maintaining its own helpless poor. But this ample list of public charities does not include the whole account. In the city of London, belonging to its corporation, there are 91 public companies, who distribute above 75,000*l.* annually, in charity; and the metropolis has beside, a multitude of institutions, either for the education or relief of those who are actually distressed, of a less public and prominent nature than the above, but which immensely swell the aid given to the indigent. It is difficult even to discover each of these institutions, many of them being in obscure parts of the town, and so little ostentatious, as to assume no public mark of their existence; but the sum annually expended in the metropolis, in charitable purposes, independent of the private relief given to individuals, has been estimated at 850,000*l.*

"Most of the hospitals and asylums were founded by private munificence. Of these some are endowed with perpetual revenues, and others supported by annual, or occasional, voluntary contributions. The alms-houses were built and endowed either by private persons, or corporate bodies of tradesmen. Many of the free-schools sprang from the same origin. The magnitude of several of the buildings, dedicated to public charities, deserve the traveller's notice; but that which graces the capital and the nation with more unequivocal honour, is the general administration of the public charities. The wards of a London hospital do not form a contrast with its exterior magnificence, by filth and a niggardly measure of the aid afforded to the unfortunate inhabitants. The medical assistance is the best the profession can supply; the attendance is ample, and the persons employed in that office as humane as its nature admits of; the rooms cleanly, and as wholesome as care can render the dwelling of a multitude of diseased persons; and the food is proper for the condition of the patients. In the alms-houses and other buildings, for the maintenance of indigent old age, and other decayed people, there is not only an air, but a real possession of competence and ease, that cannot be too highly spoken of."

ART. IX. *The History and Antiquities of Reading.* By the Rev. CHARLES COATES, LL. B. and F. S. A. 4to. pp. about 500.

THOUGH the writings of the topographer and antiquary may appear much depreciated when put in competition with the more brilliant emanations of genius, yet if executed with taste and judgment, they will eventually secure a lasting reputation to the writer, and be of local and general importance, in pro-

portion to the magnitude and celebrity of the subject.

The county of Berks presents much interesting matter for the topographer; yet it has never derived any material illustration from local historians. *Antiquary* published three volumes, which consisted principally of church notes, and



monumental inscriptions; and Pote has given us a quarto volume relating to the history of Windsor; but these are not only very superficial in their execution, but replete with trifles, and rendered extremely uninteresting, by poverty of style and want of arrangement. We, therefore, hail the appearance of a new work as a truly desirable event, and as Mr. Coates's book treats of the principal town in the county, we shall at once gratify our own feelings, and perform our duty to the author and our readers, by giving an ample account of it.

The work before us commences with an advertisement, wherein the author states, that "The history of Reading has been compiled from the most authentic materials which could be procured." These were from the British Museum, the Tower, the Roll and Augmentation offices, and from some private collections. Thus assisted, Mr. Coates has made a large quarto volume, relating to the public and private annals of Reading, which appears to be first noticed by historians in 871, when the Danes made themselves masters of the town and castle. From that time until 1086, the historical events are comprised in a few lines. These describe principally the devastation committed by the Danes, and are extracted from *Hoveden*, and the *Saxon Chronicle*. The notice of Reading from Doomesday-book, with its explanation, and a short comment, carries us to 1121, at which time the magnificent abbey was founded by Henry the first, who was buried within its walls in 1135. The reigns of Stephen, Henry II. and the succeeding monarchs to Edward VI. present only superficial notices; and the annals of Reading, during those periods, are almost literal extracts from the parish registers. From this barren scene we only begin to emerge during the reign of Charles the first: in whose busy and momentous sovereignty, Reading became the theatre of transactions which create a more lively interest; the principal particulars of which it may not be uninteresting to detail.

In 1625, during the plague in London, the Michaelmas term was held here by the king's proclamation, dated from the court at Salisbury. On this occasion, the great hall, (yet standing) and other places of the "decayed monasterie of

Reading" were used for the courts. In 1642, we have the first hint of the troubles, in which this town afterwards took so busy a part. The king's messenger, who came with his master's orders to raise the power of the country, was stopped. Soon after was fought the memorable battle of Edge Hill; when the disaffected governor, (Martin) quitting the town abruptly, it fell into the king's hands. It appears that the inhabitants of Reading were for the parliament, and that the mayor remaining loyal, was attempted to be ridiculed by the following ludicrous story propagated concerning him:

"At the king's coming to Reading, a speech was made unto him by the mayor of the towne; wherein after he had in the best words he could devise, bid him welcome thither, for want of more matter he concluded very abruptly. Not long after, he invited prince Robert to a sumptuous dinner, providing for him all the dainties he could get, but especially a woodcock which he brought in himself. Prince Robert gave him many thanks for his good chere, and asked him whose was all that plate that stood upon the cupboard. The mayor, who had set out all his plate to make a shew, and besides had borrowed a great deal of his neighbours to grace himself withall, replied, 'and please your highnesse, that plate is mine.' 'No,' quoth the prince, 'this plate is mine;' and so accordingly he took it all away, bidding him be of good chere, for he took it as the parliament took it, upon the public faith."

The town was now garrisoned for the king, who being unable to manage matters with his parliament, shortly afterwards removed to Oxford. Of the famous siege which followed, a very copious and exact account is given, chiefly taken from *Clarendon* and the newspapers of the day: to this is added a minute *journal* of the proceedings of the parliament army during the time. This curious document was written by Sir Samuel Luke, that renowned hero of Butler's satirical poem. It was presented to Mr. Coates by John Nicholls, the historian of Leicestershire.

The parliamentary forces were successful in this enterprize; though it seems sufficiently evident from Sir Samuel's statement, that the success was owing to the treachery of those intrusted with the care of the town, rather than to necessity, or a fear of their opponents. In a short time afterwards it was again retaken by prince Rupert, who soon

evacuated it, and it once more fell into the enemies hands. Thus, tossed about like a football from one party to the other, the sufferings of the inhabitants must have been great! Of the nature of their distresses we may form some opinion from a petition which they presented to Charles, while under his government, and from the following observation: that "the whole country being in a miserable situation, there was hardly a sheep, hen, hog, oats, hay, wheat, or any other thing for man or beast to feed upon." That internal peace, which has happily prevailed in this country ever since, and given security to property, and vigour to industry, has also nearly cancelled every memorial of civil warfare.

"The only remains of the fortifications of Reading, are some traces of earth-works on a rising ground, near the west end of Castle street, probably the site of 'the invincible fort' called, 'Harrison's barn,' and the high rampart which passes near the west end of the abbey church, crossing the cloister court, now a garden, and forming a hornwork, which ends at Forbury hill. The embrasures, or openings for cannon, were remaining in the plummery wall not many years since."

The king, soon after these events, was taken prisoner and beheaded. It appears that his tragical death restored tranquillity to this distracted town.

Reading once more reposed in peace, and nothing of moment is recorded in the time of the commonwealth. During Charles the second's reign, we have merely an account of some alterations which were made on the restoration of monarchy, with the ceremony of receiving the king and his queen when they visited the town. In the reign of his bigotted successor James, the skirmish is described which happened between the partizans of the latter and the prince of Orange.

The historical notices of Reading finish with a memorandum dated October the 7th, 1700, when queen Anne was to pass through the town, and it was "ordered that the chamberlain do provide 40 broad pieces of gold to present her majesty with in a new purse, being the first time of her progress through this corporation."

The account of "the guild or corporation" which follows, is chiefly occupied by the quarrels that were continually happening between the abbots and the townsmen. This appears to have

been the case in many other places besides Reading. The inhabitants in the vicinity of monasteries were seldom disposed to brook the extensive powers vested in the church, which were not unfrequently exercised in the most arbitrary manner. After the dissolution, Elizabeth granted to the corporation a charter of privileges, which, with additions, has been continued to the present time.

Having thus accompanied our author through his summary of the history of this "ancient town," we hasten to the description of it in its present state.

The church of *St. Mary*, claims priority in this survey, as the *oldest* structure, and excepting this merit, it seems to have little worthy of remark. Some of its monumental inscriptions may be worth transcribing in a local history; but we can scarcely think the reader will be amused or gratified in reading every partial eulogy which is to be found in this and the other church. Nor can it be very interesting or important to transcribe *all* the achievements, lists of vicars, histories of the vicarages, incumbents of the chauntries, benefactions, registers, &c.

The church of *St. Laurence* is the next in order which the author visits. And this, like the former, is minutely described. In the catholic era, this church made a splendid appearance. It had then a great number of altars, images, paintings, relics, &c.: amongst the latter we are informed that there was a *silver gridiron*, with a *bone* of the *patron saint*. These monuments have been long swept away, and *St. Laurence* boasts nothing particular at present above other country churches. If, however, the antiquary should not find his curiosity completely gratified by these alterations, the philanthropist will not regret them when contemplating the numerous charities which have sprung up since, and which have directed benevolence into a much more useful channel. One of these was appropriated to the foundation of a school for females, which, from very inconsiderable beginnings, has arisen to be of the most extensive utility. Another charity, calculated to be of still more beneficial effect, though apparently much abused, is that of *Mr. John Kendrick*, who in 1624, gave the sum of 7500*l.* to establish a manufactory for

employing the poor of the town in the woollen trade.

The Abbey, as the leading object of curiosity in Reading, is described in the most circumstantial manner, and the transactions which took place in the reigns of the different princes who succeeded the founder, are minutely and regularly narrated. Reading abbey was of first-rate consequence among the religious houses in this kingdom, and accordingly it enjoyed privileges of the highest importance; particularly that of *coining*. Specimens of its money are given in a miscellaneous plate. But the grandeur of its establishment will be better estimated from the number of its officers and domestics,

"To make some guess at the state and magnificence of abbeys, there needs only to enumerate the offices of the servants appointed, at a time when *great economy* was thought necessary. These were, 1. the marshal, or master of the horse to the abbot; 2. the keeper of the pantry; 3. his cupbearer; 4. a janitor, who dined in the abbot's hall; and 5. his page; 6. 7. the master cook and his boy; 8. the chamberlain of the abbot, who carved at his table; 9. his boy; 10. a door keeper of the abbot's hall; 11. an underkeeper of the pantry; 12. an under cupbearer; 13. an hostler, in waiting to receive strangers; 14. a keeper of the wine cellar, to attend upon the abbot after dinner in his own apartment; 15. the abbot's under cook; 16. the abbot's third cook, who had the care of the larder; 17. 18. 19. the abbot's carter, his boy, and the under carter; 20. the abbot's huntsman; 21. the prior's cook; 22. the head cook of the monastery; 23. the chief baker; 24. the under doorkeeper; 25. one in waiting upon the under chamberlain; 26. 27. the abbot's palfrey-keeper and his page; 28. 29. 30. the under chamberlain's boy, two boys to attend the abbot's company or visitors; 31. the abbot's running footman; 32. the boy who waited in the refectory; 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. the cook of the infirmary and four attendants. But, in alleviation of the annual expenditure, the official refectations or days of feasting, supplied by those who had offices in the abbey, were reduced to ten, belonging to the treasurer and cellarer."

Among other particulars in the history of the above abbey, are lists of bishops, consecrated in its church, beginning with Jocelyn Wells, A. D. 1206, accompanied with biographical anecdotes, together with the lives of all the abbots from *Hugh*, archbishop of Bour-

deaux, in 1126, to *Hugh Farrington*, who suffered for contumacy under Henry the eighth. The ruins of this once extensive building are particularly described, and their progressive dilapidation and decay are minutely traced. A plan of the abbey is also annexed, from a survey by sir Henry Englefield, who communicated it with some description to the archæologia.

Another religious edifice described as having existed at Reading, is the friery. Of this place the author observes there are few historical notices remaining, farther than can be gathered from a letter of archbishop Peckham in the 13th century, addressed to the abbot, praying his protection for the friers belonging to it. St. John's hospital, was a third monastic establishment in this town, and appropriated principally to females. Each sister had an allowance of *one farthing* for meat, on the days when it was permitted to be eaten. "At Easter and Christmas, one halfpenny was paid to each sister, and to the prioress a *penny*: A brother or sister convicted of incontinence was to be expelled for ever."

This hospital was afterwards dissolved, and endowed as a grammar school by Henry VII. whose portrait on board, with an inscription underneath, is said to be in the possession of the schoolmaster.

A list of different persons educated in this school is subjoined to the account, in which appear some names of note.

Among the masters who have presided here, we find *Leonard Cocker*, author of a very scarce book, entitled, "The Art or Crafte of Rhetoryke."\* The antiquity and rarity of this work, and the singular style and sentiments contained in the dedication, will justify us in extracting the latter at length, as a "curiosity of literature."

"To the reverende father in God the singuler good lorde, the lorde Hugh Faryngton abbot of Redynge, his pore client and perpetual servant Leonard Cockes desyreth longe and prosperous lyfe with increase of honour.

"Consyderynge my speciall good lorde how greatly and how many wayes I am bounden to your Lordshypp, and among other that in so great a nombre of conynne men whiche are now within this region it hath pleased your goodness to accept me as worthy to have the charge of the instruction and

\* Published in 1532.

brýngginge up of such youth as resorteth to your grammar schole, founded by your antecessours in this your towne of Redyng, I studied a long space what thyng I might do next the busy and diligent occupieng of myselfe in your said servyce, to the whiche bothe conscience and your stipende doth staytly bynde me, that myght be a significacion to my faithfull and serysable hart which I owe to your lordeshypp, and agayne a long memory bothe of your singular and beneficiale favour toward me: and of myn industry and diligence employed in your servyce to some profite: or at the least way to some delectacion of the inhabitantes of this noble realme now flourishyng under the most excellent and victorious pryncce our soverain lorde kyng Henry the viii.

"And whan I had thus long prepensed in my mynde what thyng I might best chose out: non offryd itselfe more convenient to the profyte of yonge students (which your good lordshyp hath alwayes tenderly favoured) and also meter to my p'session; than to make some proper werke of the right pleasaunt and persuable art of Rhetoryke."

"Wyllynge to my parte to helpe such as are desirouse of this arte, (as all surely ought to be which entende to be regarded in any comynaltie) I have partly translated out a werke of Rhetorique wyrtyn in the Latin tongue: and partly compyled of myn owne: and so made a lytle treatyse in maner of an Introductyon into this aforesayd Science: and that in our Englyshe tongue. Remembryng that every good thyng (after the saying of the Philosopher) the more comon it is: the more better it is. And furthermore trustynge thereby to do some pleasure and ease to such as have by negligence or else fals persuacions be put to the lernyng of other sciences or ever they have attayned any meane knowledge of the Latin tongue.

"Whiche my sayd labour I humbly offre to your good Lordshyp, as to the chyefe maintener and nourysher of my study, beseechynge you, though it be ferre within your merites done to me, to accepte it as the fyrst assay of my pore and simple wytt, which if yt may fyrst please your Lordshyp, and next the reders, I trust by the ayd of Almighty God to endyte other werkes both in this faculty and other to the laude of the hygh Godhed, of whom all goodnesse dothe proceed, and to your Lordshypps pleasure, and to profyte and delectacion of the rede."

The author divides his subject into four parts; invention, judgement, disposition, and eloquence in speaking: but the present treatise is confined to the first.

The author thus concludes:

"In the mene space I beseeche the reders (yf they finde any thyng therein that may do them any profyte) that they gve the thanks to God and to your Lordshyp, and that they will of theyre charitie pray unto the blessyd Trinite for me, that whan it shall plesse the Godhed to take me from this transitory lyfe, I may by his mercy be of the nombre of his elect to p'petuall salvacion."

"Imprinted at London in Flete strete by St. Dunstones chyrche, at the sygne of the George, by me Robert Redman. The yere of our lorde God a thousand, fyve hundred and two and thyrty."

"CUM PRIVILEGIO."

Palmer, the martyr, was one of the masters of this school, as was also *Thackham*; who, from a controversy with George Fox, the martyrologist, which is detailed, appears to have been the means of bringing Palmer to the stake. This controversy is extracted from the Har. MSS. as published by Strype in his "Memorials." Besides the above, there are short memoirs of all the other masters down to the present.

The survey finishes with *St. Giles's* church, which contains nothing sufficiently particular to interest a stranger. In the lives of the vicars of this parish, under the article *Talbot*, is an account of *Jonathan Britain*, who was some years since hanged for forgery, and who at one time excited much notoriety as the person concerned in setting fire to Portsmouth dock.

A biographical account of the most remarkable persons who have been born or flourished in Reading, very properly concludes the volume. Among the former are the names of *Robert of Reading*, *William Boteler* and *John Lutterbury*, and that great benefactor to the town, *Sir Thomas White*. A memoir of archbishop Laud occupies several pages, and is impartially drawn up. In addition to the circumstances usually narrated of this celebrated character, is a very particular and interesting account of his behaviour on the scaffold, from the manuscript of a gentleman who attended him in his last moments.\* With this we shall conclude our extracts.

"At the beheading of the right rev. father in God, William Laud, Archbishope of Canterbury; I, S. F. (Simon Forster) was present with him and observed these circumstances following: About 11 o'clock he was

\* This is written on two blank pages of a 4to. pamphlet, entitled, *The Archbishop of Canterbury's Speech, or his Funeral Sermon*. Printed in 1644. The book is in the library of the late John Loveday, Esq.

brought to the scaffold strongly guarded. He was in his ordinary hat, faced with taffety; a velvet cap, a narrow band and cuffs, a cloth gown new and plaine, a grogerome cassock, a broad priestly girdle, a new sute like serge, made after an old fashion the doublet with 12 small skirts, a pair of trunke breeches straightened above the knee, a pair of garters, a red waistcoate tied with green strings, and edged in like manner, a clene shirt of ordinary whiteness and fineness. Soone after he came to the former part of the scaffold, he read this speech, or rather spake this sermon, looking on his paper at the beginning of every sentence, standing all that while leaning upon the great crosse barre of the scaffold. Before he began, when signes for silence were made, he putt off his hatt, butt presently put it on againe, and after he had done reciting this to the people he kneeled downe and prayed, for the most part with his eyes on the same paper, which was folded in 4to. length butt doubled againe in the breadth. Assoone as he had ended the Lord's prayer rising up he putt on his hatt, looked often on each side, and downe to those before the stage. He did not so much as seeme once fearfull all the while he was on the scaffold, eyther in his countenance voice or gesture. He read without spectacles. He spake divers times to some on the scaffold; he gave money and other things (I thinke, for then his back was to me ward) out of his pocket. Dr. Sterne and Dr. Gouge\* spake to him whilst he pulled off his things. He pulled off first his cuffs, then his silken girdle, his hatt, band, gowne cassock, doublet, and instead of his black, put on a plaine, wide, white, cleane linen cap; and so kneeling downe againe in his red waistcoate on the further side of the blocke, with his face the same way it was at first, he prayed over the same with his eyes and handes lifted up, withoute any boke (for he before this had given his forementioned papers to Dr. Herne) and then plucking downe his cap over his eyes, he laide his head upon the block, which was after a little pause (in which an officer standing by, drew his knife, cut open the archbishops waistcoate and shirt from the hinder part of the neck downeward, and turned the same backward because of the shortness of his neck, and that nothing might dull or hinder the axe) cutt of the head at one blow. The executioner presently took up the head and shewed the face to the people (which in bothe the Hothams† was to my knowledge omitted) I saw it plainly whilst in his hand, it looked still even as before, very fresh. It was somewhat past 12 oclock when the blow was given. There was a servant of the arch-

bishop's (whose name I thinke was Dell‡) that tooke and helde there on his arme all the things his lorde putt off. He neyther had, nor desired any psalm to be sung. Few mourned there, one upon the scaffold hard by my lord, laughed audibly, whilst the archbishop looked about after his first prayer: about the same time a poor rude fellow that stood on the grounde before the scaffold called to the archbishop, and praied him to give him his hatt, or change with him for his old one, which, he said, would serye his turne as well for what he had to do. He spake nothing at all expressly concerning the Scotts, Irish, or the present warre, or any private person as was expected. His countenance did not once alter all the while he was upon the scaffold.

At the beginning of the printed copy of the speech is written as follows:

"I. S. F. noted the differences between the paper the archbishop had in his hand, and which was printed twice at Oxford in Mercurius Aulicus, and in the brief account of his life and death; and this, printed at London, amidst his enemies that murdered and martyred him."

The printed account says:

"When the archbishop had finished his first prayer, he gave his paper to Dr. Sterne saying, 'Dr. I give you this that you may shew it to your fellow chaplains, that they may see how I am gone out of the world; and God's blessing and his mercy be upon them.' Then turning to master Hinde he said, 'Friend I beseech you, hear me. I cannot say I have spoken every word as it is in my paper, but I have gone very neare it to help my memory as I could, but I beseech you to let me have no wrong done me.'

"*Hide.*—'Sir you shall not. If I do any wrong let it fall on my own head. I pray God have mercy on your soule.'

"*Cant.*—'I thank you: I did not speak with any jealousie as if you would doe soe; but I spake it only as a poore man going out of the world. It is not possible for me to keepe to the words of my paper; and a phrase may do me wrong. I did thinke here would have been an empty scaffold that I might have had room to die; I beseech you let me have an end of this misery, for I have endured it long.'

"When room was made he spake thus: 'I'll pull off my doublet and God's will be done; I am willing to go out of this world; no man can be more willing to send me out, than I am willing to be gone.'

"Seeing through the chinks of the board that some people were under the scaffold,

\* Perhaps Dr. Wm. Gouge, Fast Oxon. I. 114. Neale 4. 82.

† Beheaded on Tower-Hill, on January 1 and 2, 1644.

‡ The name of the archbishop's secretary was William Dell, who was appointed his solicitor at his trial. Canterbury's Doom, 380, 381. Hist. of his Troubles and Trial, 211—393.



about the very place where the block was fixed, he called for the officer to stop them, or to remove the people, saying, 'It was no part of his desires that his blood should fall upon the people.' Sir John Clotworthy stepping to him near the block would needs propose some questions to him; and said, 'What special text of scripture now, is comfortable to a man in his departure?'

"*Cant.*—' *Cupio dissolvi, et esse cum Christo.*'

"*Sir J. C.*—'That is a good desire; but there must be a foundation for that desire, as assurance.'

"*Cant.*—'No man can express it; it is to be found within.'

"*Sir J. C.*—'It is founded upon a word though; and that word would be known.'

"*Cant.*—'That word is the knowledge of Christ, and that alone.' Then turning to the executioner he gave him money, saying, 'Here honest friend, God forgive thee, and doc thy office upon me in mercy.' The executioner desiring him to give some sign when he should strike, he answered, 'yes, I will, but let me fit myself first.' Then kneeling down on his knees, he repeated a short prayer, and when he said, 'Lord, receive my soul,' which was his sign, the executioner did his office."

This worthy, though misguided man, was extremely charitable, and Reading deservedly ranks him among her best benefactors.

Besides the foregoing, we have a good account of John Blagrove, a very eminent mathematician, William Baker, an extraordinary genius, Sir John Barnard, the famous alderman of London, and John Rowell, an excellent painter on glass.

The appendix contains the different charters granted to the town, as likewise various papers relating to the abbey; also a list of the mayors from the 1st of Henry the fourth, together with lists of the high stewards, burgesses to serve in parliament, &c.

Besides a well executed plan of the town, this volume contains seven plates, drawn and engraved in the aquatinta style by Tomkins.

The want of a copious index is a very considerable defect in the work; and we are sorry to observe *three full pages* of "additions and corrections."

ART. X. *Observations on a Tour, through almost the Whole of England, and a considerable Part of Scotland; in a Series of Letters, addressed to a large Number of intelligent and respectable Friends. By Mr. DIBDIN. 2 vols. 4to. with Plates. pp. 811.*

IN reviewing the work before us, we are induced to appropriate a larger portion of our miscellany than the real importance of it merits, or than the garrulity and dogmatism of its author justly entitle him to. But we should not feel satisfied in passing a hasty censure on the writings of a man who has acquired much publicity, and whose poetical and musical talents have so deservedly obtained him fame and friends, without enabling our readers to take a fair view of his literary pretensions in the present instance.

The work is written in the epistolary style, and divided into eighty-eight letters, addressed, as the title-page informs us, to "a large number of intelligent friends," amounting to eleven gentlemen, who, it seems, were solicited to correct inaccuracies of "time and place, and to give the author such advice and information as might be useful to him in the prosecution of his plan." The sincerity of this solicitation, from so professed an egotist, we are very much inclined to doubt; that it has produced nothing to his readers, we can easily conceive; and

the only end which it can have answered to himself, perhaps the only end proposed, is the public implication of his worthy correspondents, in his own errors and mistatements.

The substance of the work is principally formed of observations on men and manners, delivered in the same strain of imposing humour, and conscious penetration, which has hitherto been the characteristic of this author's prose productions. His various professional trips through the English and Scottish provinces, at different periods, have naturally led to an extensive range of social intercourse, and furnished him with a medley of ideas, derived from very incongruous and opposite sources. Indeed many of these have but little reference to a tour, and might have been descanted on as well by residing in London, as in travelling for them through England and Scotland. *Circulating libraries, servants, dogs, dialects, monopoly, retirement, the poor, the English and Scotch, boarding schools, omens, anonymous letters*, with a plenteous *et cetera*, form the subjects of distinct letters, and, in

turn, constitute themes of lengthened disquisition; while subjects of topographical, historical, or antiquarian interest, are occasionally brought in as auxiliaries in the route, *not* to be treated with the same measure of attention, but to furnish a joke or a good thing, at the expence of their more learned investigators.

Mr. D.'s book, however, as he expresses it, "will best tell its own story." Though, we presume, the following extract from the "advertisement," will not tell such a story as a man of common modesty would wish to relate of himself.

"So much mental and manual labour has rarely, perhaps *never*, been bestowed by *one* man on *any* production. Painting, which had been only my private amusement, out of devotion to the public, I have, in this instance, made one of my professions; and to those who love *truth* and *strength* of expression, I hope I have not tendered the appeal in vain. Beyond this, out of respect to my advice, a novice, as to the *schools* (Miss Dibdin,) but by no means as to *genius*, comes forward, blushing with apprehension of fancied censure and disapprobation, that *nobody* knows *better* than *I* do, are only visitors of the mind, under which she will be sure to discover candour and indulgence."

Again,

"The endless and unexampled variety which I have been three years in collecting, the *advice* and encouragement of *friends*, whose names are a powerful guarantee, and the lively pleasure, and laborious care, for which, I *flatter* myself, I have been given credit in *all* my pursuits: these, and other self-evident considerations, seem to render an address of this kind more customary than necessary."

Any comments on this passage would be unnecessary, had the reader an opportunity of comparing the execution of the work and the prints, with the author's *modest* sentiments in his own favour.

He proceeds to inform us, that this "work is embellished with forty views, and twenty vignettes. The views are done from pictures painted by Mr. D. The vignettes are invented, drawn, and put on the copper, by Miss D." Again, "as to the views, they are calculated to convey a fair idea of wide and massy effect, and not a slavish portraiture of national or provincial peculiarity." "The small plates with characters, are faithful representations of nature, without tameness or caricature." "They

have a spirit and originality which cannot be taught but by nature."

If by embellishments Mr. D. means such prints as are calculated to adorn or illustrate a work, we deem the term extremely inappropriate when applied to the aquatinta plates which are scattered through these volumes. To accuracy of drawing, aerial perspective, character of trees and mountains, and all the requisites for a *faithful representation* of nature, these prints have not the smallest claim.

Mr. D.'s work is arranged and divided into journeys. The first of these is from London to Canterbury, and this will afford a specimen of the manner adopted in the subsequent letters.

Some eight or nine lines of introduction are succeeded by the geographical position and boundaries of the county (this might be useful if correct, but wanting this very necessary requisite, it is likely to be more injurious than beneficial.) A passing hit at the antiquaries, and a peep at the intermediate stages, brings us to *Rochester*, whose castle Mr. D. avoids describing, as, "in his idea, ruins, and men hanging in chains, are melancholy objects." For a reason equally curious, "because every one knows it," he scarcely notices the city. This is the *substance* of the first letter. The next announces Mr. D.'s arrival at Canterbury.

Of this renowned and ancient city, every inquisitive reader is naturally induced to expect some detail; but our author prefers joke to description. We are told that the largest chapel contained "the shrine of Thomas à Becket, as he was called while the farce lasted."

"So many devotees came from all quarters to this shrine, and poured out their offerings so fast, that it became as really wealthy as it was fancied sacred. Erasmus, who was a wag, and who visited it, tells us, that a coffin of wood, which covered a coffin of gold, was drawn up by ropes and pulleys, and then an invaluable treasure was discovered; gold was the meanest thing to be seen there; all shined and glittered with the most precious jewels of an extraordinary size, some of which were larger than the egg of a goose. By which description Erasmus seems figuratively to have described what species of folly these egg-like jewels engendered."

"Henry VIII. however, who, like Estifania in the play, had an eye to gold and jewels, seized, in his usual way, upon every

thing; and pocketing the finery, and putting a stop to the oblations, established the cathedral upon its present foundation of a dean, twelve prebendaries, and other officers and servants."

This extract comprizes the *whole description of Canterbury cathedral*; and we do not know that any particular object is more fully described throughout the work.

As we do not mean to follow our tourist to every place he touches at, but merely to select such portions of his letters as afford a fair criterion of the respective merits and defects of the work, we must gallop through many counties with as much celerity as himself; turning westward, therefore, we pass by Salisbury, whose steeple is said to be like "a plant drawn out of a hot-house," to stop wherever the page of the itinerary will best exemplify our remarks; for instance,

"Stafford is a clean, handsome, dull town. It resembles, in these particulars, Doncaster. It has a handsome bridge, a handsome market place, a handsome town-hall, and a handsome jail. It is full of meeting houses, and it swarms with dissenters.

"To take a view of Staffordshire on the other side of Newcastle, we come to Stone, a place seated on the river Trent. It is a convenient post town in the road to Chester. Here many curious things are related of Saxon princes and warriors, and the names of Wolphere, Wolfaldus, Rufucius, and others, are called in to prove the existence of buildings which are now exterminated, and battles of which there are no traces; but as all these rest upon no better authority than an old writing, said to have been discovered by one Erdeswick, of which nobody now can produce any account, my readers will give as much attention to this string of uncertainties as they find it convenient."

Speaking of the antiquity of Nottingham, and the origin of mining in England (not very intimately connected with it,) Mr. D. observes in illustration,

"Certainly the rock on which Nottingham castle stands, has been hollowed at different times, and for different purposes, in a most extraordinary manner, and this has given opportunity, according to custom, to the illuminati, who generally *thicken in the clear*, so to confound the business, that a man of plain sense can make nothing out of them.

"I believe all that need be said about the matter is, that this town lies at a considerable distance from the road, and has therefore been a natural refuge against incursions;

it has from a very early period sustained great changes. We know, as circumstances which must have originated from this cause, that the court and the parliament have occasionally been hidden there for safety, even as far back as Richard I. We know, that in consequence of this, that it imbibed every courtly vice, witness the execution of Mortimer, for the tricks he played under cover of his too great familiarity with the queen mother, in the reign of Edward III. In short, from these and other things, it certainly must have been a place of great tumult, from remote times to the murdered Charles, who also there set up his standard. Fancying, however, that it had been awake long enough; it seems from that time to have fallen into a sound sleep, or rather, apathy, the whole town nodding in concert, and, by general consent, whether over their counters, their looms, or their ale. It is but justice, however, to say, that it is a large, handsome place, that the market is well supplied, that the piazza has a very convenient and comfortable appearance, and the view from the castle is full of various and extensive beauty.

"About seven miles from Nottingham, is the village of Gotham, celebrated ironically for its wise men; to support which stigma, they tell a number of stories of these harmless people; and, among the rest, that, as they had heard the cuckoo and never seen it, that they were at wonderful pains to hedge in a bush from whence it seemed its note proceeded. This bush they pretend to shew to strangers; all which seems to be extremely witty in its way. For my part, I thought them a very inoffensive people, and in no respect stupider than the people at Nottingham."

The reason Mr. D. characterizes the Nottingham people as very *sleepy* and *stupid*, appears afterwards to be in some degree accounted for. We are informed, in a subsequent letter, that the mayor, when Mr. D. solicited permission to perform his entertainment, refused, and treated him in rather a cavalier manner.

On introducing us to Warwickshire, our author seems affectingly anxious to avoid subjects of historical research: he thus begins his description of that county.

"I shall be obliged to pick my steps in Warwickshire, as in every other county, for fear of being interrupted by military ways, Roman stations, barrows, and other vestiges of antiquity, which at last were I to explore, I should find nothing but circumstances that hang, and that very slightly, upon conjecture. I shall therefore only say, that as the vulgar have it, I am ready to give them

all they know, and if it be true, that this was one of the five counties, which, at the arrival of the Romans, were inhabited by the Cornavii, and that under the Saxon heptarchy it formed part of Mercia, much good may it do those who have an inclination to be solicitous about it."

In the next letter, which announces Mr. Dibdin's arrival at Worcester, we have a specimen of the same sort.

"I shall beg the favor of you to attend me into another pleasant county, of which, though I do not mean to trouble either you or my readers with any of that solemn nonsense which has been so indefatigably promulgated as to its government, state, and boundaries, before the Saxon heptarchy, I hope to give you such general particulars as may satisfy enquirers who are more contented with reasonable and probable circumstances, than those which are neither interesting nor, indeed, authentic." Again,

"Being myself therefore obliged, according to my compact, to shew, that the world goes on very well, when the complexity of its construction is considered, and that, though mankind in general exert their talents as much as possible to their own advantage, yet they so need one another's assistance as to jumble pretty well together, considered that they are composed of that heap of jarring atoms in which they lay before they emancipated from chaos; and, above all, to prove, not by argument but fact, that if from this moment no further trace of the ancients were to be found, no contradictory conjectures made, if neither Roman bricks, heads of arrows, rusty armour, mutilated statues, defaced ruins, stone coffins, or other of those objects so greedily sought after, were again to be discovered, but to be for ever eclipsed from the perquisitions of all antiquarian Marplots, that the earth would revolve exactly as it does at present, and its inhabitants fulfil their duty rather better, since every man is sure to thrive best who minds his own affairs."

How far the wit and ingenuity of this curious theoretical deduction, may cover the paucity of the author's own historical "conjectures," or rather his convenient contempt of antiquities, is a question the "Marplots" will easily resolve. But lest the reader should feel dissatisfied with this sort of treatment, Mr. D. has offered the following very singular (and what he, no doubt, considers) sufficient apology.

"If I should be blamed for rather quoting

from my own diary, than collecting curious and authentic accounts of places, castles, churches, and other objects, which it is generally supposed to be the indispensable duty of a tourist to notice, I must excuse myself by saying, that I never meant, in the prosecution of this work, to sentence myself to any such hard labour. A little drudgery one must sometimes submit to, otherwise a tour might be as well fancied as taken. Local manners and pursuits, however, comprehend almost the whole of what is reasonably necessary to be known; and a writer will more worthily, because more usefully, employ his talents by stimulating one part of the kingdom to an imitation of what can instruct the mind, or warm the heart in another, than by an enumeration of all those miserable and ragged vestiges of barbarity, even could their origin, nature, use, and their long *et ceteras* of attributes, be ascertained. (He adds)

"On this account, I think it would be rather incurious to leave Penrith without noticing, that it is 19 miles south of Carlisle, and 222 north-west of London; that it is situated on a hill called Penrith, or Penrith Fell; that it is customary there to tan hides, and pot char; that there are represented in the market place a great many bears, each climbing up a ragged staff, &c." "I must reiterate, that such information is not to be considered as a right, but as a courtesy; and thus, you see, so I may but have my own way, such is the froward nature of mankind, I shall give as much material information\* in my efforts to exhilarate, as many matter-of-fact writers have done in their efforts to lull people asleep."

In this manner does Mr. D. at almost every place attempt to ridicule a species of learning which he confesses he can neither "understand nor enjoy;" which he is too indolent to endeavour to acquire, and would "rather take for matter of fact, than have the trouble to make out." It would be easy to select a long string of similar witticisms, and parallel passages with those that we have already quoted, for they in fact constitute the greater part of the work; but we will rather yield to the pleasing task of winnowing some of the grain from this mass of chaff, as a recreation to the reader and to ourselves.

The following description of hawking is interesting both from the vivacity with which it is related, and the uncommonness of the amusement in modern times.

\* As Mr. D. here condescends to indulge us with a sample of material information in his way, we feel bold enough to give it in ours as "matter of fact writers." Penrith is 282 miles north-west of London, and is situated in a valley, at the foot of a steep rise, whence its name is derived; viz. Penrith, or the Red Hill, in the present dialect of the north, generally called Penrith Fell.

"At Yarmouth, for the only time in my life, I saw the diversion of *hawking*, which, for the satisfaction of my readers, I shall take some pains to describe. The different species of the falcon, which are of the long winged hawk kind, are many of them used for this sport; and, with the immense sums which were formerly lavished away by the English nobles to train these birds, no doubt but the sagacity of every sort that could then be found has been tried, which, in the best ornithological accounts, amount to a great number. The falco peregrinus, or common falcon; the sacre, called falco sacer; the jer falcon, or gry falco; the gentil falcon, or falco gentilis; the mountain falcon, the haggard falcon, and, indeed many others, to the number of about fifteen, and these spread into a great variety. It is very probable, however, that the different ages of the same bird may give colour to these reports, as well as the accidental alterations in their appearance, occasioned by different climates; besides, out of curiosity, it is also likely that those who have trained them, may have contrived to couple them, so as to produce varieties, in the manner that bird fanciers manage with pigeons and canary birds. That hawks were formerly trained for the purpose of pitched battles in the air, as well as aerial chases, there can be no doubt; and in this case it must certainly have been extremely curious to have seen the haggard, which is the most obstinate and persevering of all the falcon tribe, meet the jer falcon, which is the largest and the strongest. At present I believe none are trained but the gentil falcon for the air, and the goss hawk, and sparrow hawk for the field, which dart upon hares and partridges in a most curious and unerring manner.

"Most extraordinary means are taken to bring these creatures to that degree of obedience necessary to hood them off, as it is called, at their prey. Their natural ferocity must be so managed as to be confined to one object; for instance, the goss hawk to a hare, the sparrow hawk to a partridge, and the falcon gentil to a crow; and, at the same time, they must be rendered so docile as to perch upon the falconer's fist, to come at his call, and be attracted by his lure.

"For these purposes they are hooded in a very curious manner, and so kept, except when they are fed, till by degrees, as they grow more familiar, for with all their courage, they are a very shy bird, the hood is taken off occasionally, and the falconer possesses their confidence to such a degree, that they become as obedient as spaniels.

"But the time and care necessary to bring about this degree of subjection, are astonishing; for if it be not done with the utmost precaution, the pains will be all thrown away. When the falcon is brought to this state, the next thing is to use it to the lure, which is a lump of feathers, with

such food tied to it as the bird likes best; and thus, by throwing out the lure, even when it is after its prey, it instantly returns with a velocity almost beyond itself; but this last is very seldom attempted, the lure being only for the purpose of enticing the falcon when there might be a danger, owing to the distance, of its being lost, which, however, is very seldom the case; for, even when it is out of human sight, it is very rare but it observes the lure, and so sure as it does, it comes to it.

"I have said so much, that the sport I shall now describe, may be better understood. I had been with my family on a visit to a gentleman of that meritorious inquisitiveness which denotes a busy and a curious mind. We went merely to see a collection of pictures and drawings, which were admirably well executed. Among others there were some excellently well finished birds, particularly those of the falcon tribe. While we were looking at them, he told us that one of them was a portrait, and said he would shew us the original. He went out, and presently returned with a hawk upon his fist, in the manner of a falconer. It was hooded, and seemed perfectly tame. He explained the different natures of these birds, and gave us pretty nearly the intelligence relative to training them, that I have related above.

"At length he made us all so in love with hawking, that we longed to see this famous amusement, in which gratification he said he had no doubt but he could indulge us on the following day, for he had a cast of hawks himself, and he expected Lord Orford's falconer on the following morning, with a cast and a half more, in which case he would undertake to shew us some sport. A cast consists of two. The falconer was as good as his word, and so was my friend. He called upon us in the morning, and we all repaired to a common about two miles from Yarmouth. The name of falcon is only applied to female hawks. They are more courageous and fierce than the males, which last are called tassel gentil. The five hawks produced for our amusement, were all males. We had, however, nothing to allege against their courage or ferocity, for they gave some notable proofs of both, mixed with a keenness beyond what I could have conceived. They were trained to fly at nothing but crows, of which all the birds seem to be conscious; for, after the first flight there was not a crow to be seen, out of many hundreds that were spread over the common, on our first entrance on it, while the coots and curlews, and a variety of others (*other birds*,) were flying in all directions, perfectly unconcerned at the appearance of these beautiful and terrible creatures.

"The first flight was thus performed: A cast of hawks at the same moment were hooded off, which means the ceremony of



taking off the hood and letting them fly, each at a crow. The majesty in which they rose first attracted me; from this, I was soon, however, diverted, by what appeared to me a kind of phenomenon. I had never, properly speaking, seen a crow in my life. Instead of the heavy clownish manner that it had ever to me seemed to have, as it were, trudged through the air, the velocity with which it flew to escape its enemy, gave it the appearance of a different bird; nor was it in cunning inferior to the hawk, though clearly frightened into a kind of last desperation.

"When it was no longer possible to seek safety in flight, and the spreading pinions of its merciless adversary had borne him to so close a situation that death seemed to be inevitable, the victim instantly stopt, as if to receive the blow with fortitude; but, in the moment that the hawk seemed to meditate the stroke, the crow, with a scream of despair, fell of itself like a shot, at which time it appeared so to shrink within itself as to be contracted to the size of a blackbird. Whether this was unexpected by the hawk, or whether having towered on with such resistless velocity that it was unable to stop itself, I know not, but the crow fairly escaped for the time. It became, however, very soon within the same situation, and twice more it evaded the danger in the same manner. At length it was enabled to take shelter on the ground, in which situation, from its noble nature, the hawk disdained to touch it. Seeing this, and commending the bird for its conduct, Lord Orford's falconer threw out the lure, and the hawk was instantly on his fist. The other hawk had also lost its prey, and my friend, who performed the part of its falconer, lured it back again from an immense distance.

"The crows having now completely disappeared, a second cast of hawks were hooded off in search of prey. This was to me a very beautiful sight. The grandeur and majesty with which they traversed the air, which they seemed to quarter as a pointer does a field, delighted me exceedingly. The circles in which they appeared to maintain an intelligence with each other increased, and they were frequently out of sight, at least of my sight, even with the assistance of a glass. At last they were to me totally lost, and I was very anxious and very importunate with the falconer to lure them back again; but he said he knew his time, which proved to be true; for, though I had totally given them up, he had scarcely thrown out his lure, when, in a space of time incredibly short, they returned to it.

"The third flight was perfectly different from any thing we had seen, and ended tragically for the poor crow. It was performed by one of those hawks that had been first hooded off, and that which had not been let fly at all. We had no expectation that it

would happen, or that we should have any more sport, for the crows had seemed entirely to have disappeared. It was the fate of a poor straggler, however, to make his appearance, and away went the hawks after it.

"The crow would probably have escaped had there been only one hawk; for, with great boldness, it practised the same means of evasion as I had seen in the first flight; but one of the hawks, maintaining a situation under the crow, as fast as it avoided the uppermost, it was, with all the difficulty in the world that the gripe of the lurcher underneath could be parried. The crow was, therefore, obliged to manœuvre in all directions, which was done certainly in a very masterly style for a considerable time, all the while the crow escaping their blows by the power of contracting its flight into a narrower circle than that of its enemies; but the odds were so immense, that the crow, from the impossibility of touching the ground, where it would have been in safety, at last came in contact with his enemy below; at which moment the hawk gave it a blow with his beak upon the wing, and it was instantly disabled. Seeing this, the other hawk pounced upon it like lightning, and, seizing the poor devoted bird in his talons, bore it to the earth. The crow was killed by the hawk in the action of seizing him; which the falconer informed me was always the case, for the hawk, as it seizes the body with one claw, breaks the neck with the other. The hawks having come to the falconer, the prey was as quietly delivered up to him as a hare is by a hound to the huntsmen; and the conquerors waited with great patience for their reward, while, with very grave ceremony, their feeder cut the crow into two equal parts, that thus it might fairly be divided between them."

Of Scotland Mr. Dibdin tells us little that has not been better told before. But he has, with tolerable effrontery, attacked Dr. Johnson's tour to that country, which boasts a merit and a celebrity which his own description will never attain. We shall not endeavour to follow him through this part of the kingdom, as we have already extended the article further than we expected or intended, and shall therefore hasten to a conclusion.

After surveying those fashionable lounging places, the lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, our author enters Scotland by the way of Gretna Green. The first objects almost that arrest his attention are the females without shoes or stockings, and the censured that he bestows on them is certainly merited.

From Glasgow he proceeds to Loch-

Lomond, and thence to Greenock, Paisley, and Stirling. Four views which he sketched on this journey are adduced as evidence, "that it is scarcely possible on the face of nature to find any four-and-twenty miles, so rich, so admirable, and so various; and yet (he adds) they make only a part of seven views, equally striking, which I took on that extraordinary day!" Such sketches as Mr. Dibdin makes require but little time, and he might as well take seventy as seven in one day.

The effect the first glance of Loch Leven had on our author is described in short but animated and forcible terms: "I know no term," he says, "for the sensation I felt. It was so quiet, so gentle, yet so full of admiration, that I was entranced without emotion, and ejaculated without speaking." The lake itself, however, is noticed in the usual superficial way which characterises Mr. Dibdin's "observations."

From Loch Leven the author arrives at Perth, whence he goes to Dundee, crosses over to Fife, and, taking the intermediate stages in his way, at length reaches Edinburgh, which is described in a few general sentences.

Having traced our author's progress

thus far, and endeavoured to present his "Observations" in such various points of view as, we conceive, will best enable the reader to judge of their merits and defects, we shall conclude with two or three general remarks.

That Mr. Dibdin is a man of genius few critics will deny: his lyric writings, and his musical compositions, have earned him a fame as lasting as is, we trust, the characteristic honour and bravery of a British tar, or the influence of music and poetry on the social affections of the human mind. In this line of exertion the public have fully recognized his merits, and liberally rewarded him; but as a general writer, he has comparatively few claims to the attention of his patrons, and exhibits, in the quartos now before us, so many egotisms, dogmatisms, and paltry witticisms; so many proofs of the misemployment of a strong mind, pampered and deceived by a false estimate of its own powers; that it is only by noting the close analogy between the contents of these volumes, and the colloquial matter of his musical entertainments, that we are willing to identify the itinerant author and painter, with the poet and composer of *Sans Souci*!

ART. XI. *Journey into South Wales, through the Counties of Oxford, Warwick, Worcester, Hereford, Salop, Stafford, Buckingham, and Hertford, in the Year 1799.* By GEORGE LIPSCOMB, Esq. 8vo. pp. 404.

MR. LIPSCOMB commences his book with a dedication to Lord Nelson, whom he represents as something more than mortal, by high sounding words, and panegyric phrases. The dedications of Dryden have been generally considered as the *ne plus ultra* of fulsome flattery; but they sink into plain homely narratives, when compared with the glowing effusions of Mr. Lipscomb. "Praise, like gold and diamonds," observes Dr. Johnson, "owes its value only to its scarcity: it becomes cheap as it becomes vulgar, and will then no longer raise expectation, or animate enterprise." The following extract from Mr. L.'s dedication must certainly excite a blush in the noble Lord, and ought to produce a blush of contrition in the author:

"When I contemplate your Lordship's character, I am at a loss for words, to convey the various sensations which arise in my mind at courage the most intrepid, calmness

the most prudent, wisdom the most consummate, and humanity the most benignant."

He proceeds to the enumeration of the many and various virtues of his patron; "one" of which "would be sufficient to immortalize any name; their union forms a chaplet around your brow which dazzles all men by its sublime effulgence, and sets competition at defiance!! It challenges the history of the world to produce its equal, through the ages which are past; and shines like a brilliant constellation to illumine the generations to come!!!"

After a dedication of eight pages, follows a preface of eleven more; wherein our author has endeavoured to explain the relative importance and characteristics of tours and county histories. The latter he considers too "irksome and disagreeable" for "the ladies of Great Britain; to whom not even a pedant could think of prescribing the arduous

task of perusing folios; and from whom not even an antiquarian could think of secluding that most important among English studies, the knowledge of the local history, and general features of a country, whose highest ornament they are." As, however, Mr. L. admits, that a knowledge of *local history* is the "most important among English studies," it cannot be deemed very despotic pedantry to prescribe a few folios or quartos to those persons who are desirous of acquiring that knowledge. The conclusion of the preface is creditable to the author's sentiments:

"I present this little work," he says, "with a sincere desire that the pains which I have taken to render it worthy of public favour, may not have been bestowed in vain; and my regard for the welfare and happiness of society, so infinitely overbalances every interested or personal idea, that if a single sentence herein contained has any evil tendency, I shall be the first person to rejoice at the work's being discountenanced."

The first chapter is occupied with some desultory animadversions, not at all connected with the subject of tours in general, or with this performance in particular. In it Mr. L. has given a dissertation "on wit and learning misapplied, on ill humour, and on criticism, with a word to the reviewers."

To follow our tourist through the whole of his volume would involve us in much miscellaneous and digressive toil; for when a book is composed of such a multiplicity of subjects, remarks, and episodes, as the present, it is almost impossible to analyze it. Nearly one half of the volume is occupied with extracts from popular poets, with monumental inscriptions, stories of places and persons, and remarks on coaches, inns, waiters, &c.: indeed, Mr. Lipscomb omits no opportunity of introducing a digression or reflection; because, in this species of composition, he seems fluent in fine phrases and lengthened periods.

As a fair specimen of the work, we shall present the reader with the following extracts. The author stops a short time at Oxford, where, instead of historical or descriptive information, he treats his readers with the following unconnected account of himself:

"After a short repose, I prepared to take a walk round this venerable city; whose beauties are so numerous and attractive, that every traveller is prompted to attempt their

description, although the task requires a master's hand. It was vacation time, and a kind of void seems to strike one with pensive musing; an air of calm tranquillity is given to the buildings, the walks, and even the inhabitants. I enter *Christ Church*, where the ear so often listens, with delight and admiration, to the full flowing periods, and the refined learning of men justly famed for literary acquirements; and where friendship is crowned with the joyous festivity of a convivial board.

"All is now serene composure, and melancholy stillness creeps along the walls; the mirth-resounding cloister is now forsaken; and even the fountain in the quadrangle has ceased to play.

"I strolled through the venerable grove, and along the high over-arching vista: I court the gentle stream of *Isis*, and wind my solitary way along the margin of her devious course. Thus wandering through the glade, the dear images of long-lost friends arise before; and as fleeting visions pass, "the grateful memory" of the good "awakens the mind to those glorious patterns of departed excellence which have been afforded us in their examples. The afternoon being remarkably fine and calm, I walked to *Woodstock*, and there awaited the arrival of the vehicle which was to convey me to *Stratford-on-Avon* the next day.

"Considering myself in the light of a foot-passenger, and remarking the negligence, and even contempt, to which such travellers are every where exposed, I passed the spacious hotel, at which they who travel with carriages, and horses, and servants, usually stop, and trudged on to a comfortable little inn, near the church; where seeing the inviting sign of the angel, and the still more inviting appearance of infinite neatness about the premises, I entered the house, and was received with as much civility, and treated with as much respect, as if I had been clothed in embroidery, or had travelled in a coach and six."

During his stay at *Woodstock*, Mr. Lipscomb meets with a funeral procession, which furnishes a fertile theme for his sentimental effusions, and the clergyman's manner of reading the service calls forth some advice to the bishops, and admonitions to the reverend divines.

"Returning from my walk, a funeral procession caught my eye; I mingled with the crowd, and entered the church, which is a neat well finished edifice externally; but contains nothing remarkable. A middle aged man trotted through the service in a manner the most shamefully negligent, and with a tone and cadence the most dissonantly disagreeable.

"The corpse, which I had attended to the grave, was now deposited among its

kindred dust: it was the remains of a maiden lady, who had attained a very great age; and having survived all her relations and acquaintances, left behind her *few*, if any, *real* mourners; the rising sigh, and starting tear, however, from the more serious and compassionate of those who attended, were indications of a grateful sensibility in the living, and a silent commendation of the deceased.

"Death, in its most frequent shape, is an awful intruder, and his imperious dominion is always reluctantly submitted to; though his fiat is irresistible, and his arrival certain.

"Those beauteous eyes, which once shot captivation at every glance, which beamed in loveliness incomparable, are closed 'in putrid night.' Those heavenly smiles, which raised into rapturous delight the admiration of a thousand lovers, are changed into the ghastliness of horror, and contracted with the pale rigidity of death! The sinews of strength are here relaxed, and the graceful form now moulders into dust.

"Hushed are all the passions of the mind! Ambition, which prompted to high aspiration; revenge, which lurked in secret hiding places, deeply intent on mischievous purposes; envy, whose rancorous fangs marked her own bosom with perpetual scars, has yielded to the grim tyrant's power! The gay expectancy, the ardour of desire, the accumulation of wealth, the juvenile prospects, the mature schemes, the ancient prejudices, are frustrated and destroyed! The sanguine hopes of the hero are perished, and the mighty victor no longer glories in his strength, nor boasts his conquests!

"But sweet is the sleep of death to him who, by a patient endurance of earthly sufferings, and a uniform perseverance in the ways of virtue, has secured to himself the favour of that blessed Mediator, who having 'in his own person overcome the sharpness of death,' hath made it the passage to everlasting mansions of happiness and joy."

The following traditional stories concerning two dragons, or snakes, will serve to illustrate the history of credulity, and show the partiality of man for the marvellous:

"The church belonging to this village stands near the bank of the river *Lug*, and the east end is decorated with a painting of a large green dragon. An ornament so unusual, and so seemingly unconnected with the nature and design of a place of worship, naturally excited our curiosity; which, after some inquiries, was gratified by the following story:

"At a remote period, very far beyond the memory of man, and very obscurely ascertained by tradition, there lived in the woody steep, not far from *Mordeford*, a monstrous serpent, with prodigious wings, which com-

mitted various and alarming depredations among the cattle, and even the inhabitants of the neighbourhood. The monster was wont to resort to a particular spot, for the purpose of allaying his thirst, and this was at the confluence of the *Wye* and the *Lug*. Many and great were the rewards which the good people of *Mordeford* offered to any one who should destroy the dragon; but it seems that no man was found of sufficient courage to engage in so perilous an adventure: at length a malefactor who had been condemned to die, undertook to kill the serpent, and relieve the *Mordefordians* from their daily and nightly fears; on condition of receiving his pardon, as the reward of his valour and prowess: the condition being accordingly granted, the hero concealed himself in a barrel at the water's edge, and lay in ambush for his dreadful foe. The wiles of the serpent being thus overcome, when he came to drink, as usual, the contest begun, and lasted for a considerable time; but at length terminated fatally to both parties, the monster being slain outright by fair fighting, and the man *poisoned* by the dragon's breath.

"This story is told with great seriousness, and confidently believed, in all its particulars, by hundreds, and perhaps by thousands, of persons, whose fathers and grandfathers have handed it down to them, without ever attempting to divest it of the absurdities which oppose its credibility.

"They further tell you, that the figure on the wall of the church represents the exact size of the dragon, which must have been, at least, twelve feet long.

"Its head is depicted of a very large size, with a terrible aspect; a red mouth, and a forked tongue; the wings are elevated and expanded, and it is web-footed.

"We observed to the person who related this curious history, that it was extraordinary the nature of the weapons which the man used for the destruction of the monster should be unknown; and that it was rather an impolitic contrivance for the engagement to be left to the precarious issue of single combat, when the *posse comitatus* might have been easily assembled to subdue so dreadful a pest. But traditionary legends of this nature will not admit of much reasoning, nor stand the test of minute investigation.

"The ridiculous improbabilities with which they are interwoven, render it very difficult, and often impossible, to obtain any real knowledge of the fact on which they were originally founded. There is no doubt that all long established customs, and old legends, refer to some real event, however that event may be clouded with ignorance, or darkened by superstition; and it is possible that there may have been a monstrous variety of the serpent species among the thick woods before mentioned: but whether it was in reality so terrible, and in appear-

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ance so unusual, as it is represented, cannot be ascertained any more than the truth of the rest of the story can be proved.

"A trivial variation was made by a gentleman of *Hereford* in describing the dragon of *Mordeford*; namely, that it was an amphibious animal, left on the banks of the *Lug*, after a considerable flood: and, indeed, if it was really a snake, and of the size insisted upon, it might well have been conceived sufficiently frightful without the forked tongue, webbed feet, and expansive wings, which terror and credulity have added to the picture.

"The memorial of another dragon is presented in the palatinate of *Durham*; the representative of Sir *Edward Blackett* being obliged to render service to the bishop, at his first coming into the county, by presenting to his lordship a faulchion with which the ancestor of that family slew "a monstrous" reptile, a dragon, a worm, or a flying serpent; in memory of which act, the faulchion thus presented secures the possession of a large estate held by this remarkable tenure. Nor is this the only legend of a similar kind; for about the year 1614 a discourse was published, relating to "a strange monstrous serpent or dragon (then) living in a wood, called *St. Leonard's Forest*, near *Horsham*, in *Sussex*;" which was described to have been more than nine feet long, with balls at its sides, like foot-balls, which it was supposed would turn to wings. Something of this nature is also mentioned as having been seen on *Leyden Heath*, in *Essex*. But the best authenticated tale of this kind, which I have happened to meet with, is preserved by Sir *Robert Atkins*, and copied in *Rudder's History of Gloucestershire* in the following words:

"In the parish of *Deerhurst*, near *Tewkesbury*, a serpent of a prodigious bigness was a great grievance to all the country, by poisoning the inhabitants, and killing their cattle. The inhabitants petitioned the king, and a proclamation was issued out, that whosoever should kill the serpent, should enjoy an estate in the parish, which then belonged to the crown. One *John Smith*, a labourer, engaged in the enterprize: he put a quantity of milk in a place to which the serpent resorted, who gorged the whole, agreeable to expectation, and lay down to sleep in the sun, with his scales ruffled up. Seeing him in that situation *Smith* advanced, and striking between the scales with his axe, took off his head. The *Smiths* enjoyed the estate when Sir *Robert Atkins* compiled this account; and Mr. *Lane*, who married a widow of that family, had then the axe in his possession."

From the specimens that we have se-

lected, it will be no difficult matter for our readers to form a very correct idea of Mr. *Lipscomb's* abilities and manner as an author, and of the several merits of his present production. Where the diction of the writer possesses any strong prominence of feature, the toil of the reviewer is considerably lessened, as it requires no great depth of investigation to point out what any reader of common understanding will naturally discover from the perusal of a few pages of extract. Those who are partial to the poetic, the sentimental, and the digressive turn of observation, in a literary travelling companion; or who prefer a fine flowery period, and a lofty phraseology, to the plain language of easy narrative, or laborious research, will doubtless make the tour of South Wales with Mr. L. in preference to any other guide:—for our parts, without troubling so confirmed a mannerist with any admonitory hints for the regulation of his future labours in the field of literature, we shall here take our leave of him, without asperity, notwithstanding his vile opinion of reviewers; but, though we feel ourselves in perfect good humour at parting, we are not in any humours to compliment him in the same flowing language that he addresses to a river on his taking a "long and last adieu!" Thus says (or sings) our author, to the sweet stream of *Llandovery*:

"Farewell! thou limpid current! May no rude hand disturb thy peaceful course, nor destroy the beauties which surround thee!

"Flow on, thou sweet stream! the joy and admiration of the traveller; the delight of every eye which views thee; the beauteous offspring of unerring nature!

"Flow on, thou sweet river! and ages hence, when the hand which now celebrates thee shall have mouldered into dust, and have been long forgotten, may some brighter genius, attracted by the influence of thy charms, with more exalted panegyric record thy name.

"My feeble pen, far, far, beneath thy merits, and unequal to thy praise, shrinks from the task which gratitude assigned it, and leaves to the rapturous and energetic expression of the poet, the soothing murmurs of thy crystal stream, the graceful elegance of thy devious course, and all the sylvan honours which adorn thy banks."



ART. XII. *A Description of Matlock Bath, with an Attempt to explain the Causes of the Heat, and of the petrifying Quality of the Springs; to which is added some Account of Chatsworth and Keddleston, and the mineral Waters of Quarnndon and Keddleston.* By GEORGE LIPSCOMB, Esq. Small 8vo. pp. 142.

IN this small volume about sixty pages are occupied with an account of Chatsworth and Keddleston, compiled we suppose from the housekeeper's inventory; of which the following is a specimen:

" THE FAMILY PAVILION.  
ANTIROOM:

A good picture of fish.  
Hercules and the Erymanthean boar.  
Landscapes, and  
Coloured prints.

The chimney-piece of marble, from the peak of Derbyshire."

The remainder of the book is partly borrowed from Pilkington's County History, and is partly original. We turned with some eagerness to the author's "new theory of the cause of the heat in the Matlock water, and of its petrifying powers," which, from the title page, we supposed to be the most curious and valuable part of the work; and were not a little surprised at the self-sufficiency and profound ignorance there exhibited, not merely of the abstruser points of geological science, but of the very rudiments of chemical knowledge. This notable discovery of Mr. Lipscomb's is set forth in the following terms:

" *A new Theory of the Cause of Heat in Matlock Water, and of its petrifying Powers.*

" 1st. It is well known from the experiments of Dr. Percival and others, that a portion of saline matter is detected in these waters.

" 2dly. It is equally well known that the acid of sea salt will dissolve lime in considerable quantity.

" May we be permitted to conjecture that the water of these springs being previously impregnated with salt, becomes saturated with lime in its passage through the strata (of limestone) before described, and is afterwards decomposed by the addition of pyrites dissolved in the rain water, which percolates through the supercumbent strata? For pyrites containing sulphur, the heat which takes place during the solution of pyrites will necessarily disengage a certain proportion of its acid: and sulphuric acid will immediately unite with lime when held in solution by the weaker acids, and when united with it, fall down in what is chemically denominated calcareous sulphate; and heat is again generated during the process.

" The following circumstances will appear to support this hypothesis:

" 1st. That there is present in the Matlock water a much greater quantity of calcareous matter than common water is known to be capable of holding in solution, without the assistance of an acid.

" 2dly. That muriate of iron, which would be necessarily formed by the marine acid uniting with the iron of the pyrites after the former had been disengaged from the lime by the sulphuric acid which had previously existed in combination with the pyrites, is perfectly soluble in water, but may be detected therein by the purple colour which is communicated by the addition of the infusion of galls, as in Dr. Pennington's experiment.

" 3dly. That on a chemical analysis of the calcareous encrustations deposited by the water, they have been found to contain a small portion of iron mixed with sulphate of lime: and Dr. Short detected the presence of iron also, in the residuum procured by evaporating the water, as before mentioned.

" In this manner all the phenomena observable at Matlock, and in similar springs, may, I think, be reasonably accounted for, on principles well understood, and capable of the clearest demonstration; without resorting to mere hypothetical conjecture, which is both difficult to be comprehended, and incapable of proof.

" I must beg leave to add, that since the above remarks were committed to paper, a circumstance has been presented to my observation, which so strongly corroborates them, that it may be considered as little short of the demonstration resulting from a synthetical experiment.

" Having, at the suggestion of my learned and ingenious friend Dr. Bauche, been induced to investigate the effects of carbonic acid upon lime water; by blowing through a small tube into a glass containing a portion of that liquid, carbonate of lime was speedily produced in considerable quantity: we then dropped in a little sulphuric acid, which occasioned the precipitate to be re-dissolved with great facility: and the liquid thus restored to its original transparency was suffered to stand undisturbed for several days: at the end of which, the sides and edge of the glass were covered with a transparent crystallization exactly similar to the spar and stalactite found in the subterranean caverns near Matlock."

We must take the liberty, however, of objecting to this "demonstration,"

that sea salt, and the acid of sea salt, are different things; that lime water will not decompose sea salt; that pyrites is not soluble in water; and that sulphur will not "disengage a portion of its acid by being heated;" that muriate of iron is not contained in Matlock water; and

that the spars and stalactites in the caverns of the neighbourhood are not sulphat but carbonat of lime.

The work is dedicated to the Duke of Devonshire, and the account of Kedleston is also preceded by a humble inscription to Lord Scarsdale.

ART. XIII. *A Picture of Monmouthshire, or an Abridgment of Mr. Coxe's Historical Tour in Monmouthshire.* By a Lady. 12mo. pp. 168.

IN the "Picture" before us we discover a praise-worthy intention; and if that intention has not been fully, or properly, executed, we must admit the difficulty of the task to plead somewhat in excuse. Mr. Coxe's work, which this professes to abridge, comprises above 460 quarto pages of fair *honest* printing; the small volume before us only 168, in duodecimo. This great difference renders it impossible to include much of the former in the latter.

"This little book," says the author, "owes its origin to a few minutes made for the use of a friend, who was about to travel into Monmouthshire, which proved of great service in pointing out the objects most worthy observation. Judging from this essay that an abstract of Mr. Coxe's interesting tour would be particularly agreeable to those who visit the county, and not unacceptable to the public in general, I applied to the author for permission to publish this abridgment, which he readily granted."

That the reverend tourist "readily granted" his permission is not to be wondered at, when we observe the many complimentary passages contained in the work. The name of Mr. Coxe occurs in almost every page; and is introduced to inform the reader what he did, where he went, what he saw, and what were his sensations.

"Mr. Coxe made several excursions," observes this lady, "in the romantic and picturesque environs of Abergavenny. The first excursion was to the summit of the Sugar Loaf, which is the highest point of ground in Monmouthshire. The undulating outline of this *elegant* summit, is *embossed* in the middle with the *cone*, which assumes

different appearances. It looks like a piked ridge upon the opposite side of the Usk; sometimes appears in a globular shape; but at a distance, and particularly at the south eastern side of the Skyrrid, assumes the form of a pyramid, and resembles the crater of a volcano."

We have quoted this passage as a specimen of the lady's language, and to show that she does not very rigidly adhere to the matter or text of the original tourist; for, upon comparing this with Mr. Coxe's account of his excursion, we find the above passage to be the lady's *own* description, which is neither very perspicuous nor correct. We presume that the word crater means the hollow bowl-like appearance of the mouth of a volcano, not the *external* aspect. This little volume professes to give some account of all the principal places, objects, and persons, in the county of Monmouth; and we gladly observe that many of these accounts are very well related. But the brevity of the work renders it useless to the topographer, or historian; and it wants a different arrangement, and itineraries, to make it a pleasant guide for the tourist. Thus executed, we are rather at a loss to ascertain its utility, and were surprised that the author, or bookseller, should have deemed it necessary to publish it, especially when we recollect the profusion of tours and histories that already exist relating to the county of Monmouth. As there is neither map nor index, the sum of five shillings is an extravagant price for such a small volume.

**ART. XIV.** *A Description of the Watering Places on the South-East Coast of Devon, from the River Exe to the Dart inclusive, comprehending Dawlish, Teignmouth, Shaldon, and Torbay. By W. HYETT. With a Sketch of their local History; and a Tour to, and concise Account of, Noblemen's and Gentlemen's Seats, and Objects in the Vicinage of each; worthy the Attention of the Antiquary and Admirer of picturesque and romantic Scenery: embellished with Four Etchings.* 12mo. pp. 105.

THE above title pretty fully explains the subjects contained in this little volume: which seems principally directed, to the common-place-loungers of watering places, and may there answer a useful purpose. To excite reflection, and stimulate curiosity in the idle and indolent, are highly commendable. Mr. Hyett has before braved the dangers of the public ocean in some poetical skiffs, and friendly flattery has again filled his sails. "My design," he observes in the advertisement, "is to lay before the stranger, the state of each of the watering places mentioned in the title, with a description of their environs, to enable him to determine which shall be his place of *sejour*, during the summer months; and to point out and assist him in exploring the objects that are worthy his attention in the vicinity."—He next modestly disclaims any merit in himself, and ascribes all that his work contains "to those gentlemen who have favoured him with remarks and assistance," and more particularly to the reverend Mr. Swete of Oxton-house Devon. This liberal clergyman is well calculated to render very material assistance in any topographical work relating to Devonshire—and has given many proofs of zealous promptitude in the cause of literature; particularly in additions and corrections to Gough's Camden—Polewhele's history of Devon, and the Exeter literary essays. Besides we know that he possesses several quarto volumes of manuscript descriptions of this county. Knowing these circumstances, we felt disappointed in the pamphlet before us, for we expected more copious descriptions and histories, of particular places.

We shall quote the following passage as a fair specimen of Mr. H's descriptive style; and this we do the more willingly from knowing its accuracy

"About two miles from the village of Kenton is *Oxton-house*, the seat of the reverend J. Swete, the delightful and picturesque grounds of which abound with scenery worthy the pencil of their proprietor, whose classic taste has admirably displayed itself, in the judicious style the lucid stream is taught to meander through the fertile vale; in the charming walks that permeate the noble woods; and in the ornamental buildings that grace its romantic eminences. We enter this fairy scene by a venerable gateway, near which a cascade foams violently over a huge mass of stones; opposed to which is the clear expanse of a tranquil lake, overshadowed by some luxuriant trees, through the floating foliage of which we behold the mansion house seated on a gently rising lawn; this, as well as every part of the grounds, is indebted to the present possessor for the beauties and conveniences it has to boast."

The author of this little work, has evinced the possession of poetical and descriptive talents; though we much disapprove of pompous poetical epithets applied to common objects and a repetition of the French terms, "*sejour*, *embouchure*, &c."

Yet if he will cultivate brevity, perspicuity, and antiquarian knowledge, he may ultimately succeed to his own, and the public advantage. The little descriptive poem at page 74 is highly creditable to the genius of its author, and bespeaks a mind of sensibility imbued with evident marks of a poetical talent. We would gladly say as much for the etchings, but truth forbids, and we advise Mr. H. to adhere to the *pen*, and leave the *pencil* to more successful artists.

**ART. XV.** *Fugitive Sketches of the History and natural Beauties of Clifton, Hot-Wells, and Vicinity. By G. W. MANBY, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 84.

**ART. XVI.** *An Historic and Picturesque Guide from Clifton, through the Counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, and Brecknock, with Representations of Ruins, interesting Antiquities, &c. &c. By G. W. MANBY, Esq.* 8vo. pp. 336.

AS these two works are the productions of the same author, and are very similar in style, plan, prints, paper, &c.

we may with propriety class them under one head. Besides, we are unwilling to involve our readers in the same painful

task that we have experienced ourselves, in reading either the works, or many extracts from them. If Mr. Manby ever had a drawing-master, or grammar-master, he derived but little advantage from their instruction, for we do not recollect to have seen more ambiguous, ungrammatical language, or worse prints, in any work of the kind. Of the latter we cannot adduce a specimen, but our readers may judge of the former by the following extracts from the "Fugitive Sketches."

Speaking of the encampment at Clifton, which Mr. M. refers with *positive* confidence to the Romans, he says,

"No advantageous situation remained unobserved or unoccupied by that great and politic people, which appears by the vestiges of their prudence on every elevated situation, for though many were not of sufficient importance to make a powerful resistance, they were rendered highly advantageous for look-out posts, and made it impossible for an enemy (however cautious) to approach unobserved; thus remaining in peaceful security from their inaccessible stations, while their repose was insured by vigilance and valour,

' Their martial monuments,  
' Now fallen to a silent heap of ruins,'  
but remaining as tributes of admiration,  
erected by those

' Darling children of fate,'  
who first softened the manners of its more  
ancient inhabitants, and laid the foundation  
for prosperity and civilized life,  
' Shining supreme in arts, as once in power;'  
sanctioned by whose protection, it vegetated  
social intercourse, and became the parent of  
*Caer-Brito*, or the British City; of later  
ages styled the Illustrious City, and from  
whose high birth the city of Bristol is descended,  
the offspring of imperial, recorded  
fame, from whose inheritance it became the  
heir to opulence, respect, and admiration."

The whole of these *Fugitive Sketches* may be estimated by this specimen, which we fear will not be very gratifying to our readers, nor creditable to the author. It would have been well for the latter, if they had been only sketched in black lead, for then a friendly piece of India-rubber might have been employed to much advantage.

ART. XVII. *A Walk through Southampton.* By Sir HENRY ENGLEFIELD, Bart. F.R.S. and F.A.S. 8vo. pp. 100, with plates.

THE respectable author of the above-mentioned little volume, is well known to the antiquarian and philosophical world, by his predilection for almost every subject connected with science and literature. His disquisitions in the archæology, and description of Exeter cathedral, &c. are highly creditable to his talents, and gratifying to the antiquary. The small volume before us, is a useful fragment of topography, and may, hereafter, furnish some hints to a Hampshire historian; but it is too mechanically dry to be amusing to a reader who has not seen the town, whose antiquities it purposes to describe. In the plan adopted, a map was an appendage which should not have been omitted; for as Sir Henry describes a *walk* round the town, a stranger cannot easily know the situation, and character, of the place, by the present mode of description. "The title of *A Walk* was chosen," says our author, "as expressive of what was intended to be done in the work."

The author only intended, as he informs us, "to give an account of several curious remains of antiquity, existing in

the town of Southampton, and which had been either totally unnoticed, or very slightly mentioned, in the descriptions of that place hitherto published."—This he has done by describing the situation of the town, the suburbs and ditch, the gates, walls, streets, churches, and various fragments of antiquity which are found in different buildings, and places about the town. The castle of Southampton was, probably, a Saxon edifice; and the present town, as in many other instances, arose under its protection.

"The establishments of the Romans," observes our author, "which seem to have been seated, in general, in low situations and near streams, did not at all suit with the northern system of fortresses; which, particularly in the earliest times, affected elevated sites, with high towers secured from surprise by the view they commanded of the country around them; and from assault, by the steep ascent of the natural, or artificial mount, on which they were founded. The peculiar advantages of the narrow, and rather high, point of land, on which Southampton now stands, commanding at once the lichen and Test, and very easily fortified on the land side, could not escape their notice; and from

the high circular hill on which the keep of the castle formerly stood, and the curved line of its yet remaining wall, we have probable grounds for supposing it to be among the most ancient of the Saxon castles. But besides the present existing fortifications, there is great reason to suspect that the northern ditch of the town, filled up within the memory of man, and of uncommon breadth and depth, was continued quite across, till it met the Itchin, and completely insulated the castle and present town.

"The town of Southampton is situated on the extreme point of the high gravelly bank which separates the course of the Itchin river from the estuary of the Test, or Anton-Water. By this happy choice, the whole town, though almost surrounded with water, enjoys the advantage of the driest situation; and the fall of level in every direction, keeps the streets constantly free from damp and filth. Besides these essential benefits, a great proportion of the houses enjoys a view, more or less extensive, of the beautiful country adjacent; and as the gravelly soil lies on a bed of clay, numerous wells afford a copious supply of water fit for most domestic purposes, if not always excellent for drinking.

"As, however, the principal object of this essay is to point out the objects of antiquity, or other remarkable buildings which may attract the notice of a stranger, enough has been said on the general situation of the town; and we shall now proceed to a survey, first, of the walls and gates; and secondly,

of the gates, together with the churches, and other buildings observable in them."

The volume is illustrated with six plates, from drawings by the author, representing different *scraps* of antiquity, including a view of the Town-wall near West-Quay, Regalia of the Corporation, inside view of St. Michael's church, a font in the same, and a view up Blue Anchor-Lane. The author concludes his work with the following judicious remarks on sea-port towns, and with a sentiment which every Briton must heartily concur in.

"The encreasing strength of our nation, (since the time of Edward the 6th,) and yet more, the augmented size of ships of war, now too large to enter with safety those rivers and creeks which formerly were the most secure havens, have combined to insure from attack the ancient ports of this country; and the walls of our cities are, by a felicity on which every Englishman will reflect with gratitude and respect, rendered merely ornaments to those towns, where every house is a castle to its owner, fenced by laws stronger than the brazen walls of Merkin. That this glorious bulwark may be also *ære perennius*, is a wish in which all, I trust, will join; but the antiquary, with peculiar feeling, who views it, not merely as a present impregnable guard, but as the venerable work of his forefathers."

ART. XVIII. *A Tour through the Northern Counties of England and the Borders of Scotland.* By the Rev. RICHARD WARNER. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 616.

"THAT success leads to rashness, is a truth established by daily experience; and I cannot help fearing that I may assist its confirmation, by adding my own example to the numerous instances in which it has been already manifested." With this sentence Mr. Warner commences his present tour, and if it had been spoken in the spirit of prophecy, it could not have been more completely fulfilled; for nothing but rashness could have given origin to many of the assertions contained in these volumes. Much of the celebrity of our author as a tourist, has arisen from the general ease and elegance of his style, the insertion of amusing anecdotes, the suspense which he endeavours always to excite by perilous situations, and the novel-like, or romantic air, which prevails through most of his productions. Historical investigation, and antiquarian research, are tasks which his lively fancy cannot submit to. His observations

are, in many instances, characterised by a disgusting flippancy, and affectation, and his descriptions are too often rendered vapid by an inflation of language, that "swells upon the ear, but falls upon the sense." His mountains are every where *vast and tremendous*; their "scathed heads pierce the clouds;" the swelling of a river "shakes the adjoining country with the thunder of its course;" and the discharge of a small quantity of gunpowder "occasions an explosion only to be compared to that sound which the imagination would conceive might be produced, if universal nature were at once to tumble into ruins."

From Bath, the place of his residence, Mr. Warner commences his tour, and in about ten weeks completed his rapid survey of the northern counties of England, by a route upwards of 1150 miles in extent.

Passing through Bristol, Gloucester, and Tewkesbury, he proceeds to Wor-



cester, and here presents us with a particular detail of the method of manufacturing the beautiful porcelain for which this city has long been celebrated. Our author, however, is mistaken when he represents the process as precisely similar to that at Derby; and after characterizing the ware as "inferior to the French only in lightness and transparency," ought not, a few pages afterwards, to have spoken of the Derby china as "rather lighter and more transparent" than the Worcester.

In page 113, the river Dove is said to rise a little to the south of Burton, instead of Buxton; Sir Henry Every, is called Sir Henry Everett; Derby is represented as containing six silk manufactories, instead of twelve; and Mr. Swift, the present occupier under the corporation, of the original silk mill, is written Mr. Shell. In the next page Sir Thomas Lombe is asserted to have been the person who procured the plan of the silk mill from Italy, in place of John Lombe, his nephew, of whom Mr. W. might have learned many particulars had he consulted Hutton's History of Derby. In page 116, Little-Chester is said to be a mile below Derby, instead of half a mile above it; and in page 117, Kedleston, the seat of Lord Scarsdale, is spelled Kiddleston; and the medicinal spring in the park represented to be "as strongly impregnated with sulphur, as the water of Harrogate; whereas, in fact, the sulphureous impregnation is considerably weaker. This list of errors might be continued through several pages of the description of Kedleston; but we shall save room by observing simply, that old Franks the artist, is called old Banks; Scaglioni, should be Scagliola; and the park instead of being seven miles round, is only five.

Among the portraits of Kedleston, is that of Nathaniel Baron Crew, bishop of Durham. Of this prelate our author gives the following character:

"He was one of the most despicable characters in the annals of James II. by whom he was elected as grand inquisitor of the ecclesiastical commission, at which he rejoiced, because it would render his name famous (he might have more properly have said infamous,) in history. On the reverse of fortune, which deservedly attended that misguided prince, this obnoxious prelate, hoping to cancel the remembrance of his former offences, basely deserted the sovereign who had raised him, and affected to espouse

the cause of liberty, which he had so long, and so lately, insulted."

With a degree of inconsistency hardly credible, Mr. W. in vol. 2d, p. 24, has inserted another character of the same bishop, in these words:

"Nathaniel Baron Crewe, who was made bishop of Durham in 1674, and appeared to have been raised by Providence to this high dignity for the diffusion of happiness amongst his fellow creatures, purchased the manor and castle of Bamfborough, of the crown; and left them, by his will, (as if unwilling to receive the praise of men for his benevolent actions,) to the charitable use of affording aid to vessels in distress, and solace to mariners who had escaped from shipwreck."

"Our route," says Mr. W. "which pointed out Dove-Dale, and Islam, as objects for the next visit, obliged us to return to Ashbourne from Okeover, and take the Islam road." This return was very unnecessary, as there is a road from Okeover to Islam without going near Ashbourne. We notice it that others may not be led astray by Mr. W's authority. In the same page the *Dove* is called the *Dovey*.

Dove-Dale, with the exception of two or three too highly-coloured expressions, is well described. In the account of Islam, our author is not so happy. The "sublime mass of shades, covering the face of a vast declivity," p. 136, is in our humble opinion, a very obscure mode of describing a beautiful hanging wood! The grounds of Islam are celebrated for the phenomenon of the rivers Manifold and Hamps, rising within twenty yards of each other, after flowing, the one through a subterraneous course of five miles, from the point where it ingulphs itself in the earth, near *Wetton*, (not *Weston-mill*, as our author tells us); the other, through a similar channel of seven miles from *Leek Water-Houses*. That the waters do not mingle in any part of this passage, is evinced by the difference of temperature; the water of the Hamps being two degrees colder than that of the Manifold. In a little grotto in these grounds Congreve is reported to have written his comedy of the *Old Batchelor*.

At Hopton, Mr. W. notices the seat of the Gell family, which, he observes rather affectingly, *planted* itself here in the reign of Elizabeth. The scenery of Matlock is described with some warmth, but no pen, perhaps, can render it com-

plete justice. The beautiful seat of Richard Arkwright, esq. at the entrance of Matlock-Dale, is passed over much too cursorily; and our author mistakes in calling this gentleman Sir Richard, which he does several times. Sir R. Arkwright died in the year 1792. Equally unfortunate in the supposition, p. 147, that the ancient stone coffin in Darley church-yard, to the north of Matlock, was connected with the monastery removed to this place from Derby. The monastery was not removed to this, but to another *Darley* or *Derley*, about one mile from Derby, as historical records and remains of the building itself sufficiently demonstrate. In p. 148, the village of *Edensor* is called *Chatsworth*.

Were we to notice every inaccuracy in these volumes, our observations would extend far beyond our limits; we shall, therefore pass on to Elden-Hole, only observing that Poole's Hole, instead of being to the eastward of Buxton, is really to the south-westward. Elden-Hole, one of the wonders of Derbyshire, is made more wonderful by the description of Mr. Warner, whose credulity appears to have been singularly imposed on. Its depth is ridiculously magnified, and, according to our author, has never been ascertained.

"Cotton, above a century ago, plumbed it with a line 2652 feet in length, but did not reach the bottom. More of the history of its interior, however, was known about 35 years ago, in consequence of the two horses of a gentleman and lady being found without their riders, near the abyss. The country people immediately imagined (and perhaps with reason,) that the latter had been robbed, murdered, and thrown into Elden-Hole; and let down some miners into it, in order to search for the bodies. These bold fellows descended perpendicularly about 1200 feet, when they reached a declivity which continued in an angle of sixty degrees for 120 feet. At the extremity of this, a dreadful and boundless gulph disclosed itself, whose sides and bottom were perfectly invisible. Here their lights were extinguished by the impurity of the air, which prevented a further descent; and allowed them only to let down a line 1000 feet deeper without finding a bottom; though, from the circumstance of its being wet when drawn up, they were convinced that the abyss contained a great body of water." p. 163.

In opposition to the above appalling accounts of the depth of this tremendous chasm, we shall place, first, the narration of Mr. Lloyd, who penetrated its

recesses, as published in the 61st volume of the Philosophical Transactions; secondly, the statement of Mr. Mawe, in his mineralogy of Derbyshire; and lastly, the observations of Messrs. Britton and Brayley, as contained in the 3d volume of the Beauties of England and Wales; the latter being the most recent account that has fallen under our notice.

Mr. Lloyd relates, that for the first twenty yards, he descended somewhat obliquely; and at the depth of ten yards more his rope varied, at least, six yards from the perpendicular. At about fourteen yards off the bottom, the rock opened on the east, and he swung till he reached the floor of the cave *sixty-two yards* only from the mouth. Mr. Mawe, a gentleman particularly acquainted with the neighbourhood of Castleton, informs us, "that the depth of Elden-Hole is about sixty yards; the stratum separating at the bottom, with some communications of inconsiderable extent. Any miner would go down with ease for a small compensation: he would call it a *shake, swallow, or opening*." The authors of the Beauties of England, &c. observe, that, "excepting at one point on the west side," the bushes and projecting masses of stone, are extremely unfavourable to plumbing it with accuracy.

"From this point a weight was carefully let down, and in the opinion of several persons, by whom the line was repeatedly felt, was adjudged to have reached the bottom. The line had been previously measured, and the depth to which the weight descended, was found to be no more than *sixty-seven yards and one foot*! That this is the real depth of the chasm, or as near it as can be ascertained, the assertions of three miners, questioned separately, who have been let down into it, at different periods within the last 35 or 36 years, abundantly corroborates. Two of these imagined its depth to be about 68 or 70 yards; but as many years had elapsed since the time of their subterraneous expedition, they would not speak to a fathom or two. The third, whose descent into the chasm had been more recent, (not, indeed, more than five years ago,) affirmed that the length of the rope which enabled him to reach the bottom, was *thirty-three fathoms and a trifle more*!"

The steep descent to Castleton, by the road called the Winnets, or Wind-gates, "from the stream of air that always sweeps through the chasm," is very appropriately described: so is the

celebrated cavern at Castleton, though the bombastic period with which the account closes, detracts from its merit. The effect of a blast\* in these darksome recesses is singularly awful, and may, with truth, be compared to a continual peal of loud thunder; yet to talk of its "producing a sound equal to universal nature falling into ruins," is ridiculous.

The description of the Speedwell Level, p. 180, is curious, and should be extracted but for the length to which our remarks have already extended.

The valuable collection of antiquities at Newby-Park, the seat of Lord Grantham, is also described at some length, and said to be only exceeded by the superb museum of Mr. Townley. The account is interesting, but, as usual, presents some inaccuracies. The statue of Silenus is described as having under the right arm a *skin of wine*, called by the ancients, says Mr. W. the *uterus*, a ludicrous mistake for *uter*. The volume closes with some interesting particulars of the Iron-bridge at Sunderland; and of the coal-trade and manufactories of Newcastle.

Having already extended our remarks to so great a length, we must, of necessity, be more brief in our accounts of the second volume, though the subjects that it presents for animadversion, and, perhaps, censure, seem fully equal to those in the former. It commences with a continuation of the description of Newcastle, which offers nothing of particular importance, unless, indeed, we except the origin of its fortifications, of which the following relation is given :

"In one of the predatory incursions of the Scots into the town of Newcastle, then unprovided with walls to resist a foe, it happened that a rich citizen was taken out of his bed in the midst of the town, by the marauding party, and carried prisoner into Scotland. Having ransomed himself for a large sum of money, and returned to his home, he determined to provide against a second surprise of the same nature, by persuading the citizens to fortify the place with walls, and a fosse; himself setting an example of public spirit, by aiding the work from his own coffers. The burgesses had wisdom enough to see the utility of the plan, and seconded it with great liberality; so that about fifteen years after the commencement of the work, Newcastle was provided with as complete forti-

fications as any place in the kingdom, being surrounded by a wall two miles in length, (*circumference*), and strengthened with several towers, and accommodated with seven gates: a defence that secured the town from pillage for nearly four centuries, and enabled it to resist for two months, the heavy siege of the Scotch army under the Earls of Caledander and Leven, who at length were obliged to take it by storm."

With the account of Bamborough Castle is connected an interesting history of the *Life Boat* invented by Mr. Henry Greathead, a ship carpenter of South Shields, who "in the true spirit of philanthropy, waving the idea of exclusive profit, instead of taking out a patent for this admirable invention, generously offered to communicate to others every information in his power on the subject of its construction." The *Life-Boat* has already been the means of saving many hundred persons from shipwreck in the sight of home, and we cannot omit this opportunity of bearing testimony to the skill of its ingenious inventor.

It appears from the account of the trade of Berwick, that upwards of 28000 kits of salmon, and 4000 chests of eggs, are annually sent from that port to London. The salmon are procured from the fisheries on the Tweed; and the eggs obtained from all parts of the adjacent country. In plentiful seasons, more than 40,000 kits of the former have been prepared in this town. Netherby, the interesting seat of Sir James Graham, though on a Roman station, and containing a rich collection of Roman antiquities, is but briefly mentioned, while other places of far inferior importance are described at considerable length. Even the account of the ancient city of Carlisle is dispatched in less than a page: and in this the three gateways which from their situations are called, the Scotch, the English, and the Irish, are by Mr. W. named the Scotch, the English, and the French.

In the description of the military ways, which are collectively denominated the Roman wall, our author talks of the "successful campaign made by Tacitus into Caledonia," &c. We suppose that Tacitus is here put for Agricola, as the context indeed implies; but surely it be-

\* Blast is a term used by miners; signifying the explosion of gunpowder, driven into a hole purposely made in the rock.

hoves Mr. W. to be more attentive to his composition.

The description of Nunnery, the seat of Richard Bamber, esq. is disgraced by as gross an instance of exaggeration as ever tarnished the pages of a modern traveller. Our author, in delineating the falls of the Croglin, employs these words:

"The second is wonderfully impressive; the deep water which receives the troubled river after its desperate leap, being nearly involved in midnight darkness by the mass of wood that overhangs its abyss. Approaching now more closely to each other, the rocks excite the struggling stream to tenfold fury, who with difficulty pushes his waters through an horrible fissure, and forms a cascade of *sixty feet*, falling with such prodigious force as to have worked for itself a *bason three hundred feet into the rock below*."

The fall indeed, must be *wonderfully impressive*, to have made so deep a bason in the solid rock. Not to mention the absolute impossibility of so great an effect being produced from such an inadequate cause, we must observe that the *fact* is otherwise. Let our author turn to the pages of Houseman, and of Hutchinson; and he will find that the height of the fall does not exceed forty feet; and that the depth of the bason below, is no more than eighteen!

Charleton-Hall, (p. 85), should be Carleton-Hall; and in p. 86, the semicircular stones which in a manner connect the two pillars that form the ends of the giants frame at Penrith, are said to be "two pieces of masonry."

The censure bestowed on the modern erections, which disgrace the scenery of the lake of Keswick, is well-deserved; and we should be glad to see all the incongruous buildings which spring up under the principles of false taste, equally

exposed; the character of the *estaterman*, as he is called in the language of Cumberland, is very happily drawn; we wish our limits would permit its insertion; though from a false construction in one of the sentences, *snow-storms*, are represented as amounting, in some instances, to "twelve, or fifteen hundred head in a year." p. 103.

The accounts of the late duke of Bridgewater's canal, and coal works, the latter of which furnish employment to 1300 people, merit commendation; so also does the description of the salt mines, at Northwich.

Hawkstone park, the beautiful demesne of Sir Richard Hill; the iron bridge, and scenery at Coalbrook dale; the Soho manufactory at Birmingham, and the descriptions of Kenilworth and Warwick castles, are all interesting; and we would recommend them to the attention of our readers. Several pages in the account of Stratford are devoted to the immortal Shakespeare, but do not present us with any thing particular.

Out of a multitude of smaller errors may be selected the following, some however of which, are probably attributable to the printer. Among the other inaccuracies, p. 52, 53. *Bronscolumn*, for *Branzholm*; *Yeuse* for *Euse*; *Lanholm* for *Langholm*; p. 191. *dissimilar*, for *dissimilar*; and in p. 211. the ingenious inventor of the steam engine, captain Thomas Savery, is said to have erected one at the commencement of the eighth century, instead of the eighteenth.

Upon the whole our opinion is, that Mr. Warner will derive more profit than credit, from a book in which the marks of carelessness and superficial observation are so glaringly conspicuous.

ART. XIX. *A Journey from Edinburgh through Parts of North Britain; containing Remarks on Scottish Landscape; and Observations on Rural Economy, Natural History, Manufactures, Trade and Commerce; interspersed with Anecdotes, traditional, literary, and historical; together with biographical Sketches relating chiefly to civil and ecclesiastical Affairs, from the twelfth Century down to the present Time. Embellished with Forty Four Engravings, from Drawings made on the Spot, of the Lake, River, and Mountain Scenery of Scotland.* By ALEXANDER CAMPBELL. 2 vols. 4to. pp. 810.

THIS comprehensive title page, like the full charged show-boards of shopkeepers, announces that variety and choice which is calculated to please almost every description of persons. The naturalist, manufacturer, merchant, historian, and literary lounge, are respectively invited to these variegated vo-

lumes, and each is promised something for the gratification of his favourite study. But as it rarely happens that one man can be equally skilled in many different sciences, it may be fairly presumed that Mr. Campbell is not completely master of all the subjects enumerated in the title-page.

The topography and antiquities of Scotland have been often described, and many volumes are already before the public, relating to this part of the British islands; Sir John Sinclair has published a very comprehensive work, his *Statistical Account*, 13 vols. 8vo. Martyn, Pennant, and Cordiner, have elucidated many of its antiquities, and much of its natural history. Marshall, Anderson, and Robertson, have investigated its soils and modes of agriculture; whilst its mineralogy has been ably and scientifically described by Jameson, Williams, Hutton, Faujas, and St. Fond. Within the last twenty years several tourists have also given the public the result of their observations and inquiries: the principal of them are Gilpin, Garnett, Stoddart, Murray, and Johnson. With all this assistance, we expected Mr. Campbell would have produced a more complete and interesting work; but the mind that is absorbed in trifles cannot embrace the more ample and grand objects of nature and art. The tourist who descends to the minute detail of every trivial circumstance relating to himself, and the objects he sees, must be extremely dull jejune and insipid. "*Tours*," observes Mr. Stoddart, "are the mushroom produce of every summer, and Scotland has had her share. These are read as much as any other ephemeral productions; and some of them live. This vitality is not founded on trite notices, or trivial occurrences. Neither author, nor reader, usually looks with much complacency on the enumeration of mile-stones and public houses, or on the 'moving accidents,' by broken chaise and sandy road; nor, indeed, do we much care to hear what travellers are sometimes anxious to tell, that they were 'clothed in purple and fine linen, and fared sumptuously every day.' These incidents have their weight; some such information is in its way useful, and no book of travels can be complete without it. A work, however, which aspires to any permanence, must rest on more solid merits; it must contain either a communication of important physical facts and discoveries, or an accurate tracing, and novel illustration of human feelings."

We have quoted these remarks as expressive of our own sentiments, and as characterising some parts of the work before us; other parts are disfigured by

long inflated sentences, and obscurity of language; nor is it free from vulgar idioms, and false construction. To instance all these would be unnecessarily tedious; we will, therefore, proceed to the more pleasing task of giving a particular analysis of, with extracts from, the work, that the reader may be enabled to make his own inferences.

The tract which our tourist has traversed, consists of the central provinces of Scotland, comprehending the counties of Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Stirling, Perth, Angus, Fife, Kinross, and Clackmanan. Its southern boundaries are the Pentland Hills; its western the Clyde and Lochlomond; on the north it extends beyond the Tay, to the sources of its tributary rivers; on the east it is terminated by the ocean. This circle contains a variety that includes almost every characteristic of Scottish climate, soil, productions, external aspect, and inhabitants. From the soft meanders of the Forth, to the rugged precipices of Glenalmond; from the rich plains of Falkirk and Gowry, to the towering barrenness of Shihallion and Benmore; from the lowland farmers and manufacturers of Stirling and Lothian; to the highland goatherds of Rannoch and Glendochart. As a whole this range is new; no tourist that we recollect has taken the same march, or considered central Scotland in one unbroken view.

The author, we perceive, is a native; we view him, therefore, not merely as a passing stranger, exhibiting new objects as they present themselves, but an historian, who ought to be well acquainted with the former state of the places and people which he surveys. Before we deliver our opinion on the merits of this work, we shall present to our readers an analysis of its principal contents, with specimens of the performance, from both of which they will perceive the grounds of our remarks, and we trust coincide in our judgment.

Our traveller begins his journey at Edinburgh, and, taking the road to Stirling, the first objects which present themselves are the cultivated enclosures interspersed with villas, which distinguish the various approaches to the Scottish metropolis. Where there is any thing remarkable either in a structure, or in the history of its proprietor, he enters into some description, or offers histori-



cal or biographical remarks. Among these is Merchiston House, worthy of notice, as having been the chief residence of Napier, the famous inventor of the logarithms, "the person to whom the title of *great man* is more justly due," says Hume, "than any other whom his country every produced." Proceeding about four miles from Edinburgh, the traveller reaches an eminence, whence there is a distant view of the Grampian Mountains, but the adjacent prospects chiefly occupied the attention, being the highly cultivated fields of West Lothian. Here the agricultural improvements are stated to be so striking and important, that land which ten years ago was scarcely worth ten shillings the acre, now fetches fifty; and the tenant vies in the comforts, and even the luxuries of life, with the landholder.

The first stage from Edinburgh, in this course, is Linlithgow, the chief town of a county, and which was a place of considerable importance, when Scotland was governed by its native princes.

In this town our traveller informs us, Dr. Henry, the historian, instituted a public library, and bequeathed his valuable collection of books as the foundation for so truly liberal a design. Few occurrences worthy of historical notice, since the common league and covenant was burned, have taken place at Linlithgow.

Within a few miles of Stirling, our author notices a striking instance of agricultural improvement, effected by genius and science, in fertilizing a large tract of land that was before useless. But we shall give the account in the author's own words.

"The mosses of Kincardine and Flanders, as they are called, form an extensive flat of many thousand acres. They appear to have been formed, as all mosses are supposed to have been, of decayed wood. This theory of the growth of moss seems now universally admitted. A visit to the *Moss-lairds* (as they are denominated) of Kincardine, is well worth the performing; the traveller having it hereby in his power to gratify his curiosity with regard to the happy effects of well bestowed labour and ingenuity. The late Lord Kaims, into whose possession the estate of Blair Drummond came in 1767, contemplating the advantages which might arise from clearing that part of the lands buried under the moss of Kincardine, lost no time in endeavouring to accomplish what was so desirable. Accordingly, he invited a number of poor families from the more remote parts of this district of Perthshire, to come and

settle in this waste; and marked out certain portions of it to each settler, in order that, by degrees, this hitherto unprofitable heath might become as good arable land, as any other part of his valuable demense, for such truly is the estate of Blair Drummond. The attempts that had been made to regain the soil which the moss covers, were not attended with the success that was anticipated, prior to the accession of Lord Kaims to the Blair Drummond estate. Draining, trenching, burning, and other methods had failed. The idea occurred of sweeping away the super-incumbent stratum of moss by means of water; and then, by placing heaps of cut moss in such manner as brought them into action, when the collections of water were let down upon them, the soil was left clear for the plough; and thus the last proprietor had the satisfaction of seeing his plan of agriculture, in some measure, succeed, though not altogether to his wishes. His lordship's son, the present proprietor, following the laudable example of his father, continued the mode of clearing away the moss by water. In order to do this the more effectually, he caused the machine, already mentioned, to be erected, and he has lately had it completely repaired: it is hoped, therefore, that he will be amply repaid every expence, as well as the purpose for which it was originally intended be fully answered."

Proceeding in a western direction, our author arrives among the Grampians, where nature assumes a bolder form, though, at the same time, relieved in places by softness and beauty. He gives a very ample and circumstantial description of Glenfinglas, and Loch Katrin.

Thence penetrating through the Grampians, he arrives at Lochearn, proceeds to the river which rises from that lake, and follows its course through the delightful valley of Strathern.

He then returns to the Grampians, and pursues his course to Breadalbane. In describing this part of the country, he introduces some entertaining sketches of national manners, together with histories of the contests of different clans. He also pursues the military character of the Scottish mountaineers from the desultory warfare of feudal times, to its present state of disciplined heroism.

Our traveller from Taymouth proceeds down Strath-tay, till he comes to the most beautiful spot in that country, Logierait, distinguished as the native parish of two gentlemen signally eminent in their respective professions, Dr. Adam Ferguson, the historian and philosopher, and Col. Alexander Stewart, who at the head of the 42d regiment, on

the 21st of March, 1801, afforded so brilliant an example of British gallantry on the plains of Egypt. Mr. Campbell next visits Blair, and returns southward to Dunkeld, the boundary of the highlands.

In his return southward, our tourist proceeds to Perth and Dundee, describes those flourishing towns, and crosses over to St. Andrews. Hence he proceeds along the coast towards Edinburgh, and in his way there he meets with several anecdotes connected with literary history. At Largo, a village noted for manufacture, one of the weavers is John Selkirk, the grand-nephew of Alexander Selkirk, so well known to readers, both old and young, under the name of Robinson Crusoe.

"The present Selkirk (our author informs us) with pious regard to the memory of his kinsman, preserves the chest and musket, which the latter had with him in the island of *Juan Fernandez*, on which he was left as a punishment for mutiny. Alexander Selkirk (Robinson Crusoe) was born at Largo in the year 1676. Early accustomed to a sea-faring life, he acquired sufficient knowledge of his profession, as it appears that in the year 1703 he sailed as master of the *Cinque Port*, captain Stradling, on a cruise to the South Seas; where, it should seem, a mutiny breaking out among the crew, in which Selkirk was a chief actor, instead of suffering the punishment usually inflicted in such cases, he was put on shore on a desolate island, in which he passed four years and four months, in the most hopeless solitude that ever man experienced. The only companions of his seclusion from human society, were wild cats and a few goats, which he had tamed, fed, and familiarized in such a manner, as at last to bring them to share in his pastimes; and this, together with hunting and devotion, filled up the intervals unoccupied by sleep. He was often heard to mention the horror he felt at the idea, that when dead, the very cats which he had reared, and fed with such tender care, would greedily devour his body. Having spent the time before specified in this forlorn condition, he was at last relieved, and brought to England by captain *Woods Rogers*, and soon after returned to his native place. Selkirk having communicated to *De Foe* many of the particulars related in the history and adventures of the fictitious Robinson Crusoe, that ingenious writer, mixing a few real occurrences with fable, produced the pleasing and instructive performance alluded to."

Near Kirkcaldie, the birth-place of Dr. Adam Smith, there is a literary anecdote concerning the origination of his great work.

"Formerly there was a manufactory for iron nails at *Path-head*, the next village through which we pass. It is said, that the frequent contemplation of the dexterity with which the nailers performed their tasks, suggested to the late celebrated author of the *Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, the vast advantages that result from the division of labour. In turning to account the industry and ingenuity of individuals, the fundamental propositions of his admirable speculations."

Crossing the Frith our traveller arrives at Edinburgh, where he commenced his tour. Of this city he gives a very particular, though rather desultory description, blended with various biographical sketches, new or entertaining; some of these, if not intrinsically uninteresting, are, at least, very common, and in that view superfluous.

The literary history, however, of the Scottish metropolis is ably drawn up, especially that part of it which relates to the rise and progress of dramatic exhibitions.

The preceding analysis and specimens may serve to illustrate the object, plan, and execution of the work; which, on the whole, may be consulted with advantage by persons who propose to make a similar tour, or who have not an opportunity of examining many topographical publications. The rout of our author is, however, very contracted, being for the most part only a portion of the smaller highland tour, that is travelled by numbers of the Edinburgh students during the long vacation, and by every English party of pleasure. His plates are more numerous than valuable, as many of the same subjects have already been published by Pennant, and others; but some are representative of grand scenery, and are, therefore, pleasing to the eye. They are all engaved in the aquatinta style, which is more calculated for broad massy effect, than for discriminating the details of a landscape. Artists and authors should ever bear in mind, that nature is the grand archetype, whose beauty and features cannot be too closely imitated; and as truth and fidelity are the most valuable ingredients in writing, so is correctness of portrait in the delineation of views. The eye can always discriminate the parts of a real scene, and should be equally satisfied in every pictorial representation.



## CHAPTER VI.



## ANCIENT CLASSICS.

NO study is more pleasing, and few are more instructive than that of philosophical history. To trace in their causes the rise and progress, the decline and fall of empires, is an occupation equally interesting to the imagination, and improving to the intellect. But the most pleasing employment of history is, perhaps, in relating the origin and advances of the arts, sciences, and civilization. The remains of ancient literature, if regarded only as containing the history of those distant times from which they have descended to us, and affording specimens of the cultivation which they had attained, would preserve a considerable degree of importance. But it cannot be denied that they have still more forcible claims upon our attention.

The progress which the ancients had made in science was by no means inconsiderable. The elements of most modern improvements in physical and ethical studies, were, perhaps, possessed by the philosophers of Greece and Rome. They left indeed much to be investigated; they often wasted the most powerful efforts in pursuit of devious courses, which terminated only in error; but still they opened those paths of science which have since been more successfully traced: and the disciple of modern schools, is often surprised at meeting in the works of the ancients with hints of knowledge, which he had considered as the exclusive possession of the philosophy of a more recent period.

The vast importance of ancient literature at the period of its revival, if considered only as a source of scientific instruction, is indisputable. The world had for centuries been almost retrograde in knowledge; and if the tide had been already turned, it was still far below the mark of its former ascent. It was the lot, therefore, of the moderns, in every science to be the scholars of the ancients, and their happiness, at so critical a period, to meet with such instructors.

They were not backward to acknowledge their obligations, and discern their interest. Never was an object sought with greater ardour than the restoration of learning. Italy led the way in this honourable pursuit, and soon communicated the emulation to the adjoining nations.

The state of things is now greatly changed. Three centuries of vigorous and unintermitted improvement, have placed the moderns far above their masters. The relations of space and number have been pursued and applied to an astonishing extent. The general properties of matter have been successfully investigated in theory, and extensively applied to practice. Substances are brought to the test of examination, which in their usual state are so subtle as to elude the notice of our senses. The earth has been explored to an extent far exceeding the limits of ancient discovery. We are not strangers even in the regions of space. The

structure of our own globe has been minutely examined, so far as it is accessible to human industry. Its products have been ingeniously classified, and are thus more easily brought under the mental view. Many of their useful properties have been discovered. Man is far more intimately acquainted with his own nature, both corporeal and intellectual. Even in the intricate regions of metaphysics, something like certainty has been attained. We are taught the strength and weakness of our own faculties; the limits of scepticism and decision; and the first principles which form the postulates of knowledge. The structure and uses of language have been rationally illustrated; the powers of the human mind have been accurately distinguished; the principles of social and individual happiness have been developed with no inconsiderable success, though we are not yet sufficiently wise to make the best application of our discoveries.

We no longer resort, therefore, to the ancients for instruction in science, because an ordinary proficient in modern education, might communicate information to Plato and Aristotle. In defending the importance of classical literature, we must now proceed upon other principles.

The ancient languages are the keys of ancient history. Within the circuit of the Greek and Latin tongues, is preserved by far the principal part of the information which we possess, respecting the most interesting portions of the world, from the earliest memorials of history, till the decline of ancient civilization.

In the languages of Greece and Rome we possess authors of consummate and almost unrivalled excellence, in some of the departments of literature, who still remain our best models in their respective branches of composition. If the philosophy of Plato and Aristotle is consigned to neglect; the poetry of Homer and Virgil; the eloquence of Demosthenes and Cicero; the histories of Herodotus and Thucydides, Livy and Tacitus, still retain an acknowledged pre-eminence.

The structure of the ancient languages, so different from that of our own, and in many respects so superior, is alone a subject of curious and important investigation to the philosophical grammarian.

One science especially will acknowledge its obligations to ancient learning. Some of the most important doctrines connected with the subject of theology, are principally founded on historic facts, the evidence of which is transmitted by authors who have written in the ancient languages.

Lastly, criticism is capable of becoming a very interesting and engaging employment, as is sufficiently proved by the well-known attachment of the votaries of this study to the objects of their pursuit; and where it is not permitted to encroach on the discharge of more serious duties, the pleasure which it affords may surely be regarded as more than an innocent gratification.

A great revolution has taken place in the importance of classical literature, since the time of its revival; the principles of criticism have been both changed, and greatly improved within the same period.

The first object of classical editors, was to communicate to the world, as speedily as possible, those writings which were then accessible to very few, and were frequently in danger of being lost from the scarcity of copies. Editions were, therefore, often printed from incorrect, and sometimes from single manuscripts; and no single manuscript, however valuable, is able to afford, in every

instance, the genuine text of a writer. *Illas*, says an early editor of Aristophanes, referring to the two comedies which are wanting in the first editions of that author, *illas tibi, ut invenimus, minus expolitas, quam nullas tradere maluimus*. These editions have now, in many instances, become rare, and their rarity has often conferred on them a great extrinsic value. Yet they frequently possess a real use, as well as an imaginary importance. They were often printed from manuscripts which are not now known to exist, and are the earliest authorities for some of the readings which they afford.

The first classical editors were often men who had attained great facility in the use of the learned languages, but they did not, in general, possess either taste, or in some of the departments of learning, knowledge, sufficient to enable them to make the best use of the advantages which they enjoyed. Though their labours were highly important and meritorious, they therefore left much to be done by the sagacity of their successors.

Before the conclusion of the sixteenth century, most of the classical authors were repeatedly published. More manuscripts had been gradually consulted; more correct specimens of typography were produced; and the dawning of a more liberal and learned criticism began to appear, especially in the works of Casaubon.

The same progress was continued through the seventeenth century, in which, with many others, appeared the distinguished names of Gronovius and Heinsius.

A more difficult labour was imposed on succeeding editors. The sources of obvious emendation were in most instances anticipated, and the remaining corruptions could, in general, be removed only by the exercise of great skill and great learning. Bentley may be regarded as the father of the present school of criticism, and in the preface to his Horace, he has thus described the office and difficulties of a modern editor, and defended the temperate exercise of that conjectural criticism which is often necessary, which he himself has frequently applied with the greatest felicity, and which he has sometimes, perhaps, carried to excess. "*Ne id forte necias, longe longeque difficilius est hodie, quam superioribus erat annis, emendationes conscribere. Ita omnia illa quæ ex scriptorum codicum collatione clare et ultro se ingerebant, prærepta jam sunt et anticipata, neque quidquam fere residuum est, nisi quod ex intimâ sententiæ vi, et orationis indole, solius ingenii ope sit eruendum.*"

With regard to the present state of classical literature, if great proficients in that branch of learning are now more rare than formerly, their attainments are, at least, of a higher order.

A modern critic will, indeed, use greater freedom in the estimate of his author's merits, than was permitted by the superstitious admiration, with which the ancients were formerly regarded. In the study of their writings he will not pledge himself to maintain every seeming defect to be a beauty; he will not be unbounded in his panegyric, but the admiration which, after every rational deduction he will still retain, will be more satisfactory, as it is more discriminating; and the benefit which he himself will derive from the exercise of an independent judgment on the models which he copies, will be far greater than that which could result from a blind, though intimate familiarity with them.



The distinctions of style are now much better understood by the enlightened scholar, than in the infancy of the critical art. Men of great erudition and talents, were formerly very deficient in this attainment, without which they must often be exposed to the danger of error in their emendations. Markland, in the preface to his edition of the *Sylva*, of Statius, well observes, in estimating the critical merits of the elder Gronovius, that to understand with accuracy the Latin language, and the Latin poets, are two very different attainments; to the former of these qualifications, no better claim can be advanced than that of Gronovius; the latter of them was, perhaps, scarcely possessed in an eminent degree, by any scholar, before the time of Nic. Heinsius, who, from the united taste and erudition which guided his criticism, has merited the title of the reviver of the Latin poets.

The introduction of a spirit of philosophy into historical investigations, united to the advantage of continued research, has greatly extended our knowledge of ancient manners, and afforded, in many instances, fresh illustration to ancient writings.

Great attention has, of late, been paid to niceties in the use of the learned languages, which were formerly overlooked. Many rules of Greek grammar have been established with such certainty, and rendered so obvious by the labour of modern critics, that we might justly wonder how they could have remained so long unperceived, did not experience continually teach us how much more difficult it is to discover a simple truth, than to understand from the instruction of others, a remote and complex proposition.

In one branch of classical erudition, the knowledge of the metres of the ancient poets, there is no competition between the former and the present schools of criticism. It is to be regretted, that even at present we have no treatise on this subject, which can be regarded as complete; though we have, undoubtedly, scholars, whose acquisitions would enable them easily to supply the want. Without an accurate knowledge of the metrical art, it is impossible that the works of the ancient poets can be successfully restored, for the transcribers were often ignorant of the easiest kinds of metre, and were rarely acquainted with those which are more unusual and difficult. In the manuscripts therefore, and early editions, violations of the metrical laws perpetually occur. It has been remarked by Brunck, that the restrictions of the metre have been, in a considerable degree, the cause of the preservation of some of the nicer distinctions of the Attic dialect, which are much more frequently confounded in the prose writers, where no such restrictions exist. The importance of an attention to metrical rules, for this and other reasons, is therefore obvious.

A modern editor, while severer duties are imposed on him, possesses, however, some peculiar advantages superior to those of his predecessors. The best manuscripts of the most important authors have now been in general collated, and accounts of their variations made public. Some of the ancient lexicographers were first published, and most of the others best edited during the last century.

In the present advanced state of learning, a new series of editions of classic authors, accommodated to the improvement of the times, is earnestly to be wished. Many of these have been already executed, and the rest will, in all probability, be gradually completed. No one however, without incurring the imputation of

rashness, can undertake the department of a classical editor, who does not possess leisure, talents, and learning, sufficient for the examination and employment of the remaining means of critical illustration which are applicable to his work. Successfully to establish and illustrate the text of an important author, demands endowments and opportunities of no common occurrence.

Italy, the country in which learning was first revived, has long ceased to take the lead in any department of science. The literature of Spain has never been very important beyond the boundaries of its own territory. France, though highly distinguished in every form as a literary nation, furnishes only a few names to the catalogue of critics of the first order. These have been chiefly found in England, Germany, and Holland, the countries in which classical literature is now principally cultivated. The last of these countries, though so confined in extent, was, at one period of the last century, so fertile in eminent scholars, especially in Greek learning, that a very learned critic of our own country, considered it as in this respect, equal or superior to the rest of Europe. From Germany we are now accustomed most frequently to receive our best editions. Our own country furnishes a few honourable exceptions to this observation. Long may it continue in every other respect, to hold among the nations the distinguished rank which it has hitherto possessed, and deserve to remain, till the remotest period, the seat of virtue, liberty, and learning.

#### EDITIONS.

ART. I. *Homeri Carmina, cum brevi Annotatione. Accedunt varia Lecturae, et Observationes veterum grammaticorum, cum nostrae aetatis critica, curante C. G. HEYNE. Lipsiae, in libraria Weidmannia. 8 vols. 8vo.*

THE learned writer to whom we are indebted for this valuable edition of the chief work of the father of ancient poetry, for the Iliad only has yet appeared, has long occupied a station of eminent distinction in the republic of letters. He has before presented the world with several excellent editions of classic authors; the Grecian lyric, and the Roman epic muse, have been illustrated by his labours; and his Virgil especially, is too well known to every admirer of that delightful poet, and to every lover of ancient literature, to stand in need of our encomium. The talents which are requisite to form the accomplished commentator, have in few instances been more happily and splendidly united; learning and taste, judgment, candour, and industry (and how rarely in the annals of criticism have all these qualities been found combined) mark out the present editor as qualified, in an uncommon degree, for the important labour which he has undertaken, and in which he has long been known to have been employed.

A new edition of Homer has for some time been one of the *desiderata* of literature. The same spirit of improvement which, during the progress of the last century, distinguished other branches of learning and science, has also arisen in the province of criticism. Ancient prejudices have died away, the principles of philosophy have been happily united with those of literary investigation, and the Greek language especially, has received considerable illustration from the labour which has been employed in developing its history and structure. In addition to these general advantages, fresh stores of critical apparatus, before withheld, have of late been communicated to the student of Homer; a new æra has commenced in the history of the poet, the rules of judgment are, indeed, applied with greater freedom to the estimate of his works, but if the column of his fame, which has stood through so many succeeding ages, should be stripped of any of those supernumerary ornaments which may have been affixed to it by the zeal of mistaken admiration, it

is at least likely to be placed on a more solid basis.

We shall state the nature of the present work, in the words of the learned editor.

"It was my object," says he, "in this revision of the poems of Homer, besides the labour which is common to every editor of a classic author, in determining the true reading, and just interpretation, to collect the scattered remarks, so far as they are valuable, of ancient and modern commentators, slightly noticing what is of less consequence, and explaining what is more important, at greater length. As the labours of the ancients, especially the grammarians, in the illustration of Homer, form a subject of considerable curiosity, it appeared an object of importance to extract their learning from the mass of scholia, glossaries, and commentaries, in which it is contained, and freeing it from the extraneous matter with which it is combined, to present it at one view to the reader, that he may be enabled to form a judgment of its real merit. And as the moderns have, in the same province, distinguished themselves no less in both the departments of criticism, as relating to the just constitution, and grammatical interpretation of the text, and as extending to the illustration of the poetry itself, the structure, the glossaries, and beauties of the work, I have thought it an object of principal importance to associate their labours in my plan, subjoining my own judgment, whatever may be its value."

Such is the plan, which more than twenty years ago was marked out for the execution of the present work. It originated in an application from Ernesti, the editor of Homer, at Leipsic, in 1759, to superintend a revision of his edition, which he then intended to lay before the public. This proposal was declined, since the edition of Clarke, republished and augmented by Ernesti, though a work of merit and utility, when considered with reference to the period of its execution, was still inadequate to the requisitions which arose from the advanced state to which Greek literature has recently attained. Having resolved, therefore, in the preparation of a new edition, to consult his own views, it was the first object of M. Heyne to alleviate the burden of his undertaking by the aid of some literary associate. In 1781 an engagement for this purpose was formed with S. F. N. Morus, at that time professor of Greek and Latin literature, in the university of Leipsic, a connection which was, however, shortly afterwards broken, by his removal to the chair of

theology, in the same university. A similar engagement was then formed with C. D. Beck, well known to the public by his useful labours in the province of ancient learning, who undertook the collection of various readings, of extracts from the Scholia, and of passages quoted by ancient authors, from the writings of Homer. In 1792, M. Heyne was, however, deprived of the assistance of his second colleague; and in reviewing the extent and difficulty of his plan, would willingly, he says, have relinquished his undertaking, had it been consistent with the engagements into which he had entered. Notwithstanding these discouragements, therefore, to which was added the consideration of his declining age, and the multiplicity of his avocations, he at length resolved to persevere, frequently repeating, as he informs us, that verse of his author

Διηλασθῆναι, οὐ σὲ λυγρὴ, κίχρον ὄς, διδισσυσσάδι.

Some very important resources of different kinds were open to M. Heyne, for the execution of this work. He first enumerates six manuscripts, preserved in the public library of Breslau, the use of which was procured from the magistrates of that city. A description of them occurs in the prolegomena of the third volume, pp. 88, 89. These manuscripts were collated by Frederic Jacobs, the editor of the Anthology, and at this time a learned professor at Gotha. In the year 1788, collations were procured from Matthæi, of several manuscripts, generally imperfect, particularly some preserved at Moscow, one of which is accompanied by unedited Scholia. In the same year appeared Villoison's edition of the Iliad, with scholia, published from ancient and valuable manuscripts, then preserved in the library of St Mark, at Venice, and since transported, with the spoils of Italy, to the national library at Paris. This was an event of the greatest importance to the criticism of Homer, as the scholia of the Venetian manuscripts are of a much more valuable order than any of those which had been before made public.

M. Heyne also procured the use of a copy of the edition of Homer, by Stephanus, preserved in the library of Trinity College, Cambridge, formerly possessed by Doctor Bentley, and enriched with the manuscript notes of that illus-

trious scholar. It is well known that Bentley had, at one period of his life, formed the project of a new edition of Homer, a principal object of which would have been the restoration of the digamma. This plan he never carried into execution. He has, however, marked in the margin of his copy of Homer, the words which appear to have originally possessed the digamma; and M. Heyne acknowledges himself under the greatest obligations, in the doctrine which he has advanced on this subject, to the diligence and sagacity of our learned countryman.

M. Heyne experienced the generosity of Mr. Townley, (whose exquisite collection of different remains of antiquity, and his liberal exhibition of them to the curiosity of the public, are well known), in the use of a most valuable manuscript of Homer, which forms a part of his literary treasures. As this relic may be regarded as interesting and honourable, not only to its possessor, but in some degree to the British public, an account of it, extracted from the prolegomena of the present edition, may prove not unacceptable. It was procured about the year 1773, by Mr. Townley, along with some other manuscripts, at Rome, and its age was then referred, by Asseman, librarian of the Vatican, to the ninth century. It is written on parchment, consisting of 288 leaves, and is accompanied by a series of ancient scholia, which, on the first inspection, appeared to be of considerable value and importance. Those of the 1st, 19th, 20th, 21st, and 22d books, were transcribed, and were found in general to agree with the second Venetian scholia, and others of the same order. They are written, if not in the same hand with that of the Iliad, at least by one of equal antiquity, though with some interlineations of subsequent date, and inferior value. M. Heyne had, a short time previous to his inspection of this manuscript, obtained a copy of the scholia which pass under the name of Victorius, and he was struck by their correspondence with those which accompany the manuscript of Mr. Townley. A further comparison left no doubt on his mind that this manuscript was the source from which the scholia, copied by Victorius, and known by his name, were originally derived, a specimen of which was published in the year 1620, and may be seen annexed to several edi-

tions of Homer. In the progress of his inquiries, M. Heyne also discovered the manuscript of Mr. Townley to be the same with that described by Lucas Holstanius, in his life of Porphyry, as preserved by a noble family at Florence, with scholia, ascribed by some to Porphyry, by others to a still more ancient author. The result is, that the Victorian scholia are a transcript from the celebrated Florence manuscript, *which had since disappeared*; and that this manuscript, the subsequent fortune of which was hitherto unknown, is the same which has since come into the possession of Mr. Townley, and which may be regarded as one of the most valuable copies of Homer at present existing. In common with some other manuscripts, it wants the catalogue.

Such is the object of the present edition, and such the principal resources from which its peculiar advantages are derived.

The text of the Iliad is contained in the two first volumes, with a preface, briefly stating the history of the work, and accompanied by short notes, illustrative of the structure of the poem, its phraseology, and the more obvious difficulties which may occur to the reader in a cursory perusal. The words in which the digamma is inserted (which are in general only those in which the insertion is important to the prosody), are printed in capital letters, between the text and the notes, where the variations from the common reading are also stated. The third volume includes the prolegomena, and the Latin version; the remaining five are occupied by the various readings, the observations, and the excursus.

It is not to be expected that many new discoveries can be made from any of the remaining sources of critical illustration, by which the works of Homer may be restored to a state of much greater purity, than that in which we now possess them. The writings of this poet, if we date at least from the period of the later Alexandrian grammarians, appear to have been transmitted to us in a state less corrupt than that in which many other works of antiquity have reached us. It is the judgment of the editor that, in this respect, Homer has experienced a fortune more favourable than Virgil. It may, however, be easily supposed that he possesses no exemption

from those corruptions which the lapse of time, and the negligence or ignorance of transcribers, have so profusely introduced into most of those productions of the writers of antiquity, which have descended to us through a series of ages, so unfriendly to the cause of literature. We shall here endeavour to place before our readers a general view of what has been effected in this department of the edition.

The authorities for the constitution of the text, are the early editions, the manuscripts, and ancient scholia, a critical account of which is given in the prolegomena of the third volume.

The editions of any critical authority, are stated to be but few; the *editio princeps* of Florence, in 1488; the second Aldine, the first Strasburgh edition; that of Rome, with the commentaries of Eustathius; those of Turnebus and Stephanus, the latter of which is regarded as the basis of the common reading. Of these the principal, in critical importance, are the Florentine and Roman. There are, however, some later editions, as those of Barnes and Ernesti, which contain reports of manuscript readings. That of Clarke has lost a considerable part of the authority which it once possessed. Its merits and defects are very justly estimated by the present editor; but though Clarke cannot, perhaps, be admitted to stand in the very first rank of classical commentators, he will, beyond all controversy, in his varied characters of scholar, philosopher, and divine, continue to occupy a distinguished place among those illustrious names which form the ornament of his country. "Nomen viri docti, acuti philosophi, et theologi sobrie philosophantis, carum et sanctum mihi habetur." Heyne prol. p. 32.

Many valuable manuscripts of Homer, are preserved in the different libraries of Europe. It cannot be supposed that they should furnish much information respecting the state of these poems at a period earlier than that of the recensions of the Alexandrian grammarians. "Probabiliter dici posse apparet hoc," says the editor, "fundum nostræ lectionis esse Aristarcheam, mutatam tamen in multis et variatam iudicii aliorum grammaticorum, interdum temeritate librariorum et vanitate correctorum; multis tamen in locis etiam emendatiorem ac meliorem ipsâ Aristarcheâ." Several of the remaining manuscripts have not

yet been collated, and others have been but imperfectly examined; it is, however, the opinion of Professor Heyne, that much further benefit is not to be expected from the collation of them, if an estimate may be formed from the advantage which has resulted to the text of Homer, from those which have been already inspected.

The ancient scholia form a more important field of critical investigation.

It is well known, that the respect paid by the natives of ancient Greece, to the works of Homer, was gradually carried to the highest pitch of enthusiastic admiration. The writings, therefore, of the national bard, regarded with a degree of reverence approaching to idolatry, would naturally become the subject of innumerable treatises, commentaries, and remarks. Many fragments of these works have been transmitted to the present time, and though they are incumbered with much useless and foreign matter, yet they convey also a considerable portion of information, which may be applied with great utility to the illustration of the poet.

Our author first enumerates among the interpreters of Homer, those who undertook to explain the allegories which they discovered in his poems, or employed themselves in different ways, to defend, or excuse the apparent absurdity or impiety of some of his fictions, sometimes by physical, and sometimes by ethical interpretations. Little, however, is accurately known respecting the earliest attempts of this nature. Another species of questions was agitated by the philosophers and sophists, respecting passages which they referred to the opinions of their own age, intermixed with various substitutes relative to places of obscure or doubtful meaning. These were termed *ἀπορίσματα* or *Σημειώσεις*, and were accompanied by the *Λύσεις*, of the sophists, some of which are preserved by the scholiasts.

These critics, if they deserve the name, were succeeded by the Alexandrian grammarians, under whom the reading, and grammatical interpretation, at length became subjects of some concern. From the knowledge which has been transmitted to us respecting their labours, they appear, however, to have been very remote from the critical precision of modern philologists.

As the remarks of a single grammarian



rian frequently extended only to a single book, or to some other portion of the whole work, miscellanies of scholia were gradually formed from different authors, of different descriptions.

By the decline of learning in Greece, and the changes suffered by the ancient language, it at length became necessary for those who wished to peruse the writings of the flourishing ages of their country, to qualify themselves for this purpose, by the study of their native language in its former state. Homer now required an interpreter, obsolete words were to be rendered by others better known, which were often inserted by interlineations in the manuscripts, for the assistance of the reader. Hence arose a fresh order of scholia, gradually descending from the explication of the more obscure words and phrases, to those which are among the most frequent and familiar.

It became customary also to form collections of the ancient explanatory scholia, or *λεξeis*, reduced to alphabetical order; these were termed *λεξικα*; hence the Lexica Homerica, such as that of Apollonius, published by Villoison.

From these different species of scholia, the scholia found in the manuscripts preserved to the present times, have been collected with different degrees of judgment and discrimination; the more ancient the manuscript, the more valuable and important the scholia generally prove. They are reduced by M. Heyne to three classes; the first is that of the ancient scholia, collected from the remarks and discussions of the Alexandrian school. These appear to be the most numerous in the first Venetian manuscript, published by Villoison; they are, however, found interspersed among the scholia of other manuscripts, of inferior order. Those of the second class are principally found in the second Venetian manuscript of Villoison, in that of Mr. Townley, those of the Leipsic, Leyden, and some others. The commentators of this class are principally occupied, not in grammatical or critical questions, but in discussions respecting the narrations, maxims, and sentiments of the poet, their proprieties and defects. Porphyry is placed at the head of this division. A work attributed to him, with the title of *Ὅμηρικα ζήτηματα*, is still extant, and has been several times published. He is supposed, however,

to have written a work of much greater extent, upon the subject, of which the treatise now extant is, perhaps, an abridgment, and fragments of which are found in the different collections of scholia. The scholia brevia, first published by John Lascaris, in the year 1517, and found in many of the common editions of Homer, form the third class. In common with every other collection, they retain some fragments of the more ancient and valuable commentaries, but are chiefly derived from later and inferior sources, and are perpetually intermixed with the interlineary glosses of the manuscripts.

The commentaries of Eustathius have been long in the possession of the critical student of Homer, but they are more valuable, perhaps, for the grammatical learning which they contain, and their numerous citations of ancient authors, than for their direct tendency to illustrate the poet to whose works they are attached. "He appears," says the editor, "to have possessed several manuscripts of scholia, from which he has formed extracts." He accordingly calls his collection *παρρηγορίας*.

Such are the authorities which now remain for the establishment of the genuine text, the advantages of which have been more amply enjoyed by the present editor, than by any of his predecessors, and in themselves confer a considerable degree of importance on his work.

The basis of the text is the first edition of Wolfius, published in 1784.

If any valuable reading is supplied by good manuscripts, it is of course adopted.

But the sagacity and diligence of modern critics have in some instances established principles of emendation, in particular cases of greater weight than the authority of manuscripts themselves. Such, in the attic poets, are the observations respecting the invariable use of the augment, and the dependance of different words and tenses on the particles with which they are connected, and the state of the clause in which they occur. Such in the construction of the tragic iambic, are the canons respecting the exclusion of the anapaest from the even seats of the verse, and, by the decision of Professor Porson, from the third and fifth of the uneven places. And whenever, by an easy and probable emenda-

tion, a deviation from these general rules can be removed, a critic will not hesitate to receive it, in preference to a reading which violates them, and which may, on that account, be deemed corrupt, though uniformly exhibited by the remaining manuscripts.

These rules are concluded to be universal, from a preponderancy, beyond all comparison, in the number of instances in which they are observed, and the ease with which, in all, the violation of them might have been avoided. Many of those violations which appear in the common editions, have also been removed by the authority of better copies. Similar canons of emendation, perhaps of equal certainty, may in some instances be established in the criticism of Homer. The editor, however, has rarely ventured to admit into his text any alteration founded on them, unless confirmed by the authority of some manuscript.

The hiatus in the writings of Homer, forms a probable ground of emendation. Bentley has endeavoured to expunge it in every instance in which it occurs, and with some limitations, which will afterwards be specified, this doctrine will, perhaps, generally be admitted.

The doctrine of the digamma, as applied to the writings of Homer, may, with regard at least to many words, be considered as so well established, that every deviation from it implies either a corrupt or a supposititious reading.

The Ionic forms of verbs, omitting the augment, are always, in this edition, preferred, wherever any manuscript of any value authorizes the admission of them. In many instances this is effected merely by a different division of the words, and in others by some very easy change. Thus in *Iliad* i. 5, in the common editions, we read Διος δ' ἐτελείετο βῆλη, in the present, Διος δὲ τελείετο βῆλη; *Il.* i. 2, in our present copies we find ἀλγῆ ἔθηκε; the Ionic reading, equally consistent with the verse, would be ἀλγᾶ θηκε. The editor is sometimes tempted to regret that he has not preserved the uniformity of this rule; by the preference of these forms, wherever the introduction of them is easy and obvious, even in contradiction to the authority of manuscripts. Yet as the augment certainly occurs in many instances in the writings of Homer, where the construction of the verse does not admit

alteration, is it not possible that it may sometimes have been employed in preference to the Ionic form, in cases where both are otherwise equally admissible, for the sake of some superior melody which it may have communicated to the verse, perhaps not in all instances easily perceptible to us? Mr. Wakefield (*noct. carc.* 51) remarks the suavity in some cases, and the frequency of the cæsure, at the first syllable of the fifth foot, in the heroic verse. Hence, *Il.* xvi. 356, he would prefer the division Αἶδος δ' ἔβηθηκε, afforded by the copies of Plutarch, and now by some manuscripts apud Heyne, to the common reading Αἶδος δὲ βηθηκε.

The use of the word ὅ, ἡ, το, by Homer, and in imitation of him, by others of the heroic poets, as a pronoun or relative, which in the use of subsequent writers, became the article, affords, perhaps, in some passages an admissible ground of alteration. Thus *Il.* i. 35, where our copies have ηἴσ' ὁ γέρας, the original reading was probably ηἴστα γέρας. It is probable, however, that this observation cannot safely be applied without some limitation.

There are some other rules of slighter importance, to which attention has been paid in the text of the present edition.

The forms βηστω and δυστω, are received in preference to those of βηστω and δυστω.

In many cases a division of words, commonly compounded, is preferred to their united state, as ἐν κλισίῳ, κρη κομούντας. The latter words, in the earlier parts of the poem, are printed as they are here represented, but are afterwards compounded. No reason, so far as we have observed, is given of this inconsistency. The division of these words is preferred in the excursus, *T.* iv. p. 180.

The confusion of the words *ἔγω* and *ἐγών*, has in some instances been the occasion of corruptions, which an attention to their prosody and signification may remove.

We shall notice two of those varieties of reading, which have struck us as most conspicuous in the perusal of this edition.

The first occurs, *Iliad* xiv. 485. The reading both of the manuscripts and editions in this passage, is

γινωτον ἐν μεταφορῇσι ἀρις ἀλκτρεα γινωδαι,

The word *αρις* is, therefore, to be interpreted, with some harshness of expres-

sion, cædis; or, as the schol. brev. τοι ἐν πολέμῳ θανάτου. This might be justifiable in a tragic writer, and we will not say that it is wholly inadmissible in Homer. The ancient scholiasts have, however, preserved a variation, ἀρὸς ἀλκτῆρα γινώσκει, which they mention as the reading of Zenodotus. Ἀρξ, in the sense of noxa or damnum, is a Homeric word, as appears by the following passages: Il. xii. 934, xvi. 512, xxiv. 489. It is distinguished from ἀρα, preces or diræ, by its quantity, as well as signification; in the former, the first syllable is short; in the latter, long. In compliance with this evidence, ἀρὸς is therefore substituted in the text of the present edition. This reading is preferred by Bentley. The corruption of the passage, M. Heyne supposes to have originated in the ignorance of some scribe, who might interpret the word ΑΡΗΣ, which he found in his copy, Mars; and who concluded therefore, that the genitive ἀρῆος was required by the grammatical construction of the sentence.

In the celebrated description of the shield of Achilles, we read in our present copies,

Παρ ποταμὸν κίλαδοντα, περὶ ῥοδᾶρον δονακκῆα.  
Il. xviii. 576.

These words, in the common Latin translations, are rendered, *Preter fluvium resonantem, admodum rapidum, cannis abundantem*. "Quoties in hunc locum incidi," says the editor, "offendi ad hæc duo sibi repugnantia, fluvium rapidum, eundemque cannis obsitum." But it is not clear that the words can bear even this sense. The only alteration which is admitted into the text is that of *παρ* for *περ*, which is supplied by Eustathius, and the best MSS. Under the text, however, the latter part of the verse is printed thus, *διὰ ῥαδανὸν δονακκῆα*, per arundinetum mobile; a reading which supplies good sense in the place of confusion or absurdity, and is supported by the glosses of the etymologist, Hesychius, and some of the scholiasts; from which it appears that there formerly existed a considerable variety in the lection of this verse.

After the constitution of the text, the next object is the grammatical interpretation. In this branch of the duty of an editor, the labours of the present writer have, on former occasions, been peculiarly successful and interesting.

The general perspicuity of Homer's writings will, perhaps, incline many to suppose that the office of his interpreter will not be attended with much difficulty or uncertainty. Yet, even in the easiest writers, many various constitutions of the syntax may often be proposed; from which it is the part of taste and skill to select and approve the most classical and elegant. The very facility of Homer's style is, perhaps, a reason why few writers are in general read with less critical exactness. We are carried along by the interest of the narration, and are willing to acquiesce in the first sense of a dubious passage which affords a continuity of thought, and enables us to proceed in the perusal without losing all connection between the ideas.

It may not be improper to notice, from the beginning of the Iliad, some errors, which, however gross, were yet for centuries current in the common interpretation of Homer.

V. 78. *Ἡ γὰρ οἶμαι ἀνδρὰ χολωσμεν*, usually rendered "profecto enim suspicor virum iratum fore;" but *χολω* is not irascor, but irrito; the meaning of the passage therefore is, I think that I shall provoke the man, &c. The error of the common version is remarked in the note of the editor on this passage; but is retained in the Latin translation printed in the third volume.

V. 283. *Λίσσομαι Ἀχιλλεῖ μείδμεν χολόν*; in the Latin version, "precabor Achillem deponere iram," contrary to the syntax of the language, the verb *λίσσομαι* requiring an accusative of the object. The proper translation is, *Supplico tibi ut in Achillem deponas iram*. See a note relative to the interpretation of this verse in Professor Porson's edition of the Orestes of Euripides, v. 663.

V. 289. *Ατὶν οὐ πείσσομαι οἶον*, usually translated, *quæ minime persuasurum puto*; but this would be *πεισιν*; *πείσσομαι* is in the middle voice, and is therefore to be rendered, *obtemperaturum*, or *obtemperaturos*. Professor Heyne adopts the former, referring the word to Achilles; it might be connected with *πανταί*, from *πασι*, at the beginning of the line.

An error, similar to these, occurs in the common translation of Iliad, viii. 197; which may the more properly be observed, as it is not noticed even in the present edition: *αὐτοῦ χειρὶ νῶν ἐπιβροσμεν* *ῥακίωσιν*. "Speraverim equidem Achivos

hac ipsâ nocte naves consensuros veloces;" but Homer, almost without exception, employs the future  $\epsilon\lambda\theta\omega$  in a transitive sense:  $\epsilon\pi\iota\beta\eta\sigma\iota\mu\epsilon\nu$  is, therefore, not illos consensuros, but me conscendere facturum.  $\epsilon\pi\iota\beta\eta\sigma\alpha\iota$  ποταμῷ, schol. brev. ad loc.

These errors are sufficiently gross; and they may serve as a specimen that some caution is necessary even in the perusal of Homer.

II. i. 29.  $\tau\eta\upsilon \delta' \epsilon\gamma\omega \sigma\upsilon \lambda\upsilon\sigma\alpha\iota, \pi\rho\iota\upsilon \mu\epsilon\gamma \kappa\alpha\iota \eta\eta\rho\alpha\varsigma \epsilon\pi\iota\sigma\tau\iota\upsilon$ . This verse is usually translated, "Hanc autem ego non liberabo, antequam ipsam et senectus invadat." M. Heyne renders it, "Hanc autem ego non liberabo; quin potius ipsam et senectus invadet." This is more agreeable to the usage of Homer, who, in the former sense of  $\pi\rho\iota\upsilon$ , connects it with the infinitive or subjunctive mood. Plato, however, in his paraphrase of this passage, understands it in the common sense.

In a writer of Homer's antiquity, difficulties must occasionally occur from the use of obsolete forms and phrases. Some interesting descriptions on subjects of this nature are found in different parts of the observations.

Several of the excursus are devoted to the examination of grammatical questions. Some of these relate to the use of the particles, a curious, and sometimes an intricate, subject in the doctrine of Greek grammar.

"Ad tragicos," says the editor, "multæ extant virorum doctorum observationes de particularum in iis usu; quæ tamen in Homericis non semper locum habent; neque omnino in doctrinâ de particulis ratio Homeri singularis aliqua ubique habita est. Cum autem particulae in doctore studio singularem curam sibi vindicent, operam quamvis molestant in his diligentius explorandis refugere non licet."

The particles, the structure of which forms the subject of several grammatical excursus, are the following;  $\alpha\iota \kappa\epsilon\upsilon$ ,  $\sigma\phi\rho\alpha$ ,  $\epsilon\iota \kappa\epsilon\upsilon$ ,  $\iota\alpha$ ,  $\mu\eta$ ,  $\iota\alpha \mu\eta$ ,  $\acute{\alpha}\varsigma$ ,  $\acute{\omega}\varsigma \alpha\upsilon$ ,  $\acute{\alpha}\varsigma \kappa\epsilon\upsilon$ ,  $\acute{\omega}\varsigma \epsilon\iota$ ,  $\acute{\omega}\varsigma \sigma\tau\iota$ ,  $\acute{\omega}\varsigma \tau\epsilon$ ,  $\acute{\omicron}\pi\omega\tau\epsilon$ ,  $\acute{\omicron}\pi\omega\varsigma$ ,  $\acute{\omicron}\tau\epsilon$ ,  $\acute{\epsilon}\tau\acute{\epsilon}\nu$ ,  $\acute{\omicron}\tau\epsilon \kappa\epsilon\upsilon$ ,  $\epsilon\upsilon\tau\epsilon$ ,  $\epsilon\upsilon\tau\acute{\epsilon}\nu$ .

It is a well known canon of Dawes, that  $\sigma\phi\rho\alpha$ ,  $\iota\alpha$ , and similar words, signifying the final cause, are not joined promiscuously with the optative and subjunctive moods, but to the former, when the verb in the preceding clause is in a past tense; to the latter, when it is in

the present or future. *Dawes miscell. crit. p. 85.*

The learned commentator of Dawes remarks, that this is an acute and accurate distinction. He suggests, however, this exception, that the subjunctive sometimes follows these particles, when the verb of the preceding clause is in a past tense, as Thucydides, l. ii. 3.  $\xi\upsilon\lambda\epsilon\gamma\omicron\upsilon\sigma\alpha\iota \epsilon\pi\omega\varsigma \eta\eta \phi\alpha\upsilon\epsilon\rho\iota \omega\sigma\iota\upsilon$ .

The rule which M. Heyne proposes for the use of these particles in such connections (Excurs. iii. ad lib. iv.) differs, in some degree, from that of our learned countryman.

" $\sigma\phi\rho\alpha$  cum subjunctivo jungi, quòties de certo fine ac consilio agitur, quando reddi potest, ut, eo consilio ac voluntate, ut, dubitari nequit, v. c. Iliad l. 158, 185.  $\sigma\phi\rho\alpha$  tamen sæpe cum optativo junctum legi, ita ut eodem sensu accipi et reddi potest, ut, eo consilio ut, nullo modo negari potest. Interdum ratio aliqua elici potest, cur optativus, præferendus sit, si oratio est obliqua, aut pendens ex præcedente, aut consilium non plane certum aut ratum, sed potius in votis habitum. Aliibi multis argutis opus est, ut causam exputes, cur optativus prælatus sit subjunctivo, nisi forte quoddam ille elegantie, nescio cujus, sensum habet."

No mention is made in this excursus of the doctrine of Dawes. In the additions, printed at the end of the volume, it is thus noticed.

"Dawes juncturæ  $\tau\omega \sigma\phi\rho\alpha$  et similium,  $\iota\alpha$ ,  $\acute{\alpha}\varsigma$ ,  $\mu\eta$ , diversitatem in temporum positu quasivit, proposita observatione, post præteritum esse optativum, post præsens, conjunctivum. Verior ratio querenda, primo, in consequentione temporum, tum, in oratione rectâ vel obliquâ; quòties est propositio causalis, locum potiorem habet subjunctivus, quòties est potentialis, optativus. Tamen subtilitas ista in Atticis regnat, in Ionico poetâ non æque."

We cannot but think the observation of Dawes on this subject, clear, useful, and generally applicable. No general rule is indeed free from exceptions, and perhaps, others might in this instance be added even from the Attic writers to that of Mr. Burgess. We will specify one instance of the application of this rule:

$\text{Ὡς μιν προκοπιπλος ἀπ' ὠκεανοιο ροαῖν  
ὀρωδ' ἰν' ἀθανάτοισι φῶς φέροι πῶς ἔροισιν.}$   
II. xix. 1, 2.

"Usus et ratio subtilior postulat  $\iota\alpha$   $\sigma\phi\rho\alpha$ ," says the editor, and so it is found

\* For a similar instance, see Euripides, Hec. 27, with Hermann's note on the passage.

in some manuscripts. But the common reading is vindicated, and, in strictness, required by the canon of Dawes, and in its turn, gives support to his observation.

A remarkable irregularity sometimes takes place in Homer in the use of these particles, by the employment of a tense apparently indicative, where the subjunctive would commonly be used; for example, *Iliad* i. 363, *ἵνα εἶδομαι αἰψῶν*. Some of the grammarians inform us that these tenses are really in the subjunctive mood, with the long vowel shortened by a figure which they call systole, "ac si, nomine reperto, caussa reperta sit." M. Heyne explains this difficulty from the uncertainty and irregularity which we may suppose to have existed in the grammar of the language, at the early period when Homer wrote; and remarks, that some traces of it remain even in the more polished dialect of the Attics. In Homer, however, this irregularity appears only in the present and future tenses; we do not at least recollect any example of it in a past tense, similar to these instances which occur in the Attic poets, *οπως—απηλλαχην*. *Æschyl.* p. v. 756, ed. Schutz, *ἵνα—κατενοῶν*. *Eur. Phœn.* 215. edit. Pors. Valckenaër would, however, read or interpret the latter of these passages differently.

The following verses of Quintus Calaber, iv. 30, 31, perhaps afford an example of this phraseology.

ὅς οφελον μαιος γενεῖς Ἐκτορος, ὅρ' ἄμα πάντας  
Ἀργείους σφειτέρησιν ἐνὶ κλισίῃσιν ὀλεσάν.

A similar instance occurs also in Theocritus on the use of these tenses. See some ingenious remarks in Hermann's observations on Vigerus, p. 405.

We cannot follow our author through all the grammatical disquisitions which accompany his work; we may here particularly refer to the three following excursus, the second of the seventeenth book, grammatical observations on Homer; the first of the twenty-first book, on the Ionism of Homer; the first of the twenty-third book, on the imperfection of his grammar.

The Greek prosody is a subject of great extent and difficulty. That of the heroic poets presents, indeed, a field of much less compass than that of the lyric and dramatic writers, but it still allows a considerable scope for discussion.

The second excursus of the second book contains a disquisition on the use of the final *N*.

Respecting the employment of this letter, M. Heyne says,

"Usum ejus maxime per grammaticos increbuisse, satis constat, ita ut in senioribus scriptoribus et in codicibus, nullo cum iudicio, nullâ certâ regulâ, *N* addatur, etiam ante consonantem, vel omittatur.

"Codicum omnino fides et usus in his est nullus, nam etiam optimi, in ipso Homero, ita variant, ut satis appareat, librariorum nihil certi habuisse, quod sequeretur; itaque nec digna hæc habui, in quibus enotandis operam perderem.

"Cum neque in his, neque in grammaticis, ulla certa fides sit, varietas et inconstantia usus in Homero me admonuit, ut regulas circumspecerem, quibus me ipsum regerem in admittendo vel omittendo illo *N*, non quasi rem ipsam satis gravem, de qua quæreretur esse judicasset, sed quia molestum est in omni re, certum rerum iudicium si videas tibi haud adesse."

The use of this letter in the heroic poets, is either to avoid a hiatus, or to lengthen a short syllable ending in *i* or *u*, by producing a position. In the latter rule, two cases are included; 1st, where the syllable is in *caesurâ*; and 2dly, where it falls in *thesi*.

Respecting the former of these employments of the final *N*, there is no controversy. The hiatus, which, without the use of it, would so frequently occur, is evidently avoided by the poets, and especially by Homer, with the greatest care.

Where a short syllable in *i* or *u* stands in *caesurâ*, the insertion of the final *N* cannot, perhaps, be deemed necessary for the preservation of the verse, because instances occur of short syllables lengthened in that situation, without the possibility of such a support. It still does not follow, that it might not, in some instances, be used, to give greater stability to the verse. Upon this principle the words *πόλις* and *πόλεμος* are written *πόλις* and *πόλεμος*, when preceded by a syllable naturally short, but required by the law of the verse to be long, even though that syllable fall in *caesurâ*. And it will, perhaps, be found on examination, that a syllable ending with a short vowel, is rarely made long by the force of the pause, unless followed by the support of a liquid or double consonant.

Where a short syllable occurs in *thesi*, which the rules of the verse require to



be produced, the addition of the final N is generally esteemed necessary. It is, however, well known, that the late Mr. Wakefield was of a contrary opinion. Professor Heyne seems to incline to the same sentiment, if we may judge by the following observation: Il. xvii. 705, ἄλλ' ὅγε τοῖσιν μὲν θρασυμῆδεα, &c. Edd. ante Turnebum τοῖσι μὲν, sine ν, male, ait Ernesti. Immo vero, per se, nec bene, nec male. Si tamen antiqua sequeris, recte τοῖσι scribitur. But it may be asked, does a short syllable ever occur (except in *cæsura*) where a long one is required, to which the laws of the language do not allow the addition of the final ν? Some few anomalies must be excepted.

The first excursus of the seventeenth book, is devoted to the consideration of several topics of prosody, and particularly to the collection and improvement of the scattered remarks of Clarke on this subject. On these it will not be necessary to enlarge.

To the observation, that a short vowel in Homer is frequently lengthened by the reduplication of the following consonant, M. Heyne refers that difficult irregularity, Εὐς δ' ταυδ', &c.; supposing that the original was ὤς οτταυδ', &c. This and similar passages are emended by Bentley, as εὐς ὄγε ταυδ', &c.

We proceed to the consideration of the hiatus, a subject in the prosody of Homer, which has seldom been treated with the attention which it deserves.

A slight inspection of the versification of Homer, will be sufficient to shew that he studiously avoided the hiatus. Of those instances which occur, many are removed by the insertion of the digamma, and most others, by some slight and obvious alteration.

We are informed by M. Heyne, that great attention was paid by Dr. Bentley to this subject, and that the passages which contain a hiatus, are studiously corrected by him in the margin of his copy.

In the year 1801, was published by the late learned Gilbert Wakefield, a diatribe, under the title of "Noctes carcerariae, sive de legibus metricis poetarum Græcorum, qui versibus hexametris scripserunt, disputatio." A principal object of that work, is the examination and establishment of the doctrine of the hiatus. The principles which Mr. Wakefield lays down on this subject, are, in

many respects, coincident with those of the present editor of Homer, and many of the emendations grounded on them, the same; they will, therefore, derive weight from the concurrence of such respectable authorities.

Hermann, who has touched upon this subject in his book "de Metris poetarum Græcorum et Romanorum," is inclined to treat the hiatus with more indulgence than it has experienced from other writers. He supposes that its ungrateful influence was, in many cases, diminished by the force of the accent of the preceding syllable; and it is his opinion, that where it consists merely in the repetition of the same vowel, as in the words αἰ δὲ τὲ ἐνδρα, it produces no harsh effect. In the latter case, however, his sentiment certainly differs from that of most other judges of versification. Some of those hiatus which he defends, are also corrected by the insertion of the digamma, as Il. iv. 158, αἶμα τὲ ἀρναι.

Mr. Heyne accedes to the opinion of those who think that the hiatus, except under certain limited conditions, is wholly inadmissible. His remarks on this subject are found in the excursus which follows the observations on the fifteenth book.

From the definition of the hiatus, he excludes the following cases; 1st, where a long vowel or diphthong at the end of a word, preceding a vowel or diphthong at the beginning of the subsequent word, is made short, as ἐκπλοῦς Ἀπολλωνος; 2dly, where a long vowel or a diphthong, though followed by a vowel in the next word, remains long by the influence of the *cæsura*, as Il. ii. 229, ἦ ἐτι καὶ κρυπτοῦ ἐπιδεινέαι; 3dly, where a long vowel or diphthong, though followed by a vowel, and in *thesis*, yet, contrary to the general practice, remains long, as Il. ii. 231, ὦ κεν ἐγὼ δῖσας ἀγαγῶ, ἢ ἄλλος Ἀχαιοῖν.

The two former of these cases are clear, the latter is perhaps less obvious. The instances in which it occurs, except under certain limitations, are at least very rare, and it is contrary to analogy.

In compliance with this observation, Il. xv. 536, and in other places, for ἰγχι οἰζυοεντι, M. Heyne, to avoid the hiatus, writes ἰγχι οἰζυοεντι, "diæresim sustuli, ne hiatus existeret, vocali ante vocalem positâ, monente quoque Bentleio."

The only instances in addition to this, which have been observed during a perusal of this book, of a long vowel or

diphthong, in *thesi*, followed by a vowel in the next word, without the insertion of the digamma, and yet remaining long, are in the following verses, 16, 23, 146, 161, 177, 271, 522, 742. One of these instances is the repetition of the words in verse 536: in five of them the latter half of the spondee is formed by a monosyllable, which we believe is the case in a majority of similar instances throughout the poem; in one, the hiatus may be defended by a pause in the verse; the only remaining example is in verse 522, *εἰα Πανδρῶν υἱόν*, for which one valuable manuscript reads *Πανδρῶν*, which may be defended by the patronymic *Πανδρῶν*. We do not mean to say, that no examples occur of greater difficulty than these, the contrary is the fact, but they are not more numerous than the difficult examples of the other species of hiatus, and are probably reducible to fixed rules. This case of the hiatus is not regarded by Mr. Wakefield as admissible, who, in the following verse of Quint. Cal. (i. 135,) *Θάλλει ἐν λεχυσσιν*, &c. proposes to read, more melodiously, *Θάλλει ἐν λεχυσσιν*.

As instances of emendation grounded on this doctrine of the hiatus, we select the following. Iliad ii. 90, *αἱ μὲν τ' ἐνθά αἰὲς πιπτοχάται αἱ δὲ τ' ἐνθά*. Of this verse Hermann says, "accentus adjuvamento non indigemus, quoniam in ejusdem vocalis repetitione, hiatus nihil duri habet." On the contrary, Mr. Wakefield pronounces of the same verse, "hoc hiatus monstrosiorem, nullum vidi," and he proposes to correct it by reading, *αἱ δὲ τ' ἐνθά*. Heyne would read, *αἱ δὲ τοι ἐνθά*. In Iliad ii. 87, for *ἦντε ἐδνεα ἱεσι*, read *ἦντε ἐδνι ἱεσι* (Bentley and Wakefield,) as Il. xvi. 160, *καὶ τ' ἀγέληδον ἱεσι*. *Ἀσπίδ' ἐν κρατερῇ*, should evidently be *ἀσπιδ' ἐν κρατερῇ*.

In any considerable pause of the verse, a hiatus may, however, be tolerated. One case of this nature Mr. Wakefield has very minutely examined in the tract to which we have above referred. "Locum habet hic hiatus in hexametro carmine, post dactyllici pedis loco tertio secundam syllabam. Specimini sit qui primus obversatur legentibus Iliada, i. 565.

Ἀλλ' ἀκούσῃα καθήσο, ἐμῇ δ' ἐπιπείθεο μῦθον."

This, with other similar exceptions, is admitted by M. Heyne, though in many instances with some reluctance, and is

in some rejected with an appearance of inconsistency: for instance, Il. xx. 30.

Εἰρῆς Ἐπιστοχαιε, ἤμῃ ἐν στῆθεσι βούληται.

Hiatus, says M. Heyne, ab Homericâ poesi alienus; but in what respect does it differ from that in Il. iii. 376, *κείνη δὲ τρυφάλεια 'αὐ' ἔσπετο*, which he regards as defensible?

We now arrive at the important subject of the digamma, the application of which to the poetry of Homer, is discovered from the uniformity of the hiatus which precedes certain words, *ἀναξ*, for example, and *εἴπω*. This subject is treated in the second, third, and fourth excursus, annexed to the nineteenth book.

It is well known that there existed among the ancient Greeks a mode of pronouncing many words and syllables now beginning with a vowel, which, in prosody, produced the effect of a consonant. This letter, or aspiration, which disappeared from the use of the later Greeks, is commonly attributed to the Æolians, and is called the Æolic digamma, a name derived from its figure (F). These are facts known from the testimony of historians and grammarians. Traces, also, of this letter still remain both in the Greek language, and in that part of the Latin which is derived from it.

It is difficult to speak with certainty respecting the pronunciation of a language which has long since ceased to be in oral use. Yet there appear to be, in the present instance, some data, which give great probability to the common opinion, that the sound of the digamma was the same with that of the English *w*. It is said, by Quintilian and the grammarians, to have possessed the power of the Roman *v*, which was probably in all cases strictly a vowel, and before a consonant, therefore, had a sound resembling the modern *w*. This opinion is supported by the well-known story related by Cicero (de div. ii. 40.), from which it appears, that the sounds of the word *cauneas*, and *caue ne cas*, were so nearly similar as to be easily capable of confusion. The digamma is also said by Dionysius Halicarnassensis (Ant. Rom. L. i. p. 16, edit. Sylb.) to have had the same power with the Greek *ου*, a combination of letters, which, in the use of our continental neighbours, corresponds with our own *w*.

Be this as it may, the original existence of this letter, and its use in ancient prosody, are unquestionable. We find many words in the present orthography beginning with a vowel, always standing, in the poetry of Homer, as if preceded by a consonant; respecting some of these words we have the testimony of ancient writers, that they originally possessed the digamma.

This letter is called the *Æolic digamma*. But his dialect, and the report of tradition, prove Homer to have been an Ionian. This has occasioned a considerable difficulty with learned men, respecting the application of what they esteemed an *Æolic* letter, to the writings of an Ionic poet. On this account Dawes, in place of the *Æolic digamma*, substitutes an Ionic *vau*, which he denotes by the character *w*, and applies to the elucidation of Homer's prosody.

His learned commentator, on the other hand, argues, that the *Æolic* was not the peculiar language of a single people, but the ancient and original dialect of the whole of Greece; that the Ionic was a subsequent state of the language, but that from his age, as well as the usage of poets in retaining ancient words and forms, Homer might probably, in some instances, make use of the *Æolic* dialect; that it appears, in fact, that he has used it, and that the *Æolic digamma* may therefore be supposed not inadmissible in his writings.

The present editor argues, that there is very little evidence in support of many of the circumstances alledged by the grammarians respecting the *Æolic* dialect. The Latin tongue preserves many traces of the digamma, and the grammarians tell us, that it is, in a great degree, derived from the *Æolic* Greek. But what intercourse, asks M. Heyne, was there, or could there be, between the Latins, or their posterity the Romans, with the *Æolians*, of such a nature, that the former should have derived their language and grammar from the latter? All ancient history opposes the supposition. The Pelasgi, migrating into Italy, coalesced with the Aborigines, from which union the Latins were derived. If an epithet were necessary, we should therefore rather say, the Pelasgic than the *Æolic digamma*. But it is better to say, that this letter was common to the Greeks, at the earlier periods of their language. The *Æolians*,

who appear to have preserved ancient forms with the greatest constancy, might retain the digamma in their pronunciation to a later period than the other nations. Hence, as many parts of the Latin language, actually derived from the Greek in its ancient state, appeared to agree with the *Æolic* dialect, the opinion might easily originate, that it was through this channel that the Latin received the affinity which it bears to the Greek. On this hypothesis there appears no difficulty in supposing, that Homer made use of that letter, which has since been called the *Æolic digamma*. It is to be observed, that this epithet is not given to it by Dionysius.

M. Heyne then traces its decline among the Greeks, so far as it can be collected from the remaining specimens which we possess of their literature.

The application of this letter to the prosody of Homer, was first discovered by Dr. Bentley, to whom classical literature is indebted for so much useful, learned, and ingenious illustration, and particularly for the general improvement which he introduced into the system of ancient criticism.

His doctrine of the digamma was imparted to the public only imperfectly and incidentally during his life. He was, however, understood to be engaged in a revision of the works of Homer, with a particular view to the restoration of the digamma. The result of his study on this subject, remains in the copy of his Homer preserved at Cambridge.

The satirical verses of Pope, respecting this discovery of Bentley, are well known.

"Roman and Greek grammarians, know  
your better,  
Author of something yet more great than  
letter,  
While, towering o'er your alphabet, like  
Saul,  
Stands our digamma, and o'er-tops them  
all." *Dunc.* iv. 215, &c.

To the detraction of Pope, on a subject of which he was ignorant, we may oppose the general testimony of succeeding critics, who, since the disappearance of those temporary and local prejudices, which had partially obscured the merits of this great man, have unanimously acknowledged the almost unrivalled acuteness of his genius, and extent of

his erudition, in the wide and interesting field of ancient criticism.

If it were necessary to assert the value of his discovery in this particular instance, it might be said, that it restores to the notice of the world, a fact at least equally important with many of those which form the subjects of antiquarian speculation, that it possesses the positive advantages of elucidating the prosody of the early poets, of explaining some words and forms otherwise unaccountable, of illustrating the etymology of the Greek and Latin languages, and of affording in some instances, a criterion for the restoration of the true reading.

This subject has been, in some degree, investigated by several learned writers, since the time of Bentley, especially by Dawes, and his commentator, Mr. Burgess; by Chishull, Taylor, Wise, and lately by Mr. R. P. Knight. Some specimens of Homer, with the insertion of the digamma, by Salter and Upton, may be seen in Burgess's notes upon Dawes. Mr. Wakefield, among other literary plans, the execution of which was intercepted by the lamented event of his death, had, in the metrical tract, which was the last of his works, announced to the world his preparations for the publication of a treatise on the subject of this letter, and its application to the poetry of Homer.

There would be no end to the indulgence of fanciful hypotheses respecting the use of the digamma. M. Heyne very prudently confines himself to cases in which its existence is either indubitable or highly probable, and where it is requisite to the elucidation of the prosody.

The second excursus on this subject, contains a catalogue, in alphabetical order, of those words which, in the usage of Homer, appear to have been pronounced with the digamma.

The next excursus relates to the employment of the digamma in the middle of words.

It is remarkable, that though the use of this letter was neglected at an early period among the Greeks, yet there are some words which retained the power derived from it, with singular constancy. Among these are the pronouns *eu*, *ei*, *i*. This fact, not generally observed, was noticed by Mr. Wakefield (Noct. car. p. 69,) who, without determining whether their force is derived from the aspirate

or the digamma, remarks the power which they generally possess, of sustaining the syllable which precedes them, in consequence of which he retracts a reading admitted into his edition of Bion, ii. 7. *Χὸ πᾶν ποταλάων ἐνχὲ δὲ*, for which he proposes to substitute *ἐντὶ δὲ*.

The mythical fictions which occur so frequently in Homer, and the absurdity and impiety with which they appear occasionally to be chargeable, naturally, indeed, to be expected from the imperfect state of civilization at the period of their invention, have given rise to much discussion. This subject is considered in the first excursus of the 8th book, *de mythis Homericis*, and in the 3d of the 23d *de allegoricâ Homericâ*.

The mythic may be divided into three classes, historical, physical, and moral. In those of the first description, may possibly be ranked the fable of Pelops; a specimen of the second is afforded by the allegory of the golden chain, in the 8th Iliad; and of the third, by the story of Circe in the Odyssey.

The paucity of terms in the early state of language, and the necessity of delineating abstract ideas by words primarily appropriated to the description of sensible objects, is necessarily productive of symbolical forms of expression. The discovery of analogies and resemblances is also an employment as delightful to the imagination, as it is requisite, in the process of improvement, to the operations of the understanding. From these principles probably arose many of those fables which are inseparably intermingled with the history of remote periods, and which long continued to form the delight of the people, with whose national records they are combined.

That the more ancient Greeks expressed their ideas in this manner, says M. Heyne, is an established fact. Many of their symbolical fictions have reached us; but whatever treasures of wisdom they were formerly supposed to conceal, we shall not look for profound science in the conceptions of a barbarous, or, at best, a very imperfectly civilized age.

The more valuable and impressive of the maxims, or narrations, expressed in these symbolical forms, and pronounced by men of reputation for prudence and wisdom, would be transmitted to posterity. The first mode of their transmission, before the invention or general

use of any mode of hieroglyphic or alphabetical writing, must have been by oral recitation, especially at their solemn and festive assemblies, where they would be repeated with enthusiasm, aided by animated gesticulation, and, perhaps, gradually exalted into poetry, with a frequent accession of colouring, and union of incidental circumstances.

Men would soon proceed to form opinions respecting the more striking phenomena of nature, from which they would advance to some rude system of cosmogony, and the action of the various causes which were in constant operation around them. Here again they would have recourse to symbolical language for the communication of their conceptions, or their very conceptions respecting the nature of remoter causes, would be derived from their knowledge of the objects which were immediately subject to their view; they would invest with personal attributes the principles to which they attributed the various effects which they witnessed, and their imaginations would people the universe with new orders of beings, inhabitants of air, earth, and sea. The rude objects of worship which they might previously have possessed, would be furnished with the characters of these symbolic agencies, and Jupiter and Apollo, the representatives of the air and the sun, would probably be among the earliest deifications in a new system of mythology. These mythi might also be transmitted by poetical recitation, their first stamina would gradually be lost under the accession of foreign circumstances, and the fable would be branched out into all that wildness of imagination of which such inventions are susceptible, and to which nothing can fix bounds. At length they would lose the symbolical character which they might have originally possessed, and be considered only as narrations of events.

The fable of Pelops may be selected to illustrate this idea of the ancient mythi. Corporeal qualities would in ancient language be expressed, not by direct and appropriate epithets, but by analogies and figurative forms of speech. Thus the bloom of the rose, and the whiteness of ivory, might be employed to describe correspondent qualities of human beauty. Pelops might therefore be called *εἰσπάρτιος ὤμων*, Pelops with ivory shoulders. When the origin

of this expression was forgotten, it might be considered as descriptive of a literal fact. Fiction would employ itself to devise the cause of such a phenomenon, and hence, perhaps, the rude narration of the common fable, that Pelops was placed by Tantalus before the gods, and that the shoulder devoured by Ceres was supplied by a limb of ivory. Pindar, in his first Olympic, is led to mention this fable; he is naturally shocked at its impiety, and thence passes a censure on many of the ancient mythi, which, adorned as they are with the graces of fiction, are often, he says, credited in preference to truth.

That many or most of these mythi were already perfected in the age of Homer, there can be but little doubt. Their origin was also so disguised by the gradual accumulation of circumstances, that they were probably regarded no longer as symbols, but as narrations of facts.

As the moral notions of the early ages were very indistinct and incorrect, the gods were represented with all the frailties and vices of the gross mortals from whom they were pourtrayed. They were described as incident to lust, anger, revenge, and every violence of action or passion, which prevails in the first unpolished states of social institution.

Science is matured much more slowly than poetry and fiction. At a period a little more advanced, the philosophers were ashamed of the grossness of the prevalent mythi; and Plato proposed to expel the poets, and especially Homer, from the imaginary republic which he described.

Others undertook the defence of the poet; but as his fictions could not be maintained in their gross and literal interpretation, they were compelled to have recourse to allegorical explanations.

The ancient interpreters of the allegories are reduced, by M. Heyne, to various classes. Some embraced the whole circle of mythi, some a part, and others those of Homer alone. The object of some was to defend the religious opinions and institutions of their country, that of others, the vindication of the poet. Some attempted to exalt the honour of the bard, by representing his works as a repository of universal science, concealed under the veil of



allegory. They proceeded also from different points, some from the interpretation of those mythi which are obviously symbolical, as those of Mars and Minerva, with the different characters and offices which they sustain, others from that of those fables whose grossness and immorality are incompatible with more refined sentiments of taste and virtue. The rage of allegorising was gradually carried to its highest pitch, by the grammarians and sophists, when Homer was supposed to be as full of hidden meaning, as an obelisk of hieroglyphics, or a book of emblems.

The editor on several occasions takes some pains to draw the line between the symbolical and allegorical interpretation of the mythic fictions of Homer, and it appears that some controversy has been excited in Germany, by what he has before written on this subject. "*Omnino mihi in totâ hoc questione plura comprehensa ac collecta esse videntur, quæ subtilius sunt dirimenda et discernenda. Aliud est consilio ac studio Homerum et Homericos mythos allegoricè interpretari; aliud mythos universe allegorice interpretari, omninoque pro explorato hoc ponere, non alio sensu et consilio hos mythos ab initio inventos esse; aliud, contendere, Homerum eos non alio sensu et opinione adhibuisse, quam ut allegoricâ interpretatione accipi vellet; quod ab omni epici carminis naturâ alienum est. Iterum alia est sententiâ, si quis dixerit, inesse inter mythos aliquod genus, inesse in ipso Homero mythos, quorum primi auctores symbolice aliquam mentis sententiam declaraverint aut declarare voluisse videantur; eos tamen mythos Homerum fecisse suos, sive ut pro factis inter narrata reciperet, sive ut antiquitus fabulose narrata in suam rem verteret, ut in Ulyssis errores Sirenas, Scyllam, Charybdin, Circeen, Cyclopes, Trinacriam transtulit. Hæc tam diversa inter se qui confuderunt, non nisi perturbate de allegoriâ seu universe, seu Homericâ statuere et disputare potuerunt.*"

The opinion of M. Heyne may be thus stated; the origin of many of the mythi was symbolical, but when they were once established, many circumstances of accidental fiction were added to them in the progress of their transmission; their foundation was thus gradually obscured, till finally they were regarded only as narrations of events; in this

state Homer received and employed them, without attaching any allegorical ideas to them himself, or intending that his readers should employ their ingenuity in devising such interpretations.

The excellence of the plan of the Iliad is universally acknowledged. In the enthusiastic admiration of the ancients, it was said, "*tria hæc ex æquo impossibilia esse, vel Jovi fulmen, vel Herculi clavum, vel versum Homero subtrahere.*"

Three of the four battles between the Greeks and Trojans, which are introduced into the action of the poem, are examined in separate excursus. The subject, in general, is considered in the discussions at the close of the work, relative to the history of Homer's writings.

The argument of the Iliad may be stated in two ways, one collected from the poem itself, the other from the introductory verses, which announce the anger of Achilles, arising from his dissension with Agamemnon, and its pernicious consequences in the defeat of the Greeks, according to the decree of Jupiter. The argument is, on this hypothesis, concluded with the death of Hector, and the two last books are foreign from the subject. This is in fact an objection which has been sometimes urged against the structure of the Iliad.

If, on the other hand, we consider the tenor of the events, as they succeed each other in the narration, they appear to form a sufficiently consistent whole, which proceeds, without any violent interruption, from the dissension of the chiefs, in the first book, till the restoration of Hector's body, in the last. Achilles retires indignantly from the army; Jupiter, at the request of Thetis, decrees, that his dishonour shall be signally avenged; the Greeks experience a succession of defeats; the assistance of the hero is soon acknowledged by all, and even by his enemy, to be necessary to save them from total destruction, but he remains inexorable. The nodus of the poem is therefore to effect his return to the relief of the Greeks. This is accomplished by the death of his friend Patroclus, who falls by the hand of Hector. Achilles is roused to revenge, which he prosecutes implacably, till his enemy becomes his victim, and which he extends to the corps of his

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foe. But the two fallen heroes still retain a part in our concern; the shade of Patroclus demands the performance of the rites of sepulture, as necessary to his repose; Hector has never lost his claim to our esteem, and we are shocked at the unworthy treatment which he receives from his inhuman victor. The restoration of his body to his parents and countrymen, by which he receives those funeral honours which the superstition of the ancients represented as so essential, is effected by the interesting narrative of Priam's visit to the Grecian camp. Here we arrive at a proper pause. The angry passions of the savage hero are soothed, and the turbulence and fury of the preceding parts of the poem, are closed by scenes of solemnity and temporary peace.

If the whole is well constructed, many of the subordinate parts remain liable to censure. Some of the episodes are perhaps unnecessary, and others tediously prolonged. See the interview between Paris and Helen, at the conclusion of the third book, and the embassy to Achilles, which occupies the ninth.

Some of the most languid parts of the poem, are those which relate to the agency of the gods. For this reason, among others, in the new arguments prefixed to each book, the intervention of the gods is related at the conclusion, separately from the rest of the narration. The genuineness of many of these passages is liable to suspicion. It appears from a scholium of the Venetian manuscript, ascribed to Porphyry, of which an abridgment is given by M. Heyne, that Zenodotus attempted to establish a kind of canon on this subject, in consequence of which he judged the verses, Il. xviii. 356, 368, with other similar passages, to be spurious, as encumbering the narration, and inconsistent with the usual practice of the poet, who admits, according to the opinion of the commentator, no discourses of the gods which do not contain either something relative to the narration of the Iliad, or an exposition of some ancient mythus.

If the first mode by which these poems were transmitted, were that of oral recitation, which there are cogent reasons for supposing, they would be peculiarly exposed to the danger of interpolation, from which many of those

writings which we have received by a more improved method of communication, are by no means exempt.

Their actual state agrees with this probability. The *admonitions* of the ancient critics, do not, indeed, afford us much light on this subject, as we are not in general acquainted with any critical principle by which they were directed. But many verses, by their languor, and their extension beyond the completion of the sentiment, seem to betray themselves as excrescences from the genuine work. Remarks in support of this opinion, frequently occur in the progress of the observations.

Some passages of considerable extent, are perhaps open to similar suspicions. The tenth book, which is episodal, is mentioned by Eustathius as a separate composition, ascribed, indeed, to Homer, but inserted into the Iliad by Pistratus. It is needless, however, to observe, that but little dependence is to be placed on the accuracy of any of the accounts which we have received concerning the early state of these very ancient writings. Almost the whole of the question respecting them is reduced to a statement of probabilities.

Arguing from this principle, the description of the shield of Achilles, is one of those parts which the present editor is inclined to regard as supposititious, and too refined and elaborate for the simplicity of the remote period to which it is referred. That it is not necessary to the narration, is not, perhaps, an objection which will be urged with much force, when we recollect the digressions which every epic writer has admitted from the strictness of his plan.

The last book has excited the doubts of several preceding critics. Jansius was unreasonably offended with what he deemed the poverty of the concluding description of Hector's funeral rites. Dawes, when unable to discover a satisfactory remedy for a violation of the doctrine of the digamma, in verse 449, at last pronounces, that so many circumstances occur in this book, dissimilar from the preceding parts of the work, that he cannot but accede to the opinion of those ancients, who rejected it as spurious. Who those ancient critics were, we are left ignorant. Wolfius, the late editor of Homer, extends the judgment of his predecessors to the six last books, in which difficulties, he says, occur of

such a nature, that if, instead of being attached to the Iliad, they had been found in the hymns, they would have been long since detected, and the compositions containing them exploded, by learned men. "*Præclare hæc*," says M. Heyne, "*quibus equidem hac addideram, et me sensum hunc habuisse, et mecum alios, nec vero modo in sex postremis libris, sed per totum carmen.*"

But we are insensibly proceeding to the consideration of an important problem, which occupies a conspicuous place among the discussions of the present work, respecting the original state of the two great poems which tradition assigns to that Homer, whose age is ascribed to a period more remote than the records of distinct and certain history, and whose works long precede the existence of any of the remaining literary monuments of his country, if we except the writings of Hesiod, and, perhaps, some small fragments inserted among the compositions of later writers.

In whatever manner we account for the origin of these writings, the solution of the question will remain incumbered with difficulties.

We will first briefly sketch the remaining historical evidence which is applicable to the subject.

One of the earliest facts, which is obscurely mentioned respecting Homer's works, is their introduction from Asia to Sparta, by Lycurgus, who is said to have received them from Creophylus, the host of Homer. The earliest author whom we now possess of this narration, is Heraclides Ponticus; it is mentioned by Aelian and Plutarch, but with an accession of circumstances, as we recede from the period of the supposed fact. With authority so precarious and defective, it is difficult to estimate the precise degree of credit which is due to this account.

The next mention which is made of these poems, is after an interval of three hundred years in the age of Pisistratus, who is said to have restored them from the dispersed state into which they had fallen by the recitations of the rhapsodists, to that connection in which they were originally left by their author. "*Nihil amplius ex his constat, quam inter Iones, et maxime Chios, extitisse carmina, singulatim recitari solita, quorum notitia Spartam perlata esse potuit, trecentis annis serius Athenas ma-*

*jore honore ac studia ea excepsisse.*" viii. 777.

The earliest mention made of Homer by any remaining writer; is that of Pindar, who (Pyth. iv. 493) alludes to Iliad xv. 207. He mentions the celebration of Ulysses and Ajax by Homer, Nem. vii. 29, Isth. iv. 63, and speaks of the Homerids, and their recitation of the rhapsodies.

Herodotus is the next author, who (l. ii.) says that Homer and Hesiod lived about 400 years before his own period; on some other occasions he refers to the authority of Homer, and distinctly mentions the Iliad and Odyssey.

The mention of Homer occurs several times in the work of Thucydides, by whom the genuineness of the hymns was also admitted.

Later writers can furnish no additional certainty. Our earliest authorities are four hundred years posterior to the fact which they testify, four hundred years almost destitute of any accurate and minute historical memorials. The field is therefore left considerably open for probable conjecture.

There are some authenticated facts respecting the early state of the poems of Homer, which are both interesting in themselves, and of great importance in their connection with the present controversy. Such particularly are the accounts transmitted to us of the rhapsodists.

Aelian (var. hist. xiii. 14.) has the following passage.

"The ancients sang the poems of Homer in separate parts, with titles, such as the following, the battle at the ships, the Dolonia, the pre-eminence of Agamemnon, the catalogue of the ships, the Patroclea, the redemption, the games at the funeral of Patroclus, the violation of the covenants."

He mentions also similar divisions of the Odyssey.

The rhapsodies do not appear to have been coincident with the present division into books, which is owing to the Alexandrian grammarians, and is founded on no better principle than the casual number of the letters contained in the greek alphabet.

That in the early ages of Greece there existed an order of men who devoted themselves to the employment of reciting the popular compositions of their age is undisputed. Such is the Demodocus of Homer, who is introduced as singing the

fables of the Gods, and the exploits of the heroes at the Trojan war.

We are told also of a race or order of men called Homeridæ, who claimed, it is said, in the island of Chios, to be the family of the poet, but who, in other applications of the name, appear not to have differed from the rhapsodists.

Their recitation resembled that of dramatic representation, with tones and gestures accommodated to the subject. We are told that they appeared at the theatres. We read of their public exhibitions and contests, especially at Athens and Sicyon, at the latter of which the recital of Homer's poems is said by Herodotus to have been forbidden by Clisithenes, as celebrating too freely the praises of his enemies the Argives.

The rhapsodists at length fell into contempt. Their art degenerated into a mercenary performance, and was professed by ignorant and arrogant men, who scarcely understood the verses which they repeated. They are accordingly mentioned with ridicule and indignation by Plato and Xenophon.

They are mentioned as existing at a period so late, as that posterior to the foundation of Alexandria, at the theatre of which city, Hegerias is said to have acted the works of Herodotus, and Hermophantus, those of Homer.

The name is derived from the Greek words *ῥαψῳδία* and *ᾠδή*. Pindar speaks of the *αἰδοὶ πάντων ᾠδῶν*, carminum compositorum, contextorum, supposed by M. Heyne to allude to the combination of words by metrical laws.

It appears then, says the editor, that in the earliest ages, the bards themselves, the *αἰδοί*, were stiled rhapsodists; they were succeeded by those who recited the verses of others, as well as their own, but still were themselves poets; the practice then became a kind of dramatic art, till from the ignorance and vanity of its professors, it at length fell into total contempt.

The question respecting the origin of alphabetical writing in general, and its introduction into Greece, is in itself of considerable curiosity and importance. It is not perhaps of equal consequence in the criticism of Homer, since, if known in the time of the poet, it could in all probability have been but little used, from the want of materials proper for the reception of characters, at least for compositions of any considerable length.

It is most probable therefore, that the first mode of transmitting the poems of Homer, was by memory and recitation.

If surprise has been sometimes expressed how poems of such magnitude, composed at so early a period, could have thus descended entire to posterity, few have presumed to doubt the truth of the commonly received opinion respecting them.

Three hypotheses, says M. Heyne, may be formed on this subject; the first, that the poems were originally framed by one author, the same as we now possess them; the second, that the form and argument of the poem were delineated by an original author, but that the outline which he had marked out was filled up at subsequent periods, by the gradual insertion of particular parts; the third, that antiquity possessed several poems of similar argument, which were recited separately from each other, and that at a later period, and an æra of greater cultivation, some fortunate genius arose, who skilfully constructed from these scattered parts, the epic system which we now possess. As no historical testimony remains applicable to the fact, probability must be the rule of judgment.

Against the first hypothesis, M. Heyne argues, that it appears inconsistent with the gradual steps by which human improvement generally proceeds.

The advocates of this opinion usually maintain that the Iliad is an epic poem, perfect in all its parts, consummately skilful in its plan, accurate in its execution, polished in its diction; uniting the greatest simplicity, with the most exquisite beauty. But does not this description contradict itself? When Homer is said to have flourished, Peloponnesus, occupied by the Dorians, was barbarous and uncivilized, Attica itself, the destined parent of the liberal arts, was a sterile tract, unimproved by culture, and oppressed by poverty. The Ionians and Æolians, who had lately occupied the shores of the lesser Asia, had scarcely laid the foundation of that prosperous state, under which they flourished at a later period. Here then is it probable that a man should have suddenly arisen who at once invented and perfected the noblest of arts, while in every other instance, improvement has proceeded from small beginnings, and by slow progression?

The second hypothesis is divested of

some of those improbabilities which attend the first, but is in this respect contrary to analogy, that it supposes the principle and plan of a great work, to have preceded the existence of any similar specimen, whereas in every art the first plans are rude and defective, and the final and complete model is the result of repeated attempts, and long experience.

The last is the hypothesis which the editor judges to be the most credible, that the poems attributed to Homer originally existed in independent fragments, and were united in their present connection at a later period, by some ingenious person, who discerned their fitness to constitute a consistent whole. It is an advantage attending this opinion that it corresponds with the usual process of gradual improvement. The first picture was not a magnificent and harmonious whole, composed of parts, each accurately and exquisitely finished in its proper degree of strength, but a rude attempt to delineate some individual object. Such in all probability would be the case with the sister art of poetry.

The *Iliad* is capable of being divided into parts, such as those which are supposed by this hypothesis. The subordinate parts of the battles might often be easily separated into independent songs, celebrating the exploits of some individual hero. Examples of such a division we have already seen in the passage quoted from *Ælian*.

If originally united, the parts of the *Iliad* were afterwards regarded, or at least recited, as independent on each other. This appears from the same passage of *Ælian*. "These loose songs," says Bentley, "were not collected together in the form of an epic poem, till Pisistratus's time, about 500 years after." Passages to this effect may be found in Cicero and other writers. Pisistratus himself is indeed said to have united these poems from their dispersed state, at a period when their connection was likely to be wholly lost.

We know that at an early period there existed what were called *cycli* of poems, either embracing the system of mythi from the cosmogony, and descending to the heroic ages, or particularly relating to the Trojan war. The cyclic writers followed the order of time, without regard to unity of object, but many parts of the *cyclus* must have been capable of

forming detached wholes; might not the parts which form the *Iliad* have been selected from some similar collection? an instance of a rhapsodist singing the events of the Trojan war, we have, in the character of Demodocus, in the *Odyssey* itself.

To these arguments the following considerations may be opposed.

The ancients did not doubt either that Homer existed, or that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* were composed by him, nearly in their present state. So much, however, does every narrative, and almost every opinion, attached to the name of Homer wear the air of fable, that what the ancients relate, or do not relate respecting him, can be regarded as of but little consequence. They attributed to him, not only the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, but a multitude of other poems of the most dissimilar arguments, which are now universally acknowledged to have been spurious. In fact, the name of Homer appears to have been among the ancient Greeks, almost the same which that of Solomon is among the oriental nations, a name of wonder, to which every thing marvellous was attached.

Against that part of M. Heyne's hypothesis, which relates to the gradual completion of the arts from small beginnings, and which seems to imply that the advocates of the common opinion suppose the works of Homer to have been the earliest instances of great poetical genius among the Greeks, it may be urged, that this is by no means their uniform supposition. They frequently admit and argue that a state of considerable culture must have preceded the existence of such poems. But this, apart from fable, can perhaps be collected only from the poems themselves, and therefore, in some degree, takes for granted the question in dispute. Is it easy to suppose that for five centuries after the publication of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, the Greeks should have remained unable to transmit to posterity accurate memorials of events, and that the first page of *Thucydides*, should have been almost the first genuine and unmingled page of their history?

That branch of the internal evidence which is collected from the possibility of dividing the *Iliad* into independent parts, does not appear very forcible. So might Virgil and Milton be dissected. In the former, we have the destruction of Troy,



the wanderings of Æneas and his companions, the love of Dido, the games at the tomb of Anchises, the descent into the lower regions; in the latter, the battle of the angels, the creation of the world, the state of man in paradise, with other similar divisions. But in the latter half of the *Odyssey* there is perhaps a stricter connection of parts, with a few exceptions, than in almost any other poetical composition of equal length.

But the argument by which the common opinion is principally supported, is that of the similarity of style and genius which prevails throughout the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*. There are some considerations by which this difficulty may be alleviated, but it cannot perhaps be wholly overcome. A considerable similarity of style may probably have prevailed among the ancient bards, says M. Heyne, from this circumstance, that they treasured in their memory, for the purpose of recitation, their own poems and those of others, whence the same images, forms of speech, comparisons and poetical ornaments must naturally have occurred to them. This similarity may be observed even in writers of very late date, such as Quintus Calaber, who was probably conversant with the ancient cyclic poets. Respecting the power which the faculty of memory is capable of attaining by cultivation, M. Heyne appeals to a paper of Sir W. Jones in the *Asiatic Researches*, vol. ii. p. 14, to the poems of Ossian, transmitted by recitation, but without mentioning the doubts respecting their authenticity, and to the example of Abbé Delille, who is said to have brought with him from his native country, his poems committed to his memory. But if a similarity of style may have been common to a great number of writers, which may be easily admitted, it is more difficult to account for a similarity of genius, such as that which prevails in the works attributed to Homer. The cyclic writers in general we have reason to suppose far inferior in genius; by what fortunate coincidence has it happened, that these particular songs capable of coalescing so happily in a unity of plan, should so much excel in splendor the common poetry of their age? On the other hand, the question is in some degree perhaps assumed, when it is said that a perfect similarity of manner is retained through the whole of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*; the character of the former books is different

from that of the assault on the camp, the *Patroclea* recedes from both, the exploits of Achilles appear in a fresh colouring, for a similar judgment has before been passed by some learned men respecting the style of the latter books.

If the *Iliad* were really formed by the coalition of independent rhapsodies, it may be asked, at what period did this union probably take place?

The *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are distinctly mentioned by Herodotus. His *æra* forms a limit therefore, below which we cannot descend. On the other side, M. Heyne thinks that we cannot refer the ingenious discovery of epic unity to the unenlightened period preceding the establishment of the Olympiads.

Early mention is twice made of the works of Homer, the first in the age of Lycurgus, the second in that of Pisistratus, his sons, and Solon.

The age of Lycurgus very nearly approaches that assigned for the time of Homer, and considerably precedes the establishment of the Olympiads. The narrations of later writers respecting the introduction of the entire poetry of Homer into Greece by Lycurgus, may be regarded as entirely fabulous, or at least destitute of any sufficient authority or probability. "Mihi," says the editor, "*hoc saltem probabile videtur, per Lycurgum ex peregrinatione in Cretam et Asiam reducem, seu unam alteramve rhapsodiam, seu notitiam aliquam carminum Homericorum venisse, mox iterum oblitteratam.*"

After an interval of nearly three centuries, succeed the accounts of Solon and the family of Pisistratus. The most authentic witness on this subject would be Plato, if the Hipparchus were certainly a genuine composition. In that treatise, Hipparchus the son of Pisistratus, is said to have first introduced the poems of Homer to Athens, and to have appointed that at the Panathenæa, the rhapsodists should recite them in succession, as still, says the author, continues the case. Lycurgus (in Leocrat.) mentions an ancient law, that the poems of Homer alone should be recited at the Panathenæa.

By another writer, these laws are ascribed to Solon. Tradition therefore, though not distinct, seems to determine that some revolution took place in the fortune of Homer's writings, about the age of Pisistratus.

This was at least certainly the period,

when letters and the arts received at Athens the beginning of their most memorable improvements. From this time cultivated eloquence, the arts of historical narrative, and dramatic representation, with the sublime productions of architecture and sculpture, gradually advanced to their furthest state of progress. About this period it is also probable that the art of alphabetical writing was brought into more frequent and easy use, previously to which, accuracy in the transmission of any work of considerable magnitude, is scarcely to be expected.

The process of improvement in the Asiatic colonies, preceded that which took place in the parent country. So early as the first Olympiads, we find the names of some of those poets from whom the *cykli* were collected, and before the time of Solon, Aretinus, Lesches, Pisander, Terpander, Alcman, Alcaeus, Sappho, and Archilochus had flourished. We are not informed of the fortune, or even the existence of Homer's writings in those countries at that period. But it is to be remembered, as M. Heyne well remarks, that of these remote ages we retain, not histories, but fragments of histories, and of few nations are the memorials which we now possess more barren than those of the Ionic colonies, at the period when arts and literature originated among them. The Athenians, however, appear to have been the people among whom a critical taste first arose, it may therefore seem not improbable that the rhapsodies were first committed to writing in Ionia, but that the structure of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* was formed at Athens, nearly at the age of Pisistratus.

The fabulous lives of Homer circulated under the names of Herodotus and Plutarch, with some other compositions of a similar description, scarcely deserve mention, at least in regard to their narrations. The absurd incidents which they relate seem to have been chiefly invented from two principles, supposed etymologies of the poet's name, and the application of passages in his works to his own circumstances. All however, from whatever source they are derived, are equally undeserving of credit.

Did Homer ever exist? The share which is to be attributed to any single writer, in the works which bear his name, is dubious, the name itself wears an appearance of fable. Such, at least, is nearly

the conclusion of the *excursus de Homero Iliadis auctore*.

On the whole, if the arguments employed in this controversy do not lead to any decisive determination, they at least seem to vindicate a great degree of scepticism, respecting the original state of the poems, which pass by the name of Homer. Of historical evidence we are destitute, our opinion must therefore be guided by a comparison of probabilities, arising from what we know of the circumstances of those early ages. In the mean time we may rest satisfied, that we possess at least, that Homer, who was revised by Aristarchus, studied by Horace, imitated by Virgil, and recommended by the critics of antiquity to the unwearied perusal of every student of men, manners, language, and poetry.

The acknowledged excellence of the poems remains unimpeached. We shall not perhaps adopt the unbounded encomium of Quintilian; "Quid? in verbis, sententiis, figuris, dispositione totius operis, nonne humani ingenii modum excedit? Ut magni sit viri, virtutes ejus non æmulatione, quod fieri non potest, sed intellectu sequi." But we shall still allow, that the works of Homer contain a rich treasure of genuine poetry. Fortunate in his age, his subject, his genius, and his language, he has acquired a fame, which no other poet will probably ever be able to attain, and which, if reduced to its just dimensions, will still occupy an ample space in the records of intellectual distinction.

Of those *excursus* which relate to the historical illustration of the poet, our limits will only permit us to subjoin a catalogue. Such are the following: de *Olympo Homérico*, l. i. 8.; de *Agamemnonis scepro, regno, ac successione*, de *imperii finibus*, et de *Argis*, ii. 1.; de *acie Homérica et tactica Achivorum et Trojanorum*, x. 1.; de *locis in quibus ad Trojam inter Trojanos et Achivos est pugnatum*, vi. 1.; de *castrametatione et de castrorum munitione per Achivos facta*, vii. 1.; de *Harpyiis*, xvi. 1.; de *Jovis Dodonæi religione secundum Homerum ejusque interpretes veteres*, xvii. 1.; de *clypeo Achillis*, xviii. 3. It may be remarked, that however sceptical M. Heyne appears respecting the author of the works which pass under the name of Homer, he seems to entertain no doubt of the existence of the city of Troy, and its celebrated siege.

It need now scarcely be added, that we regard the present work as a most valuable addition to the stores of classical literature, and a complete repository of ancient and modern criticism on the works of Homer. They who have not leisure or opportunity to peruse the voluminous compilations of the ancients, will thank the editor for the compendious and accessible form to which he has reduced them; and they who have, will often choose to consult them in a judicious selection, rather than labour through all the mass of foreign and uninteresting matter which so often loads and disguises their really valuable information. In forming an estimate of the literary merits of M. Heyne, we feel wholly disposed to accede to the eulogium passed on him by his countryman, the learned and elegant editor of *Æschylus*, as "litterator et philosophus, qui in veterum poetarum interpretatione, Gratias et Musas amabili vinculo consociatas adhibuit, artium politioris elegantiae universum orbem subtili, si quis alius, scientia comprehendit, auctoritate, doctrina, literis illustravit, morumque humanitatis venerabili exemplo nobilitavit." If not absolutely the first in some of those

particular departments of ancient criticism, which have been occupied with such eminent distinction, by the great scholars of the last century, and their successors of the present day, in every respect worthy to fill their place, he is at least the pentathlus of Longinus, *σχιδὸν πᾶντος ἐν παντί*, and in his own province of taste and elegant judgment, he is perhaps unrivalled.

Though the title of the work, as well as intimations, which occur in the course of it, authorize us to look for the publication of the *Odyssey*, we are not informed how soon its appearance may be expected. With regard to the external decorations of the present edition of the *Iliad*, the superior copies are ornamented with vignettes, taken from antique specimens. In each of the three editions, there are also copies of the writing of six manuscripts, which have been used in the execution of the work, and among the rest, a fac-simile of that of Mr. Townley. The type is good, but the inferior edition, like other German productions, is printed on bad paper. A good index, of which the work is totally destitute, would have been a most valuable addition.

## ANTIQUITIES AND MYTHOLOGY.

ART. II. *Grecian Antiquities; or an Account of the public and private Life of the Greeks, &c.* By the Rev. THOMAS HARWOOD, late of University-college, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 540.

AS there is but little in this work which can in any sense be called original, we shall not detain our readers with a long account of it.

"It was suggested some years ago," says the author, "to the compiler of the following pages, that a work, containing an account of the manners and customs of the Greeks, upon a plan somewhat similar to that of Dr. Adam, in his very useful book on the Roman Antiquities, would be a profitable companion to the student of literature." \*

To the encomium on the utility of Dr. Adam's work, we very cordially assent.

"On this subject," continues Mr. Harwood, "the work of Archbishop Potter has been much consulted; but it is found to be so encumbered with historical and mythological digressions, and with long quotations from the classics, that the labour of enquiry is not always without difficulty repaid."

This account is surely somewhat ungrateful towards a writer, to whom Mr. H. is indebted for almost every particle of information contained in his own work. The style of Potter has indeed become obsolete, and is frequently mean, but his book remains a very useful repository of knowledge on the subject which it treats.

"It would be useless," says the author, "to enumerate the variety of learned authorities to which he has referred; he will only acknowledge that in the long catalogue of authors which he has consulted, he has freely borrowed from every quarter, whatever could be selected for the utility and illustration of the subject."

We, on the contrary, have been able to discover in the work of Mr. H. very little more than an abridgement of that of Archbishop Potter, with the exception of a few of the concluding pages, prin-

especially taken from Bos, and the addition of tables of chronology, coins, weights, and measures. We also find occasional marks of great negligence and haste.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY.

ART. III. *A Bibliographical Dictionary, containing a Chronological Account, alphabetically arranged, of the most curious, scarce, useful and important Books, in all Departments of Literature, which have been published in Latin, Greek, Coptic, Hebrew, Samaritan, Syriac, Chaldee, Ethiopic, Arabic, Persian, Armenian, &c.* Vol. I. (from A to Bi) 8vo. pp. 288.

WE are told by metaphysicians, that the human mind is capable, by long familiarity, of forming a disinterested attachment to any pursuits in which it is engaged, and any objects with which it is connected, which are not absolutely and strongly disgusting, however devoid of attraction they may appear to the rest of mankind. It has been said of the miser, that he ultimately acquires a disinterested love of money. There is no character to which this remark is more applicable, than that of the collector of books, who, if he enter into the full spirit of his pursuit, may furnish, by his eagerness and enthusiasm, a subject not unworthy the pen of Theophrastus or La Bruyere. Independently of the instruction or pleasure which he has experienced, or for which he hopes, from their perusal, the mere sight of books is sufficient to excite in his mind the liveliest perceptions, and a rare specimen or a splendid and extensive collection to exalt him into raptures, in which the uninitiated spectator is so far from participating, that he finds it difficult even to conceive of their origin.

If compared with other tribes of virtuosos, without treating even the lowest of that order with contempt, it may be allowed, that the lover of books has chosen a province which is next in dignity to that of the truly scientific collector of the interesting objects of nature. A classical and elegant taste is often connected with his pursuit, and the objects of his curiosity are at once the monuments of human genius and wisdom, and of the noblest of human arts. The formation also of extensive collections of the valuable works of literature, public or private, especially if left liberally accessible to the occasional use of men of learning, is worthy of the highest praise.

Bibliographical works similar in design to the present, if well executed, are capable of affording considerable instruction and entertainment. Though

a scholar, if he wish to make his exertions useful, must particularly connect himself with some single department of the great region of literature, yet he will not feel himself sufficiently the master even of his own ground, without possessing some general knowledge of the surrounding provinces. In classical erudition the arrangement and classification of editions is often an object of critical importance. The editor of the present publication seems to possess very strong persuasion of the difficulty of his undertaking. A perfect work of this kind, he says, never yet saw the sun, and perhaps in bibliography especially, perfection is unattainable. We are disposed, on the contrary, to think, that, with leisure, a moderate share of learning, and the opportunities which are open to every scholar in a learned country, it would not be very difficult to give to such a work almost all the value of which it is capable, which indeed principally consists in judgment of selection and accuracy of report.

We cannot however say, that the present work is executed with all the accuracy which is necessary. Some of the errata are noticed, with an apology, in the advertisement; others which are less excusable occur. We mention only the following. Page 42, the remains of the Greek poet Alcæus are said to have been published in the *Corpus Poetarum* of Mattaire, which is only a collection of Latin writers, and of which work a wrong date is also given. P. 76, the catalogue of Aldine classics, in octavo and duodecimo, is imperfect. P. 105, the account of the editions of Aristophanes is singularly confused and inaccurate: in several instances, accounts of the same editions are repeated. P. 112, the edition of Aristotle by Sylburgius, published in 1587, is dated 1787, and chronologically arranged according to this date. P. 152, of more than sixty editions of the writers *de re rusticâ*, enumerated by the Deux-pont Society, only three, and those not

the most valuable, are mentioned. The last of these is not noticed by Fabricius, or the Deux-pont editors.

In this work, only the first volume of which has yet appeared, it is intended to include the whole of the fourth edition of Dr. Harwood's *View of the Classics*.

Dr. Harwood's judgments are, however, frequently not to be depended on. The present publication, notwithstanding its imperfections, may be useful, from the want of any similar work executed with greater accuracy.

ART. IV. *An Introduction to the Knowledge of rare and valuable Editions of the Greek and Roman Classics: being in part a tabulated Arrangement from Dr. Harwood's View, &c. with Notes from Mattaire, De Bure, Dictionnaire bibliographique, and references to ancient and modern Catalogues.* By T. F. DIBDIN, A. B. 8vo. pp. 75.

THIS publication is rather a specimen of a larger work which the editor has prepared, than a complete treatise in itself. Many valuable authors, and valuable editions are omitted. The plan however is convenient. The text is formed by a tabulated arrangement of editions, according to the name of their printer, the place of their execution,

their size, date, price, and general character. Notes are subjoined, containing further information, from De Bure, Harwood, &c.

Page 3, Canter's duodecimo *Æchylus* is said to be in quarto. In the note, the *Æschylus* of Porson, and that of Glasgow, 1795, are erroneously considered as distinct.

#### TRANSLATIONS.

ART. V. *The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, translated into English Blank-verse by the late WILLIAM COWPER, Esq. The second Edition with copious Alterations and Notes.* 4 vols. 8vo.

THE present work appears a second time before the public, under circumstances which are rather unusual. When an author has once arrived at the conclusion of a long and laborious undertaking, and has received the judgment to which he submits himself, he will not frequently be tempted, either by praise or censure, to renew his course, or at least to expend on his concluded labour, such a degree of additional attention, as shall entitle it, which in the present instance is the case, to the appellation, rather of a new than a revised work.

But to Mr. Cowper the translation of Homer was unfortunately more important as an alleviation of acute mental suffering, than as a literary undertaking. It was happy for himself that an object, which engaged in a pleasing, and therefore salutary exercise, many of those hours, which would otherwise have lingered painfully along, under the weight of intellectual depression, was originally adopted and pursued by him; and happy, that after its attainment, he had the resolution, which few perhaps would have exerted, to resume the occupation from which he experienced his most powerful relief, under the gloom which unhappily clouded his mind.

In his preface, the editor, the rev. Mr.

Johnson, a kinsman of the poet, gives an account of the progress of the work, from which we extract the following particulars.

"I was summoned to the house of my inestimable friend, the translator, in the month of January 1794. He had happily completed a revision of his Homer, and was thinking of the preface to his new edition, when all his satisfaction in the one, and whatever he had projected for the other, in a moment vanished from his mind. He had fallen into a deplorable illness; and though the foremost wish of my heart was to lessen the intense-ness of his misery, I was utterly unable to afford him any aid.

"During two long years from this most anxious period, the translation continued as it was, and though in the hope of its being able to divert his melancholy, I had attempted more than once to introduce it to its author, I was every time painfully obliged to desist. But in the summer of ninety-six, when he had resided with me in Norfolk twelve miserable months, the introduction, long wished for, took place. To my inexpressible astonishment and joy, I surprised him, one morning, with the *Iliad* in his hand; and with an excess of delight which I am still more unable to describe, I the next day discovered that he had been writing. Were I to mention one of the happiest moments of my life, it might be that which introduced me to the following lines:



Mistaken meanings corrected,  
admante G. Wakefield.

BOOK XXIII.—L. 429.

—that the nave  
Of thy neat wheel seem ev'n to grind upon it.

L. 865.

As when (the north wind freshing) near the  
bank

Up springs a fish in air, then falls again  
And disappears beneath the sable flood,  
So, at the stroke, he bounded.

L. 1018.

Thenceforth Tydides o'er his ample shield  
Aim'd, and still aim'd, to pierce him in the  
neck,

Or better thus :

Tydides, in return, with spear high-poised  
O'er the broad shield, aim'd ever at his neck,

Or best of all :

Then Tydeus' son, with spear high-poised  
above

The ample shield, stood aiming at his neck.

"He had written these lines with a pencil, on a leaf at the end of his Iliad; and when I reflected on the cause which had given them birth, I could not but admire its disproportion to the effect. What the voice of persuasion had failed in for a year, accident had silently accomplished in a single day. The circumstance I allude to was this: I received a copy of the Iliad and Odyssey of Pope, then recently published by the editor above mentioned, with illustrative and critical notes of his own. As it commended Mr. Cowper's translation in the preface, and occasionally pointed out its merits in the notes, I was careful to place it in his way; though it was more from a habit of experiment which I had contracted, than from well-grounded hope of success. But what a fortunate circumstance was the arrival of this work! and by what name worthy of its influence shall I call it? In the mouth of an indifferent person it might be chance, but in mine, whom it rendered so peculiarly happy, common gratitude requires that it should be, Providence."

By the former edition of his translation, Mr. Cowper does not appear to have completely satisfied either the expectations of the public, or his own wishes. The learned readers of Homer would, probably, be fastidious in estimating the merits of the copy, in their enthusiastic admiration of the original. They who knew him only through the medium of his popular paraphrase, would often esteem the harmony, richness, and point of Pope, ill exchanged for the simplicity, and sometimes ruggedness of Cowper. Yet, by every candid and capable judge, the work of the

latter was allowed to be, at least, a great, and, to a considerable extent, a successful undertaking, a more faithful exhibition of the author, if not a more finished poem, than that of his illustrious predecessor. Rivalship indeed, Cowper has himself disclaimed. "None," says he, "is supposable between performers on different instruments." In fact, the translations of Pope and Cowper are works of two different classes. The former spreads his canvas; he takes his subject from Homer, he adopts his figures, and gives them the same disposition, but he employs his own colouring, and in the detail often does not scruple to add circumstances which he esteems ornamental, and to omit or disguise others, which he either himself disapproved, or which he thought it necessary to sacrifice to the taste or prejudices of others. Cowper, on the other hand, professes to represent his author such as he is, with as much of his native character as the skill or fortune of his translator should permit him to transmute. After apologizing for some remarks which he had found it necessary to make on the subject of Mr. Pope's translation, he adds, "On this head the English reader is to be admonished, that the matter found in me, whether he like it or not, is found also in Homer; and that the matter not found in me, how much soever he may admire it, is found only in Mr. Pope. I have omitted nothing; I have invented nothing." Pref. p. xxiii. We may add, that for the execution of a translation of Homer on these principles, and with these views, no person could, perhaps, have been selected more happily qualified than Mr. Cowper.

It is interesting to reflect on the fortunes of Homer's works. Two magnificent poems, to which that name is annexed, have descended to us in a state apparently but little impaired, or at least not materially injured in their more essential parts. All acknowledge that not a single circumstance is known with certainty respecting the history of their author, beyond his name and country; while others even profess their doubts, whether they were the work of any single author. Yet, so long as we possess the history of these writings, they have been subjects of the warmest and most extensive admiration. Ages have intervened; the world has been civilized; it

has relapsed into ignorance and rudeness; it has even reverted to a state of greater cultivation than it had known before; yet never in these revolutions, if we except some obscure cavillers, has the name of Homer been mentioned but with admiration: never, amidst the change of manners and ideas, has any thing further than the knowledge of his language, and the possession of the sentiments of humanity, been necessary to understand and enjoy his beauties. They must, therefore, touch some general and immutable principle of our nature.

The general structure of Homer's works, we are not now called on to criticise. We will merely advert to those parts of his poetical character with which a translator is concerned.

Homer appears to have been an attentive and accurate observer of nature. His descriptions are vivid and picturesque. Sometimes the images which he conveys are expressed by single words; sometimes they are drawn out at greater length; but every where they present the reflection of nature: yet they never over-load the subject to which they are attached, but while they animate the picture, are still subservient to the principal object.

He was an equally just observer of the human mind, of its ways of operation, and the modifications of which they are susceptible. Hence the great variety and distinctness of his characters, in which he excels, perhaps, every epic writer by whom he has been succeeded.

He has not been less successful in the exhibition of those passions which are suited to his characters. The blood-thirsty revenge of Achilles, and the tenderness and fears of Andromache, are expressed in sentiments and language equally appropriate and feeling.

His style possesses a character almost entirely different from that of most other great poets. It is simple and unassuming. That system of poetic diction, which was employed in a subsequent age, and carried to its perfection by Virgil, was unknown to Homer, though the rudiments, perhaps, of all poetical ornament, may be found in his works. His merit, therefore, consists principally in the life and beauty of his descriptions, the just delineation of his characters, and the energy, propriety, and pathos of his sentiments.

His language and the structure of his

verse, were circumstances highly favourable to him; the former is, perhaps, the most flexible and copious, and at the same time magnificent and expressive of the various idioms of speech; and the latter by its flow, and the variety of its feet and pauses, the most melodious combination of syllables which the poetry of any nation has possessed.

The true nature of poetical translation has been a subject of dispute. Mr. Cowper controverts the common rule, that a translator should direct himself by imagining the style which his author would probably have used, had the language into which he is rendered been his own. A direction, he says, which wants nothing but practicability to recommend it. But however difficult it may be to assign rules on this subject, it will not, perhaps, be disputed, that the object of such a translation is, to excite in the mind of the reader, sentiments, images, and feelings, similar to those which he would experience in the perusal of the original work.

It may reasonably, therefore, be expected from him who undertakes the office of translating a great poet, that he previously estimate the similarity of his own powers to those of the author whose interpreter he becomes. If tried by this test, Mr. Cowper certainly will not be excluded from the number of those who are authorised to assert a claim of affinity with the father of poetry.

Of his ability for the structure of a long and interesting epic narration, he has given the world no proof, and it was, in the present instance, already provided for him by his author.

The poet of the "Task" will continue, while his language shall remain, to occupy a distinguished place among the observers and describers of nature. His pictures are lively, original, and just; and he has, in this department, considerably added to the acquisitions of English poetry. His interesting letters, recently published by Mr. Hayley, contain many proofs of his constant habit of viewing the scenes of nature with a nice and discriminating observation, which enabled him to collect that store of pleasing images, by which his poetry is embellished.

He appears also to have marked with an accurate eye, the varieties of character, and modes of life, which had passed under his observation, to have been no stranger to the human mind, in the nice-

ties of its operation, and to have been capable of expressing forcibly, as well as conceiving justly, its sentiments and passions.

Of the established diction of poetry, he appears to have been sometimes almost reprehensibly negligent. When satisfied with the justice and force of his conceptions, he regarded the language in which they should be conveyed, as a matter of inferior consideration. Hence his style is frequently harsh, and sometimes mean; and it has been perhaps from this cause, that some of his readers, not justly estimating his other and superior merits, have been disposed to deny him the character of a poet.

His versification also is open to objections similar to those which affect his style. It possesses variety, and occasionally, smoothness and force, but is often harsh, and often feeble. Some of his posthumous pieces, however, show that he was by no means incapable of that melodious tenor of versification, which the practice indeed of almost every writer of poetry since the time of Pope, proves not to be a difficult attainment.

If the English be a language less powerful, and less adapted to the purposes of poetry than the Greek, this is not the fault of the translator. And he has himself disavowed any intention of taking refuge under an unfilial imputation of blame on his mother-tongue. "Our language," says he, "is indeed less musical than the Greek, and there is no language with which I am at all acquainted which is not; but it is musical enough for the purposes of melodious verse, and if it seem to fail on whatsoever occasion, in energy, the blame is due, not to itself, but to the unskilful manager of it. For so long as Milton's works, whether his prose or his verse, shall exist, so long there will be abundant proof that no subject, however important, however sublime, can demand greater force of expression than is within the compass of the English tongue."

In his preference of blank verse for a translation of Homer, we cannot but think Mr. Cowper right. No measure, however established in the English language, can equal the dignity of the ancient heroic.

The object of the translator in the revisal of his work, cannot be expressed better than in his own language.

After describing the extent of his first

revisal of his work soon after its publication, he proceeds thus:

"Between that revisal and the present a considerable time intervened, and the effect of long discontinuance was, that I became more dissatisfied with it myself, than the most difficult to be pleased of all my judges. Not for the sake of a few uneven lines or unwanted pauses, but for reasons far more substantial. The diction seemed to me in many passages either not sufficiently elevated, or deficient in the grace of ease; and in others I found the sense of the original either not adequately expressed or misapprehended. Many elisions still remained unsoftened; the compound epithets I found not always happily combined; and the same sometimes too frequently repeated."

We now proceed to make some extracts from the work, which we shall sometimes compare with the correspondent passages, as they stand in the former edition.

Iliad I. 179, "Ah! cloathed with impudence, as with a cloak." The metaphor is here too much distended, which in the original is simply cloathed with impudence, a form of speech not unfrequent in Homer. This translation, and that of *μῦ' ἀνδρὶς*, face of flint, v. 191, are retained from the former edition, but would surely have been better altered.

We insert with pleasure, the following description of the return of the Grecian ship from Chrysa:

And, when the day-spring's daughter tosy-  
palm'd  
Aurora look'd abroad, then back they steer'd  
To the vast camp. Fair wind, and blowing  
fresh,  
Apollo sent them; quick they rear'd the mast,  
Then spread th' unsullied canvas to the gale,  
And the wind filled it. Roared the sable  
flood  
Around the bark, that ever as she went  
Dash'd wide the brine, and scudded swift  
away.

We find on comparison, that this passage remains unaltered from the former edition; we beg leave to compare with it the following description of Spenser.

"So forth they rowed, and that ferryman  
With his stiff oars did brush the sea so  
strong,  
That the hoar waters from his frigate ran,  
And the light bubbles danced all along,  
While the salt brine out of the billow  
sprang."

FAIRY QUEEN, b. ii. c. xii. 10.

In the second book, the catalogue of

the ships, is well translated, and often happily diversified with short and lively descriptions. That of the employment of the followers of Achilles, in their camp, during the retirement of their chief, is a striking passage.

In verse 694, the word *Aepytus* occurs with a false quantity. One or two other instances of similar inadvertency occur in the course of the work.

Book III. v. 89. "Would new attire thee in a suit of stone." The original expression is in this instance harsh, and is not mollified by the translator. The former version was, "Secure beneath a coverlet of stone."

B. iv. 161, Homer is presented with a metaphor not his own,

"he felt

Hope's reflux tide succeed it's lowest ebb."

In the former edition its stands thus :

"he gather'd heart and lived again."

V. 338. Homer's customary epithet of "winged words," is varied thus, "accents winged with joy." Whether this addition of thought, of which other instances occur, is justifiable, may perhaps be doubted.

V. 282. "Thou know'st, but thy cup constantly as mine." This verse can be reduced to no measure, but by laying a strong emphasis on the word *thy*, a necessity to which it ought not to be left. One exception from this rule, custom appears to have established, in the case of two adjoining monosyllables which present a picture to the eye. An early instance of this licence occurs in Pope's *Messiah*.

"The *green reed* trembles, and the bulrush nods."

It occurs also in Milton, and has since become common.

The introductory verses of the fifth book, furnish a proper occasion of comparison between the two editions.

#### FIRST EDITION.

"Then Athenæan Pallas on the son  
Of Tydeus, Diomed, new force conferr'd  
And daring courage, that the Argives all  
He might surpass, and deathless fame achieve.

Fires on his helmet, and his shield around  
She kindled, bright and steady as the star  
Autumnal, which in Ocean newly bathed  
Assumes fresh beauty; with such glorious beams

His head encircling and his shoulders broad,  
She urged him forth into the thickest fight."

#### SECOND EDITION.

"Then, to exalt him in all Grecian eyes,  
And purchase him an everlasting name,  
Pallas gave Diomed new strength to toil,  
Fresh fortitude to dare. His helmed head  
She circled and his shield with living fires,  
Bright as, when brightest, the autumnal star  
In ocean laved, and recent from the deep.  
His brows and ample shoulders thus illumed  
She urged him forth into the thickest fight."

The extract of the following simile from the two editions, affords an instance of considerable variation.

#### FIRST EDITION.

"Thus strenuous they the toilsome battle waged,

But where Tydides fought, whether in aid  
Of Ilium's host, or on the part of Greece,  
Might none discern. For as a winter-flood  
Impetuous, mounds and bridges sweeps away;  
The buttress'd bridge checks not its sudden force,

The firm inclosure of vine-planted fields  
Luxuriant, falls before it, finish'd works  
Of youthful hinds, once pleasant to the eye,  
Now level'd, after ceaseless rain from Jove:  
So drove Tydides into sudden flight  
The Trojans; phalanx after phalanx fled  
Before the terror of his single arm."

#### SECOND EDITION.

"Thus strenuous they the toilsome battle waged.

But Diomed—Him; whether Greek he were  
Or Trojan rather, in his rapid course  
Thou scarce had'st known. For as an over-flow

Of some broad river swoln with wintry rains  
Sweeps down the bridges, dissipates the mounds,

No buttress can withstand its sudden sway.  
No fence of fruitful fields, but many a work  
By sturdy swains long-labour'd disappears,  
So fled the thick-embattled bands of Troy  
Swept and dispers'd by Diomed alone."

—"for ere that hour arrive

We will, with chariot and with horse in arms  
Encounter him." V. 244, &c:

In this translation, the word *αλλως* of the original is omitted, and the version is consequently erroneous. The proper translation is, for the event will not be otherwise, before we shall, &c.

V. 255. The interpretation given by Eustathius and Clarke is adopted, the literal sense of the passage is however probably right.

V. 346. "—gracefully her snowy arms  
Threw round him."

Gracefully is neither in the original, nor in the former translation; it would have been better omitted here. When Venus is rescuing Æneas from the danger of

imminent destruction, we are not surely at leisure to observe the grace with which she may perform the act.

The description of Minerva arming herself for battle, and passing with Juno through the gates of heaven, is finely translated, and retained with but little variation from the former edition. We insert it as a favourable specimen of the work.

"Meantime, Minerva, progeny of Jove,  
On the adamantine floor of his abode  
Let fall profuse her variegated robe,  
Labour of her own hands. Then put she on  
The corslet of the Thunderer her Sire,  
And arm'd her for the field of woe complete:  
She charged her shoulder with the dreadful  
shield

The shaggy Ægis, border'd thick around  
With terour; there was Discord, Prowess  
there.

Here hot Pursuit, and there the feature grim  
Of Gorgon, dire deformity, a sign  
Oft borne portentous on the arm of Jove.  
Her golden helm, whose concave had sufficed  
The legions of an hundred cities, rough  
With warlike ornament superb, she fix'd  
On her immortal head. Thus armed, she  
rose

Into the flaming chariot, and her spear  
Huge, pond'rous, irresistible received,  
With which Jove's awful daughter levels  
ranks

Of heroes, against whom her anger burns.  
Juno with lifted lash urged quick the steeds;  
At her approach, spontaneous roared the  
wide

Unfolding gates of heav'n, the heav'nly  
gates

Kept by the watchful Hours, to whom the  
charge

Of the Olympian summit appertains,  
And of the boundless ether, back to roll,  
And to replace the cloudy barriers dense.  
Spurr'd through the portal flew the rapid  
steeds.

Apart from all, and seated on the point  
Superior of the cloven mount, they found  
The Thunderer. There beauteous Juno  
stay'd

Her fiery steeds, and thus the sov'reign king  
Saturnian Jove consulted ere she pass'd."

The sixth book is ennobled by the celebrated episode of the interview between Hector and Andromache.

It is rather singular that a characteristic beauty often quoted from this passage, has been neglected by Mr. C. We allude to that part of Andromache's speech, which by Mr. Pope is rendered thus:

"Yet while my Hector still survives, I see,  
My father, mother, brethren, all, in thee."

The distinct enumeration of the various relations which Hector alone is able to sustain and supply, constitutes a great part of the beauty of the passage: it is thus generalized by Mr. C.

"All these are lost; but in thy wedded love  
My faithful Hector! I regain them all."

The eighth book opens with an inconsistent metaphor.

"The saffron-vested morn was now diffused  
O'er all the earth, &c."

Aurora when personified, cannot, in any just sense, be said to be diffused. This impropriety is not chargeable on the original.

From the conclusion of this book, we insert the celebrated night-piece, of which Pope has said, "that it is the most beautiful description of this kind, which can be found in poetry;" and which is very finely translated by himself.

"Big with great purposes, and proud, they  
sat,  
Not disarray'd, but in fair form disposed  
Of even ranks, and watched their num'rous  
fires.

As when around the clear bright moon, the  
stars

Shine in full splendour, and the winds are  
hush'd,

The groves, the mountain-tops, the headland-  
heights

Stand all apparent, not a vapour streaks  
The boundless blue, but ether open'd wide  
All glitters and the shepherd's heart is cheer'd;  
So num'rous seem'd those fires between the  
stream

Of Xanthus, blazing, and the fleet of Greece,  
In prospect all of Troy.

Iliad xii. 34, "tridential," is not a legitimate word, if an adjective were formed, it should be tridental.

The following simile in the original, presents a most lively picture.

"As the feath'ry snows  
Fall frequent, on some win'try day, when  
Jove

Hath risen to shed them on the race of man,  
And show his arrowy stores, he lulls the  
winds,

Then shakes them down continual, cov'ring  
thick

Mountain tops, promontories, flow'ry meads,  
And cultured vallies rich; the havens too  
Receive it largely, and the winding shores,  
But Oceans bound it there, while Jove en-  
wraps,

As with a fleecy mantle, all beside;  
So thick alternately by Trojans hurl'd  
Against the Greeks, and by the Greeks re-  
turn'd

The stony volleys flew; resounding loud



Through all its length the batter'd rampart  
road.

V. 560. "Gloomy as night in aspect, but  
in arms  
All-dazzling."

No antithesis was intended by Homer,  
of the gloom and the brightness, and it  
tends to weaken the effect of this grand  
description.

The thirteenth is in the original a very  
fine book, and it is translated with spirit.

V. 589. ——— "and my commands  
Once issued there, incontinent return."

Incontinent is a word frequently used  
by Mr. C. for instant, in which sense it  
might perhaps, without disadvantage, be  
discarded from the English vocabulary.

The same remarks are applicable to  
the fifteenth, as to the thirteenth book,  
both in the original and the translation.

Book xvi. The following lines in the  
original present a picture very interest-  
ing by its simplicity and liveliness. It  
has perhaps suffered something in the  
translation. We give it from both the  
editions.

#### FIRST EDITION.

"Why weeps Patroclus like an infant girl  
Who, running at her mother's side, entreats  
To be uplifted in her arms? she grasps  
Her mantle, checks her haste, and looking up  
With tearful eyes, pleads earnest to be borne;  
So fall, Patroclus! thy unceasing tears."

#### SECOND EDITION.

"Why weeps Patroclus like an infant girl  
That begs her mother, at whose side she runs  
To lift her; pulls her mantle, checks her haste  
And, weeping, pleads till she at last prevail?  
Such childish tears, my friend, thy cheeks  
bedew."

From the eighteenth book, we extract  
part of the celebrated description of the  
shield of Achilles. The variations of  
the present from the former edition are  
not numerous, but are generally im-  
provements.

"He also grav'd on it a fallow field  
Rich, spacious, and well-till'd. Flowers  
not few,  
There driving to and fro their sturdy teams,  
Labour'd the land; and oft as in their course  
They came to the field's bourn, so oft a man  
Met them, who in their hands a goblet placed  
Charged with delicious wine. They frequent  
turn'd  
Each to his furrow, toiling as in haste  
To reach the border; and as land new-plow'd

The glebe behind them shew'd a blackish hue  
Though golden. Wonderful effect of art!

There too he form'd the likeness of a field  
Crowded with corn, in which the reapers  
toil'd

Each with a sharp tooth'd sickle in his hand.  
Along the furrow here, the harvest fell  
In frequent handfuls, there, they bound the  
sheaves,

Three binders of the sheaves their sultry task  
All plied industrious and behind them boys  
Attended, filling with the corn their arms  
And off'ring sulk their bundles to be bound.  
Amid them, staff in hand, the master stood  
Enjoying mute the order of the field,  
While, shaded by an oak a-part, his train  
Prepar'd the banquet, a well-thriven ox  
New slain, and the attendant maidens mix'd  
Large supper for the hinds of whitest flour.

There also laden with its fruit he form'd,  
A vineyard all of gold; purple he made  
The clusters, and the vines supported stood  
By poles of silver set in even rows.  
The trench he coloured sable, and around  
Fenced it with tin. One only path it show'd  
By which the gath'ers when they stripped  
the vines  
Pass'd and repass'd. There, youths and maid-  
ens blithe

In frails of wicker bore the luscious fruit,  
While, in the midst, a boy on his shrill harp  
Harmonious play'd, and, ever as he struck  
The chord, sang to it with a slender voice,  
They smote the ground together, and with  
song

And sprightly reed came dancing on behind.  
There too an herd he fashion'd of tall beeves  
Part gold, part tin. They, lowing, from the  
stalls

Rush'd forth to pasture by a river-side  
Rapid, sonorous, fringed with whisp'ring  
reeds.

Four golden herdsmen drove the kine a-field  
By nine swift dogs attended. Dreadful sprang  
Two lions forth, and of the foremost herd  
Seized fast a bull. Him bellowing they  
dragg'd,

While dogs and peasants hasted to his aid.  
The lions tore the hide of the huge prey  
And lapp'd his entrails and his blood. Mean-  
time

The herdsmen, troubling them in vain, their  
hounds

Encouraged; but no tooth for lions' flesh  
Found they, and, therefore, stood aside and  
bark'd.

There also, the illustrious smith divine  
Amidst a pleasant grove, a pasture form'd,  
And sprinkled all its breadth with silver  
sheep

Num'rous, and stalls and huts and shepherds'  
tents.

To these the glorious artist added next  
A varied dance, resembling that of old  
In Crete's broad isle by Dædalus composed  
For bright-hair'd Ariadne. There the youths

And youth-alluring maidens, hand in hand,  
Danced jocund, ev'ry maiden neat-attired  
In finest linen, and the youths in vests  
Well-woven, glossy as the glaze of oil.  
These all wore garlands, and bright faul-  
chions, those,  
Of burnish'd gold in silver trappings hung;  
They, with well-tutor'd step, now, nimbly  
ran  
The circle, swift, as when, before his wheel  
Seated, the potter twirls it with both hands  
For trial of its speed, now, crossing quick  
They pass'd at once into each other's place.  
A circling crowd survey'd the lovely dance,  
Delighted; two, the leading pair, their heads  
With graceful inclination bowing oft,  
Pass'd swift between them, and began the  
song."

The expression "for no tooth for lion's flesh found they," will be regarded as censurable; the original simply says, that "they shrunk back from biting the lions."

The beginning of the twentieth Iliad contains the singular but sublime scene of the gods descending to battle. We shall only observe, that the picture of Pluto starting from his throne, is less vivid than that of the original, and that one verse of it affords an instance of remarkable inadvertency, which does not occur in the former edition.

— "in realm  
Of horror, thirst, and woe."

No idea, similar to that of thirst, is found in the original, and its occurrence to the translator can only be accounted for by supposing that, in one of those moments of oversight to which all are liable, for situ, employed in the translation of *στυπτα*, he may have read *siti*.

The conclusion of this book presents a most magnificent and terrible picture of Achilles raging through the battle, the spirit of which is not lost by the translator.

From the twenty-third book we with pleasure transcribe a passage of great beauty both in the original and the translation, and considerably improved by the variations of the present from the former edition, in which the version was not, indeed, exactly conformable to the sense of the author.

#### FIRST EDITION.

"All rais'd the lash at once, and with the reins  
At once all smote their steeds, urging them on  
Vociferous; they, sudden, left the fleet  
Far, far behind them, scouring swift the plain.

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Dark, like a stormy cloud, uprose the dust  
Their chests beneath, and scatter'd in the wind  
Their manes all floated; now the chariot  
swept

The low declivity unseen, and now  
Emerging started into view; erect  
The drivers stood; emulous, ev'ry heart  
Beat double; each encouraged loud his  
steeds;

They, flying, fill'd with dust the darken'd air.  
But when returning to the hoary deep  
They ran their last career, then each display'd  
Brightest his Charioteership, and the race  
Lay stretch'd, at once, into its utmost speed."

#### SECOND EDITION.

"All rais'd the lash together, with the reins  
All smote their steeds, and urged them to  
the strife

Vociferating; they with rapid pace  
Scouring the field soon left the fleet afar.  
Dark, like a stormy cloud, uprose the dust  
Beneath them, and their undulating manes  
Play'd in the breezes; now, the level field,  
With gliding course, the rugged, now, they  
pass'd

With bounding wheels aloft; meantime erect  
The drivers stood; with palpitating heart  
Each sought the prize; each urged his  
steeds aloud;

They, flying, fill'd with dust the darken'd air,  
But when, the bound'ry pass'd, they turn'd  
again

To the grey deep, then, straining most, the  
steeds

Their inborn courage show'd."

We fear that the unhappy malady of this interesting and amiable author, enabled and inclined him to translate the following passage with peculiar feeling.

"For whom the glorious thunder mingles both,  
His life is chequer'd with alternate good  
And evil; but to whom he gives unmixt  
The bitter cup, he makes that man a curse,  
His name becomes a by-word of reproach,  
His strength is hunger-titten, and he walks  
The blessed earth unblest, go where he may."

The Odyssey, though in the opinion of most critics a less splendid product of genius than its sister poem, presents at least a more touching and interesting narrative. Nothing, perhaps, can, in this respect, surpass that part of the Odyssey, the scene of which passes in the island of Ithaca, from the arrival of Ulysses to the destruction of the Suitors. The mind is kept in a state of constant expectation, and every incident by which the catastrophe is deferred, serves only to animate attention and curiosity.

We are also inclined to think that the Odyssey was a poem more congenial to

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the mind of the translator than the Iliad, and that his version of it has on that account been more successful. In the new edition it has undergone greater alterations, of which the author thus speaks.

"I know not that I can add any thing material on the subject of this last revision, unless it be proper to give the reason why the Iliad, though greatly altered, has undergone much fewer alterations than the Odyssey. The true reason, I believe, is this. The Iliad demanded my utmost possible exertions; it seemed to me like an ascent almost perpendicular, which could not be surmounted at less cost than of all the labour that I could bestow on it. The Odyssey, on the contrary, seemed to resemble an open and level country through which I might travel at my ease. The latter, therefore, betrayed me into some negligence, which, though little conscious of it at the time, on an accurate search, I found had left many disagreeable effects behind it."

The translator has remarked that many of those compound epithets, which in the former editions were regarded as harsh, are in the present softened or omitted: this is frequently the case; some, however, still remain, which are, perhaps, subject to a similar censure. Among these may be regarded that which occurs in *Odyssey* i. 123.

"With which the *Jove-born* goddess levels  
ranks  
Of heroes ———"

In the third book, Nestor's enumeration of the heroes who fell at Troy, concluding with his son, possesses a simplicity and beauty which could not, perhaps, be equalled in a translation, though that of Mr. C's is nearly literal.

The fifth book of the *Odyssey* excels as a descriptive poem. It presents a luxuriant picture of the island and grotto of Calypso, and a grand and impressive narration of the shipwreck of Ulysses. Juvenal has ridiculed poetic tempests. His censure is, perhaps, generally just, but there are some instances which may be exempted from it, and among these we shall not hesitate to place that of Homer.

We would have presented the reader with the description of Mercury's visit to Calypso, and the description of her abode, had it not been retained, almost without variation, from the former edition. The purpose of comparison will be better answered by the following ex-

tracts, from the description of the tempest.

FIRST EDITION.

"But Neptune, now returning from the land  
Of Æthiopia, mark'd him on his raft  
Skimming the billows, from the mountain-tops  
Of distant Solyma. With tenfold wrath  
Inflamed that sight he view'd, his brows he shook,  
And thus within himself, indignant, spake.  
'So then, new counsels in the skies, it seems,  
Propitious to Ulysses, have prevailed.  
Since Æthiopia hath been my abode.  
He sees Phæacia nigh, where he must leap  
The boundary of his woes; but ere that hour  
Arrive, I will ensure him many a groan.'  
"So saying, he grasp'd his trident, gather'd dense  
The clouds and troubled ocean; ev'ry storm  
From every point he summoned, earth and sea  
Darkening, and the night fell black from heav'n.  
The east, the south, the heavy-blowing west,  
And the cold north wind clear, assail'd at once  
His raft, and heaved on high the billowy flood.  
All hope, all courage, in that moment lost,  
The hero thus within himself complain'd.  
'Wretch that I am, what destiny at last  
Attends me! much I fear the goddess' words  
All true, which threaten'd me with num'rous ills  
On the wide sea, ere I should reach my home.  
Behold them all fulfill'd! with what a storm  
Jove hangs the heav'ns, and agitates the deep!  
The winds combined beat on me. Now I sink!  
Thrice blest, and more than thrice, Achaia's sons  
At Ilium slain for the Atridæ's sake!  
Ah, would to heav'n that, dying, I had felt  
That day the stroke of fate, when me the dead  
Achilles guarding, with a thousand spears  
Troy's furious host assail'd! Funereal rites  
I then had shar'd, and praise from ev'ry Greek,  
Whom now the most inglorious death awaits.'  
"While thus he spake, a billow on his head  
Bursting impetuous, whirl'd the raft around,  
And, dashing from his grasp the helm, himself  
Plunged far remote. Then came a sudden gust  
Of mingling winds, that in the middle snapp'd  
His mast, and, hurried o'er the waves afar,  
Both sail and sail-yard fell into the flood.  
Long time submerged he lay, nor could with ease  
The violence of that dread shock surmount,  
Or rise to air again, so burthensome  
His drench'd apparel prov'd; but, at the last,  
He rose, and rising, sputtered from his lips

The brine that trickled copious from his brows.

Nor, harass'd as he was, resign'd he yet  
His raft, but buffetting the waves aside  
With desprate efforts, seized it, and again  
Fast seated on the middle deck, escaped.  
Then roll'd the raft at random in the flood,  
Wallowing unwieldy, toss'd from wave to wave.

As when in autumn, Boreas o'er the plain  
Conglomerated thorns before him drives,  
They, tangled, to each other close adhere,  
So her the winds drove wild about the deep.  
By turns the south consign'd her to be sport  
For the rude north-wind, and, by turns, the east

Yielded her to the worrying west a prey.  
But Cadmus' beauteous daughter (lno once,  
Now named Leucothea) saw him; mortal erst

Was she, and trod the earth, but nymph become

Of ocean since, in honours shares divine.  
She mark'd his anguish, and, while toss'd he roam'd,

Pitied Ulysses; from the flood, in form  
A cormorant, she flew, and on the raft  
Close-corded perching, thus the chief address'd."

## SECOND EDITION.

" But Neptune, traversing, in his return  
From Æthiopia's sons, the mountain-heights  
Of Solymè, descried him from afar  
Born on the smooth expanse. His fiery wrath

Redoubling at the sight, his brows he shook,  
And thus within himself, indignant, spake.

' So then, while I with Æthiopia's sons  
Have dwelt secure, Ulysses, as it seems,  
Hath found the gods less adverse. He beholds

Phæacia nigh, where he is doom'd to leap  
The bound'ry of his woes; yet such distress  
As I can cause, he shall not want the while.'

" He spake, and grasping his huge trident, call'd

Storms from all quarters, cov'ring earth and sea

With blackest clouds, and night rush'd down from heav'n.

The east, the south, the heavy-blowing west,  
And the cold north-wind clear, assail'd at once

The raft, and heav'd on high the billowy flood.

All hope, all courage, in that moment lost,  
The hero thus within himself complain'd.

' Wretch that I am, what destiny at last  
Attends me! much I fear the goddess' words  
All true, which threaten'd me with num'rous ills

On the wide sea, ere I should reach my home.

Behold them all fulfill'd! with what a storm  
Jove hangs the heav'ns, and agitates the deep!  
Swift comes the tempest on; the gather'd winds

All rage at once, and there is no escape.

Thrice blest, and more than thrice, Achaia's sons

At Ilium slain for the Atridae' sake!

Oh that contending with the Trojan host  
For slain Achilles, when a thousand spears  
Assail'd me, I had died! Achaia's sons  
Had then, with sounding shields, and solemn march,

And strains funereal compass'd me around,  
Whom ruthless fate now dooms to perish here.'

" A billow, at that word, with dreadful sweep

Roll'd o'er his head, and whirl'd the raft around.  
Dash'd from the steerage o'er the vessel's side,  
He plunged remote; the gust of mingling winds

Snapp'd short the mast, and sail and sail-yard bore

Afar into the deep. Long time beneath  
The o'erwhelming waves he lay, nor could emerge

With sudden force, for furious was the shock,  
And his apparel, fair Calypso's gift,  
Oppress'd him sorely; but, at length, he rose,

And, rising, spatter'd from his lips the brine  
Which trickling left his brows in many a stream.

Nor, though distress'd, unmindful to regain  
His raft was he, but, buffetting the waves  
Pursued, and, wellnigh at his dying gasp  
Recover'd it, and in the centre sat.

She, by the billows toss'd, at random roll'd.

As when, in autumn, Boreas o'er the plain  
Before him drives a mass of matted thorns,  
They, tangled, to each other close adhere,  
So her the winds drove wild about the deep.  
By turns, the south consign'd her, as in sport,  
To the rude north-wind, and the west, by turns,

Received her from the intermitting east.

Him Cadmus' daughter, lno named of old,  
But now Leucothea, saw. She, lovely nymph,

Once mortal, trod the ground, but in the gulphs

Of ocean shares immortal honours now,  
Her pity, tempest-toss'd and worn with toil,  
Ulysses mov'd, and in a sea-mew's form  
Emerging, with broad wing she skimm'd the waves,

And perching on the raft, him thus address'd."

## FIRST EDITION.

" Two nights he wander'd, and two days, the flood

Tempestuous, death expecting ev'ry hour;  
But when Aurora, radiant-hair'd, had brought  
The third day to a close, then ceas'd the wind,  
And breathless came a calm; he, nigh at hand

The shore beheld, darting acute his sight  
Toward it, from a billow's towering top."

## SECOND EDITION.

" Two nights of terror and two dreadful days,

Bewilder'd in the deep, and many a time  
 Forboding death, he roam'd; but when, at  
 length,  
 The third bright morn appear'd, the wind,  
 assuaged,  
 Blew softly, and a breathless calm ensued  
 Then, casting from a billow's height a look  
 Of anxious heed, he saw Phæacia nigh."

Most readers will, perhaps, wish that  
 an alteration had taken place in the fol-  
 lowing lines, but they are retained with-  
 out variation.

"Where slayed his flesh had been, and all  
 his bones  
 Broken together, but for the infused  
 Good counsel of Minerva azure-eyed."

508—510.

"—— Give me, although coarse,  
 Some covering, (if coarse cov'ring *thou* can  
 give)." Od. vi. 221.

This emphasis was scarcely intended  
 by Homer.

In *Odyssey* x. 385, "incensed" is not  
 the word either adapted to the subject,  
 or authorized by the original.

*Odyssey* xix. 497, the usual name of  
 the hero is converted into *Odusseus*.  
 Conformity to established usage re-  
 quires *Odusseus*.

"Since after much success at others cost,  
 And much hostility provoked, I come,  
 Name him *Odusseus*."

The following explanatory note ac-  
 companies this passage. "To call him  
*Ulysses* here, (a name without mean-  
 ing) when *Autolycus* calls him *Odusseus*,  
 for the sake of its meaning, would be  
 not to translate, but to misrepresent the  
 poet. *Odusseus* is immediately derived  
 from the verb *odussao*, I am angry."

Respecting this remark, it may be ob-  
 served that the form *Ulysses* is not a  
 name without meaning, but only a mo-  
 dification of the word *Odusseus*. The  
 only difficult part of the transmutation,  
 is the passage of *d* into *l*; this the gram-  
 marians inform us, has taken place in  
 several other cases. "*Dacrimas*," says  
*Festus*, "*pro lacrimas* *Livius* sæpe po-  
 suit, nimirum quod *Græci* appellant  
*δακρυς*." Item *dautia*, qua *lautia* dici-  
 mus." Other instances are given. The  
 remaining steps of the process are easy.

Since *Ulysses* possesses as much mean-  
 ing to the English reader as *Odusseus*,  
 and is really derived from the same ori-  
 ginal, the usual form might, without im-  
 propriety, have been retained in the  
 present instance.

The following are some of the pecu-  
 liarities of style which occur in these  
 volumes.

The relative is frequently used for  
 the pronoun and copulative, "who"  
 for "and he."

"So with dry leaves *Ulysses* overspread  
 His body, on whose eyes," &c.

The second person of the verb is some-  
 times used, and we think not always  
 elegantly, without the preceding pro-  
 noun.

"Took he perforce thy sable bark away,  
 Or gav'st it to him at his first demand."

Od. x. 780.

Words are sometimes used in senses  
 derived from the Latin language, and  
 not sufficiently naturalized in our own.  
 Thus "equal" for "just" or kind.

"I have a mind more equal, not of steel  
 My heart is formed, but much to pity in-  
 clined."

Od. v. 227.

We should have censured the following  
 passage, as affording an example of an  
 idiom common in Greek, but inelegant in  
 English, did we not suspect that the  
 printed copy affords a wrong reading.

"—— Come, drive me to the shore  
 The best and fairest oxen of the sun."

Od. xii. 897.

Most probably, "drive we to the shore;"  
 in the former edition, "Come, let us  
 hither drive."

The style is in some instances low be-  
 yond what the simplicity of Homer re-  
 quires. We cannot approve of the fol-  
 lowing epithets, a "hook-nailed vul-  
 ture," a "wife well qualified."

We take our leave of this translation,  
 expressing a conviction that the English  
 reader, who wishes to be acquainted with  
 the manner and spirit, as well as the  
 thoughts, of Homer, will receive much  
 gratification from its perusal.

ART. V. *The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis, translated into English Verse.*  
 By WILLIAM GIFFORD, Esq. with Notes and Illustrations. 4to. pp. 554.

MR. GIFFORD commences by apo-  
 logizing to the public, for having pre-

sumed to call their attention to a narra-  
 tive of some of the circumstances of his



own life, prefixed to the present work. In this manner only, he says, can he account for its long delay, some explanation of which, his friends have assured him, that it is necessary to communicate. Perhaps an apology was not needed; there must always, at least, be something in the history of a man, who, by talents and exertions, has raised himself from circumstances of obscurity and difficulty, which has certainly, in some degree, been the case of Mr. Gifford.

Mr. G. informs us, that he was born at Ashburton in Devonshire, in the year 1757. His family appears to have been reduced by the dissipation and imprudence of his grandfather and father, the latter of whom, by an act of this description, was necessitated to quit his family, and enter into the naval service. His wife was left with scanty resources, she did however the little that was in her power for the education of her son. The father returned from sea in 1764, having learnt but little wisdom from experience, and shortly after fell a sacrifice to the injurious habits which he had contracted, and which are so often the consequence of an idle and dissipated life. This event was followed in less than a twelvemonth by the death of his wife, at which period, her son, the subject of this memoir, had not quite attained the age of thirteen.

He represents himself as having profited but little by the scanty education which he had hitherto received. The remains of his mother's property were seized, for repayment, by a person, who had advanced money to her. Under the direction of this man, our author was placed in a variety of wretched situations, interspersed with some transient opportunities of imperfect education, and in the year 1772, was bound apprentice to a shoemaker, till he should attain the age of twenty-one.

Having conceived the greatest disgust for his new employment, he made no progress in it, and was consequently little regarded in the family, of which he sunk to degrees into the common drudge. Every little opportunity of acquiring knowledge which occurred, was however improved, and accident directed his taste to the mathematics. "Pen and ink," he says, "were, for the most part, as completely out of my reach as a crown and sceptre. There was indeed a resource, but the utmost caution and se-

crecy were necessary in applying to it. I beat out pieces of leather as smooth as possible, and wrought my problems on them with a blunted awl: for the rest, my memory was tenacious, and I could multiply and divide by it, to a great extent."

The following account is given by our author of the commencement of his poetical career.

"Hitherto I had not so much as dreamt of poetry: indeed I scarce knew it by name, and, whatever may be said of the force of nature, I certainly never 'lisp'd in numbers.' I recollect the occasion of my first attempt: it is, like all the rest of my non-adventures, of so unimportant a nature, that I should blush to call the attention of the idlest reader to it, but for the reason alledged in the introductory paragraph. A person, whose name escapes me, had undertaken to paint a sign for an ale-house: it was to be a lion, but the unfortunate artist produced a dog. On this awkward affair one of my acquaintance wrote a copy of what we call verse: I liked it, but fancied I could compose something more to the purpose: I tried, and by the unanimous suffrage of my shop mates was allowed to have succeeded. Notwithstanding this encouragement, I thought no more of verse, till another occurrence, as trifling as the former, furnished me with a fresh subject: and so I went on, till I had got together about a dozen of them. Certainly nothing on earth was ever so deplorable: such as they were, however, they were talked of in my little circle, and I was sometimes invited to repeat them, even out of it. I never committed a line to paper for two reasons; first, because I had no paper; and secondly,—perhaps I might be excused from going further; but in truth I was afraid, for my master had already threatened me, for inadvertently hitching the name of one of his customers into a rhyme.

"The repetitions of which I speak, were always attended with applause, and sometimes with favours more substantial: little collections were now and then made, and I have received sixpence in an evening. To one who had long lived in the absolute want of money, such a resource seemed like a Peruvian mine. I furnished myself by degrees with paper, &c. and what was of more importance, with books of geometry, and of the higher branches of algebra, which I cautiously concealed. Poetry, even at this time, was no amusement of mine; it was subservient to other purposes; and I only had recourse to it, when I wanted money for my mathematical pursuits."

The disclosure of Mr. Gifford's poetical talents, did not immediately improve the comforts of his situation. His attachment to other pursuits produced an increasing indifference to the concerns of

his master, whose violent displeasure he in consequence incurred. He was required to give up his papers; on his refusal, his garret was searched, his little hoard of books discovered and removed, and the continuance of his studies prohibited in the strictest manner.

Gradually however brighter prospects opened, especially by the benevolent exertions of Mr. Cookesley, a surgeon of Ashburton. A subscription was set on foot for the relief of our author, the object of which was communicated in a paper with the following title, "A Subscription for purchasing the Remainder of the Time of William Gifford, and for enabling him to improve himself in writing and English Grammar." This proved effectual for the purpose of procuring for him an education, the advantages of which appear to have been improved with the utmost diligence, preparatory for a removal to the university, which was effected, after a period of two years and two months from the time of his emancipation. Exeter college in Oxford, was the situation to which, by the exertions of his friends, he was now transferred.

The elements of the present work had been already formed. As exercises, while under the care of Mr. Smerdon, to whom the direction of his classical education was committed, the tenth, and in succession, the third, fourth and twelfth satires had been translated. At Oxford he was encouraged to proceed, and gradually completed the first, second, thirteenth, fifteenth, and eleventh satires. It was now proposed to him, to finish the whole, and to publish it by subscription, for the purpose of increasing his means of subsistence. On the first of January, 1781, the subscription was opened.

The gradual advance of his judgment and knowledge, soon disclosed to Mr. Gifford, that he had undertaken his task without a sufficient estimate of his powers for the execution of it. The publication, after the arrival of the period which had been fixed for its appearance, was therefore for the present renounced.

Mr. Gifford's attention to Juvenal, was soon after still further interrupted by an incident far more fortunate to him, than any result of his literary labours would perhaps have proved, his casual introduction to Lord Grosvenor, in consequence of which he was after-

wards invited to reside in the family of that nobleman. His intimate and respectable connection with that family, Mr. Gifford informs us, has now subsisted twenty years; and after twenty years, the long-promised Juvenal has at length made its appearance.

Of the Life of Juvenal, prefixed to this edition, the principal feature is, that the author contends, with considerable probability, for an earlier date of the satires, than that assigned by Dodwell.

The Life of Juvenal is followed by an Essay on the Origin of Satire, and the comparative Merits of the Roman Satirists, which contains much that is judicious, but little, as may well be expected, that is new.

We will now briefly state our opinion respecting the merits of the present work.

Mr. Gifford professes to have taken great pains in the study of the original.

"My first object," says he, "was to become as familiar as possible with my author, of whom I collected every edition that my own interest, or that of my friends could procure, together with such translations as I could discover, either here or abroad; from a careful examination of all these I formed the plan, to which, while I adapted my former labours, I anxiously strove to accommodate my succeeding ones."

It is with pleasure that we subscribe our testimony to Mr. G.'s declaration. He is generally accurate in the apprehension of his author's meaning, and in passages which admit of different interpretations, seems to possess spirit and taste sufficient to direct him to the choice of that which is most congenial with his author's scope, the nature of his subject, and the character of his poetry.

An equal degree of commendation cannot be bestowed on the execution of some other parts of Mr. Gifford's undertaking. A translator of Juvenal needs peculiar and vigorous powers. The original exhibits a constant flow of keen and severe sarcasm, forcible and indignant rebuke, interspersed occasionally with something of sentimental pathos and often with much poetical elegance. Juvenal has also defects. He wrote indeed at a period when taste was in its decline. His pictures and descriptions are sometimes overcharged with circumstances foreign from the author's scope, and which, while they discover the force of his own powers, unpleasantly distract the attention of his readers; his mean-

ing is also sometimes obscured by the harsh periphrases which he adopts, far beyond the established licence of poetical diction.

In the character of his versification Mr. Gifford considerably recedes from his author. The flow of Juvenal's verses is usually firm and vigorous, those of Mr. Gifford are often feeble, and interrupted by ill-placed pauses. To the melody of Pope his stanza makes no pretension, and we might sometimes be tempted to suspect, that he had chosen to imitate the halting variety of Donne, rather than the easy but vigorous flexibility of Dryden.

The diction is often neglected. Mr. Gifford has sometimes followed the direction of Horace, in reviving the dead, and recalling long-forgotten words to their station, but he has not always been fortunate in his selection of those which are really deserving of renovation. One artifice to which he often has recourse in supplying a deficient line, is the repetition of a word, where frequently no particular emphasis is needed.

"What! shall the man who dragg'd three  
uncles, three,  
Tower by in triumph, and look down on me."  
He deplores the necessity to which the wicked want of a rhyme sometimes reduces his excellent predecessor Holyday. The instance which he adduces may perhaps be paralleled by the following:

"Chain'd Neptune, and was wondrous element found,  
For that he branded not the slave he bound."

GIFFORD'S JUVENAL, N. 258.

A happy instance of the timely use of the expletive, occurs in the following lines:

"Enough of these: I hasten to supply  
The rest from Rome; and pass in silence by  
The fall of Mithridates, *sad event*."

The disgusting mixture of ancient and modern manners, which shocks us in many of our old translations, seldom defaces the present work. Yet we read, even here, of peers and sir Pollio.

The licentious and impure expressions of Juvenal, often shock the reader, and must have reduced the translator to a difficult dilemma. Virtue, indeed, is never offended by any insidious delineation of the pleasures of vice, but taste is often violated by translating descriptions of its grossness. Mr. G. thus ex-

plains the principle which he has adopted in the translation of these passages.

"Thus much may suffice for Juvenal: but shame and sorrow on the head of him, who presumes to transfer his grossness into the vernacular tongues. Though I have given him entire, I have endeavoured to make him speak as he would have spoken if he had lived amongst us; when refined with the age, he would have fulminated against impurity, in terms, to which, though delicacy might disavow them, manly decency might listen without offence.

"I have said above, 'that the whole of Juvenal' is here given; this must be understood with a few restrictions. Where vice, of whatever nature, formed the immediate object of reprobation, it has not been spared in the translation; but I have sometimes taken the liberty of omitting an exceptionable line, when it had no apparent connection with the subject of the satire. Some acquaintance with the original will be necessary to discover these lacunæ, which do not, in all, amount to half a page: for the rest, I have no apologies to make."

We shall now proceed to place before our readers some extracts from the present translation, endeavouring to select such passages as shall convey an idea both of the best and worst manners of Mr. G. his success and his failure.

"That angry Justice form'd a dreadful hell,  
That Ghosts in subterraneous regions dwell,  
That hateful SRYX his muddy current rolls,  
And Charon ferries o'er unbodied souls,  
Are now as tales, or idle fables prized,  
By children question'd, and by men despised:

YET THIS, DO THOU BELIEVE. What thoughts, declare,

Ye Scipios, (once the thunderbolts of war!)  
Fabricius, Curius, great Camillus' ghost!

Ye valiant Fabii, in yourselves an host!  
Ye dauntless youths at fatal Cannæ slain!

Spirits of many a brave, and bloody plain!  
Declare, what thoughts your sacred rest invade,

Whene'er ye spy an unbelieving shade?  
—— Ye fly, to expiate the blasting view;

Fling on the pine-tree torch the sulphur  
blue,

And from the dripping bay dash down the  
lustral dew."

"Yet this do thou believe." Sed tu vera puta. On this passage Mr. Gifford remarks, that "it is to be lamented that Juvenal, who appears to be extremely anxious to impress upon the minds of his countrymen the existence of a future state, should yet have given a description of it, which, to speak tenderly, borders upon the mean, if not the ridiculous.

But he is rather to be pitied than blamed. Such doctrines as his creed supplied, he laboured to enforce." Yet it does not necessarily follow from the expressions of Juvenal, that he intended to represent the childish fables of Styx, Charon, and Tartarus, as really true. He might mean nothing more than a poetical ornament. Admit that these are true, and think with what abhorrence the shades of our great forefathers will behold their degenerate posterity. By the expression *talis*, we do not suppose that Juvenal means, as Mr. G. translates, an unbeliever, but an effeminate luxurious Roman, such as the satirist has been describing.

"The drunken bully, ere his man be slain,  
Frets through the night, and courts repose  
in vain,

And while the thirst of blood his bosom burns,  
From side to side, in restless anguish turns;  
Like Peleus' son when, quell'd by Hector's  
hand,

His lov'd Patroclus prest the Phrygian strand.  
There are, who murder as an opiate take,  
And only, when no brawls await them, wake:  
Yet e'en these heroes, flush'd with youth  
and wine,

All contest with the purple robe decline;  
Securely give the lengthen'd train to pass,  
The sun-bright flambeaux, and the lamps of  
brass.

But me, who wander darkly, and alone,  
Or haply guided by the friendly moon,  
Pale lamp of night; or candle's paler beam,  
Whose wick I husband to the last extreme,  
Me he attacks: hear how the quarrel rose;  
If that he deem'd a quarrel, where, heaven  
knows,

He only gives, and I receive, the blows!  
Across my path he strides, and bids me stand,  
I bow obsequious to the dread command;  
What else remains where rage, inflam'd by  
wine,

Is back'd by strength, superior far to mine?  
'Whose lees,' he cries, 'have swell'd your  
bloat'd maw?

'Where did you, rogue, to-night your bean-  
husks gnaw?

'And with what cobbler club, to wag your  
cheeks

'On dainty sheep's-head porridge, and  
chopp'd leeks?

'What! no reply? speak, or be sure to feel

'The immediate greeting of my wrathful  
heel—

'Your name? your station? At what temple  
door

'Crouch ye, collecting farthings for the poor?'  
Whether I strive to sooth him, or retire,  
I'm beaten, just the same; then full of ire,  
He drags me to the bar, transfers the fault,  
And impudently sues me for the assault.

Such law, such liberty, enjoy the poor!  
Compell'd, though wrong'd, forgiveness to  
implore,

And creeping off, that mercy to admire,  
Which sets them free with yet a bone entire!"

P. 103. SAT. iii. 419—457.

From the fourth satire we extract part of the diverting scene of Domitian's counsellors, assembled in grand debate, to decide the cookery of a fish.

"None dwelt so largely on the turbot's size,  
Or rais'd with more applause his wandering  
eyes,

But to the left (O treacherous want of sight!)  
He pour'd his praise;—the fish was on the  
right.

Thus would he at the fencer's matches sit,  
And shout with rapture at some fancied hit;  
And thus applaud the stage-machinery, where  
The youths were rapt aloft, and tost in air.

"Nor fell Viento short:—as if possest,  
With all Bellona's rage, his labouring breast,  
Burst forth in prophecy; 'I see, I see,  
The omens of some glorious victory!  
Some powerful monarch captur'd: lo, he  
rears,

Horrent, on every side, his pointed spears!  
Some chief hurl'd headlong from the British  
car—

The fish is foreign; foreign is the war!"

"Proceed, great Seer, and, what remains  
untold,

The turbot's age, and country, next unfold;  
So shall thy lord his fortunes better know,  
And where the conquest waits, and who the  
foe.

"The Emperor now the important ques-  
tion put:

'How say ye, fathers? SHALL THE FISH BE  
CUT?"

'O far be that disgrace,' Montanus cries,

'No, let us form a pot of amplest size,

Within whose slender rim, the fish, dread  
Sire!

May spread its vast circumference entire.

Bring, bring the temper'd clay, and let it feel  
The quick gyrations of the plastic wheel;

But Caesar, thus forewarn'd, have special care,  
And bid your potters follow you to war.'

He spoke: a murmur through the assembly  
ran,

Applauses of the speech, so worthy of the  
man.

Vers'd in the old court-luxury, he knew

The feasts of Nero, and his midnight crew;  
And how, when potent draughts had fir'd the  
brain,

The jaded taste was spur'd to gorge again.

And, in our days, none understood so well

The science of good eating; he could tell,

At the first smack, whether his oysters fed

On the Rutupian, or the Lucrine bed,

And from a crab, or lobster's colour, name

The country, nay the spot, from whence it  
came.

"Here closed the solemn farce. The fathers rise,  
And each, submissive, from the presence hies :—  
Pale, trembling wretches, whom the chief, in sport,  
Had dragg'd, astonish'd, to the Alban court,  
As if the stern Sicambri were in arms,  
Or the fierce Catti threaten'd new alarms ;  
As if ill news, by flying posts, had come,  
And gathering nations sought the fall of Rome.  
"O ! that such scenes, disgraceful at the most,  
Had all those years of tyranny engrost,  
In which he daily drain'd, by none withstood,  
The city of its best, and noblest blood !—  
And yet he fell ! he fell ! for when the herd  
Saw his dire cruelty to them transferr'd,  
They seized the murderer, wet with Lamian gore,  
And instant hurl'd him to the infernal shore !"

SAT. iv. 169 to the end.

The following is part of the expostulation with the parasite.

"If ——— by reiterated scorn made bold,  
Thy mind can still its shameless tenor hold,  
Still think the greatest blessing earth can give,  
Is solely at another's board to live ;  
If, for this sordid purpose, thou can'st hear,  
Unmov'd, the open taunt, the whisper'd jeer ;  
Can'st brook what sneaking Galba would have spurn'd,  
And mean Sarmenius with a frown return'd ;  
At Caesar's haughty board dependants both ;  
I scarce would take thy evidence on oath.  
"The belly's fed with little cost : yet grant  
Thou should'st unhappily, that little want,  
Some vacant bridge might surely still be found,  
Some high-way side, where, grovelling on the ground,  
Thy shivering limbs compassion's sigh might wake,  
And gain an alms for 'Charity's sweet sake !'  
What ! can a meal thus sauced, deserve thy care ?  
Is hunger so importunate ? when there,  
There in thy wretched stand thou may'st, my friend,  
On casual scraps more honestly depend,  
With chattering teeth toil o'er thy wretched treat,  
And gnaw the crusts that dogs refuse to eat."  
"For first, of this be sure : whenever thy lord  
Thinks proper to invite thee to his board,  
He pays, or thinks he pays, the total sum,  
Of all thy pains, past, present, and to come.  
Behold the meed of servitude ! The great  
Reward their humble followers with a treat,  
And count it current coin : they count it such,  
And though it be but little, think it much.

If, therefore, after two whole months, he send  
A billet to his long-neglected friend,  
(Though but to fill a vacant couch,) and say  
You ——— Master Trebius, dine with me to-day ;  
Thy joys o'erflow : ——— Trebius for THIS must rise,  
(The dew of sleep yet lingering on his eyes,) While the faint stars yet gleam, and round the pole  
The wain of slow Boötes seems to roll ;  
Trembling, lest every levee should be o'er,  
And the full court retiring from the door !"

SAT. v. 1—40.

The sixth satire is the longest, one of the most reprehensible, and one of the most spirited of Juvenal's pieces, which Dryden says that he was himself compelled to translate, because "no one else would do it." The following is a specimen of Mr. Gifford's version:

"But why's Cesennia then, you say, ador'd,  
And call'd the first of women, by her lord ?  
Because she brought him thousands. Such the price,  
It cost the lady to be free from vice !  
You think the good man for her beauty pin'd,  
And, like a true Arcadian, puled and whin'd ;  
No, 'twas her ample dower that touch'd his heart,  
That shot the fatal, the resistless dart.  
She brought enough her liberty to buy,  
And tip the wink before her husband's eye :  
A wealthy wanton, to a miser wed,  
Has all the privilege of a widow's bed.  
"But then, Sertorius what I say disproves,  
For though his Bibula was poor, he loves.  
True ! but examine him, and, on my life,  
You'll find he loves the beauty, not the wife.  
Let but a wrinkle on her forehead rise,  
And time obscure the lustre of her eyes,  
Let but the moisture leave her flaccid skin,  
And her teeth blacken, and her cheeks grow thin,  
And you shall hear the insulting freedman say,  
'Pack up your trumpery, madam, and away,  
'Nay, bustle, bustle ; here you give offence,  
'With snuffing night and day ;' take your nose hence !"

SAT. vi. 203—226.

The seventh satire is a picture of the state of literature, and the fortune of its professors in the poet's age, which contains many traits not inapplicable to modern times. The following is the lawyer's portrait:

"True ; but the breed is slothful, fond of ease,  
And solitude : then tell me, if you please,  
What gain the LAWYER's active life affords,  
His sack of papers, and his war of words ?



Heavens! how he bellows in our tortured ears;

But then, then chiefly, when the client hears,  
Or one (more anxious than his fellows) come  
To prove the credit of a doubtful sum,  
Twitches his elbow:—then his passions rise!  
Then forth he puffs th' immeasurable lies  
From his swollen lungs! then the white foam  
appears,

And, drivelling down his beard, his vest be-  
smears!

Take now the balance, and the profits weigh—  
And first, th' accumulated fortunes lay  
Of five-score lawyers there; then, place me  
here,

The riches of a favourite charioteer,  
And see which sinks! 'The generals take  
their place;

Thou, my poor Ajax, rising with pale face,  
Stepp'st forth to plead a trembling client's  
cause,

Before Judge Jolthead—learned in the laws.  
Now stretch thy throat, unhappy man! now  
raise

Thy voice, that, when thou'rt hoarse, a  
bunch of bays,

Stuck in thy garret-window, may declare  
What a victorious pleader nestles there!

O glorious hour! but what's thy fee, mean-  
while?

A rope of shrivell'd onions from the Nile,  
A rusty ham, a jar of broken sprats,  
And wine, the refuse of our country vats;  
Five flaggons for four causes! if thou hold,  
Though this indeed be rare; a piece of gold;  
The brethren, as *per contract*, on thee fall,  
And share the prize, solicitors and all."

SAT. vii. 165—196.

The readers of the following lines  
would scarcely suppose that they were  
to be found in an English poet of the  
nineteenth century:

"What all amort, good Nævolus! O say,  
What means this shew of grief from day to  
day,

This copy of flay'd Marsyas? what dost thou  
With such a length of face, and such a  
brow," &c.

SAT. ix. 1—4.

In compliance with the principle  
which we proposed to follow in the  
choice of extracts, we insert the follow-  
ing passage:

"Hang out your laurels, and of triumph  
full,

Lead to the Capitol a milk-white bull;

For lo! where great Sejanus by the throng,  
A joyful spectacle, is dragg'd along.

What an ill-favour'd wretch! well, for my  
part,

I never lov'd him—that is, in my heart.

But tell me; why was he adjudg'd to bleed?

And who discover'd, and who prov'd the  
deed?"

"Prov'd tush! a huge epistle came, they  
say,

From Capreae."—"Good! I'm satisfied: but  
pray,

What think the people of their favourite's  
fate?"

They follow fortune as of old, and hate  
With their whole souls the victim of the  
state."

SAT. x. 89—101.

The following description of the tor-  
ments of conscious guilt, is a noble pas-  
sage in the original, and Mr. G.'s trans-  
lation of it affords a specimen of his  
best manner:

"But tell me; why must those be thought  
to scape,

Whom guilt, array'd in every dreadful shape,  
Still urges, and whom conscience, ne'er

asleep,

Wounds with incessant strokes, not loud but  
deep,

While the vex'd mind, her own tormentor,  
plies

A scorpion scourge, unmark'd by human  
eyes!

Trust me, no punishment the poets feign,  
Can match the fierce, th' unutterable pain,  
He feels, who night and day, devoid of rest,  
Carries his own accuser in his breast.

"A Spartan once the oracle besought,  
To solve a scruple which perplex'd his  
thought,

And plainly tell him, if he might forswear  
A purse of gold, intrusted to his care.

Shuddering, the Pythia answer'd—'Waverer,  
no:

Nor shalt thou, for the doubt, unpunish'd  
go.'

With that, he hasten'd to restore the trust;  
But fear alone, not virtue, made him just:

Hence he soon prov'd the oracle divine,  
And all the answer worthy of the shrine;

For plagues pursu'd his race without delay,  
And swept them from the earth, like dust,

away.

By such dire sufferings did the wretch atone  
The crime of meditated fraud alone!

For, in the eye of heaven, a wicked deed  
Devis'd, is done; how, then, if he proceed

To perfect his device, how will the offend-  
er  
speed?

O, then perpetual fears his peace destroy,  
And rob the social hour of all its joy:

At table seated, with parch'd mouth he chaws  
The loitering food, which heaves beneath his  
jaws;

Spits out the produce of the Albanian hill,  
Mellow'd by age; you bring him mellow'd  
still,

And lo! such wrinkles on his brow appear,  
As if you brought Falernian vinegar

"At night, should sleep his harass'd  
limbs compose,

And steal him, one short moment, from his  
woes,

Then dreams invade; sudden, before his eyes,  
The violated fane and altar rise;  
And, what disturbs him most, thy awful  
shade,

In more than mortal majesty array'd,  
Frowns on the wretch, alarms his treacher-  
ous rest,  
And wrings the dreadful secret from his  
breast.

"These, these, are they who tremble and  
turn pale,

At the first mutterings of the hollow gale,  
Who sink with terror at the transient glare  
Of meteors, glancing through the turbid air.  
This is not chance, they cry; this hideous  
crash

Is not the war of winds; nor this dread flash,  
Th' encounter of dark clouds; but blasting  
fire;

Charg'd with the wrath of heav'n's insulted  
sire.

That clap, at a safe distance, dies away;  
Shuddering, they wait the next, with more  
dismay,

As if the short reprieve were only sent,  
To add new horrors to their punishment.

Yet more; when the first symptoms of  
disease,

When feverish heats their restless members  
seize,

They think the plague by wrath divine be-  
stow'd,

And feel, in every pang, th' avenging God.  
Rack'd at the thought, in hopeless grief they  
lie,

And dare not tempt the mercy of the sky;  
For what can such expect! what victim slay,  
That is not worthier far to live, than they!

"With what a rapid change of fancy roll  
The varying passions of the sinners' soul!

Bold to offend, they scarce commit th' offence,  
Ere their minds labour with an innate sense  
Of right and wrong;—not long, for nature  
still,

Incapable of change, and fix'd in ill,  
Rekurs to her old habits: never yet  
Could sinner to his sin a period set.—

When did the flush of modest blood inflame  
The cheek, once harden'd to the sense of  
shame?

Or when th' offender, since the birth of time,  
Retire, contented with a single crime?"

SAT. XIII. 262—336.

Mr. Gifford informs us, that in the  
present work are contained no allusions,

covert or open, to the follies or vices of  
modern times; nor has the dignity of  
the original been prostituted, in a single  
instance, to the gratification of private  
spleen. This is a laudable instance of  
forbearance in the author of the *Baviad*  
and *Mæviad*, who, in some cases, has  
certainly discovered no remarkable ten-  
derness of reprehension, or even candour  
of judgment.

The notes annexed to this edition are  
numerous, and frequently instructive  
and entertaining. There is one feature  
which sometimes appears in them, of  
which we cannot but disapprove, a dis-  
position to indulge a sneer at the ex-  
perience of verbal criticism; a piece of  
pedantry, as it may properly be termed,  
which we thought had almost gone out  
of repute. Of those critics who are  
termed verbal, some have been men of  
the amplest powers of mind, and their  
labours for the restoration of the Greek  
and Latin authors to a state of purity  
have been eminently successful, and  
highly useful.

To conclude, we consider Mr. Gifford  
as a man possessed of vigorous natural  
talents, and estimable for his meritorious  
exertions in retrieving the consequences  
of an education originally neglected.  
With regard to his qualifications for his  
present undertaking, we regard him as  
well acquainted with the meaning, and  
not ignorant of the spirit of his author;  
we have no doubt, as he himself assures  
us, that he writes verses with great faci-  
lity; but we sometimes suspect that he  
has forgotten the salutary maxim, *festina  
lenté*; and that he has either, in many  
parts, neglected the execution of his  
work, or by his subsequent efforts has  
not been able entirely to remedy the  
defects of his education, and to acquire  
that delicacy of taste, that united energy,  
harmony, and propriety of language,  
which are, perhaps, seldom attained,  
otherwise than by an early familiarity  
with the established models of good  
writing.

## CHAPTER VII.

## MODERN LANGUAGES.

THE last year affords nothing in this department particularly worthy of notice. Jossé has published a selection from the Spanish authors, but has not exhibited that taste, and extent of research, which is absolutely necessary for the creditable performance of such an undertaking. Mr. Neuman's Spanish and English dictionary, though, upon the whole, perhaps, the best that we have, is still capable of many improvements. Lindley Murray has presented to the public the eighth edition of his grammar, in which he shews a laudable anxiety to render his book more and more worthy of the high reputation by which it is honourably distinguished.

**ART. I.** *A general pronouncing and explanatory Dictionary of the English Language, to which is added a complete Vocabulary of proper Names.* By G. FULTON and G. KNIGHT, teachers of English. 12mo. pp. 420.

HALF a dozen words will suffice to shew in what degree this Dictionary is likely to facilitate the acquirement of a just pronunciation of the English language:

"Demurely, *dé-mûr'ez*, *ad.* with affected modesty.  
 "Gauger, *gâ'ez*, *n.* one who gauges vessels.  
 "Mitigation, *mit é-gâ'shun*, *n.* a softening.  
 "Series, *sê'ez*, *n.* sequence; succession; order."

**ART. II.** *English Grammar, adapted to the different Classes of Readers, with an Appendix containing Rules and Observations for assisting the more advanced Student to write with Perspicuity and Accuracy.* By LINDLEY MURRAY. The eighth edition, with considerable improvements. 8vo. pp. 294.

MR. Murray's Grammar, Exercises, and Key to the Exercises, form altogether by far the most compleat and judicious analysis of the English language, that has hitherto been published. The rules for composition are excellent, the examples are selected with taste and judgment, and the execution of the whole

displays an unusual degree of critical acuteness and sagacity.

Besides a general revision of the style, this edition is distinguished from the preceding by several additions and alterations, which give the work a fresh claim on the public patronage and esteem.

**ART. III.** *A new System of English Grammar; or English so illustrated as to facilitate the Acquisition of other Languages, whether ancient or modern; with an Appendix, containing a complete System of Persing.* By R. S. SKILLERN, A.M. small 8vo. pp. 190.

IT appears from the title page that this work was not drawn up simply for the purpose of teaching English, but for the purpose of teaching it in such a way as to facilitate the acquisition of other languages. The system, therefore, is accommodated as much as possible to the established mode of teaching other languages: the general terms are adopted, and in short it wears the same countenance as the grammars of other lan-

guages. In refutation of the vulgar belief that an accurate knowledge of English is not attainable, but by a prior acquaintance with Latin, Mr. Skillern has succeeded in his attempt to exemplify the science of grammar by an analysis of his own tongue.

We have looked over this grammar with care, and do not hesitate to give it our recommendation.

**ART. IV.** *English Composition, in a Method entirely new, with various short contrasted Examples, from celebrated Writers, the whole adapted to common Capacities, and designed as an easy Help to form a good Style, and to acquire a Taste for the Works of the best Authors.* By the Reverend G. G. SCRAGGS. To which are added, an Essay on the Advantages of understanding Composition, and a List of select Books for English Readers, with Remarks. Small 8vo pp. 177.

"THE subsequent little work is meant to contain every thing important on the subject within itself, and will save time, trouble, and expence. Each part of speech is first fully explained in a very plain manner, and then, instead of long complicated rules of syntax, the principal things respecting grammar and composition, are reduced to a few simple rules, with examples to the respective parts of speech, and also to the rhetorical figures. By this new and easy method, scholars are reminded, and others encouraged to improve their minds as well as their style, who perhaps would not have been induced to do either by the common, tedious, and perplexing mode. One remark may here be made, that as the construction of the English tongue is very different from the learned languages, therefore no one should expect to find in this work grammatical rules exactly similar to the latin syntax.

"Such being the general plan of this work,

it is evidently more easy than any hitherto published."

We have transcribed this passage with all its italic eye-traps, and certainly could not have given a more flattering account of the work than Mr. Scraggs himself has thought proper to bestow on its merits. Indeed we are obliged to pronounce it but a shallow performance: Mr. Scraggs has scraped together from various writers a few rules on the subjects of grammar and composition, with which it is unquestionably necessary that boys and girls should become acquainted. When Mr. Scraggs turns critic and presumes to correct the style of an Addison, a Swift, a Bolingbroke, a Blair, &c. &c. &c. he frequently betrays a want of taste and acumen which it had been more prudent to have concealed.

**ART. V.** *A new Dictionary of the Spanish and English Languages.* By HENRY NEWMAN. 8vo. 2 vols.

OF dictionaries and grammars the newest may generally be considered as the best. We have used this dictionary and found no reason to be dissatisfied. The Spanish scholar who wishes to read the older and better writers in that language should consult the older dictionaries; he will find in Minsheu's, many

words which have since been very unwarrantably discarded as obsolete: for the purposes of commerce this is far better adapted. A new sale dictionary of this language was indeed much wanted, for it is not possible to make a worse than Baretti's.

**ART. VI.** *A Key to Chambaud's Exercises, being a correct Translation of the various Exercises contained in that Book.* By E. J. VOISIN. 8vo. pp. 230.

THIS work is expressly intended to save tutors and governesses the labour of a little attention and trouble; so that by its help a person of very humble acquirements in the French language may set up for an instructor. The successful application of the rules given by Chambaud for writing his exercises or themes with correctness, requires more care and time than many tutors or many pupils are willing to bestow; both parties will therefore gladly avail themselves of the

industry of Mr. Voisin, and hence arises the probability of a misapplication of the work which we hope the author was not aware of. Although this may be of service to such as are rash enough to venture by themselves into the mazes of the French language, yet it ought to be carefully secluded from the reach of his pupils, by every master who is unwilling to lay before them an irresistible temptation to idleness and deception.

**ART. VII.** *El Tesoro Español ó Biblioteca Portatil Española, &c.* Por DON AGUSTIN LUIS JOSSE. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 685-622.

THE Spanish language has been cultivated in this country almost solely for commercial purposes. Cervantes in-

deed has the rare fortune to be appreciated abroad as highly as at home; but except Cervantes, the Spanish authors

were scarcely known even by name in England, till Mr. Hayley gave some celebrity to the Araucana. This is not to be wondered at when we consider the wretched and degraded state of Spain. It is, however, somewhat hard that the old judgment should be reversed, and the fathers suffer for the sins of the children.

A compilation like the present, if well executed, would be the more valuable, because no work like Tiraboschi's or our Warton's exists, to assist the scholar. The land wherein he would travel has not even been mapped out. This defect Mr. Jossé might in some measure have supplied by following Headley's example, and giving an account of the authors whom he has quoted. The *Par naso Español* would have supplied him with the whole poetical biography, and where this guide failed him, the *bibliotheca* of Nicolas Antonio, though but a meagre dictionary of names and titles, would at least have given him dates. This omission we consider as a material defect. The literature of every period partakes of, and in its turn influences the character of that period. To appreciate an author rightly, and indeed fully to understand him, we must know the age wherein he wrote. Mr. Jossé has grouped the writers of all ages together, without chronological notice or arrangement; and the reader is left to judge of Boscan and Melendez, of Luis de Granada and Isla, as though they had written at the same era, and with the same advantages.

The prose selections are chiefly from Luis de Granada, Quevedo, Cervantes, Solis, Lorenzo Gracian, Feyjoo and Isla.

Luis de Granada, the most eloquent of the Spanish divines, was born 1504, in the city whence he afterwards took his name. His parents were in such abject poverty, that the mother supported herself by washing and baking for the Dominican convent, and the child fed with the mendicants at its gate. Accident brought him forward. One day he quarreled with another boy in the streets, and they came to blows. The tumult brought the marquis de Mondexar to a window, who had them parted, and asked Luis what he could say for himself for causing such a disturbance. The boy defended himself so ably and eloquently that the governor enquired who

he was, and provided for his liberal education. When he was old enough he took the habit in the convent of Santa Cruz la Real, where his mother worked, and obtained permission during his novitiate, to share with her his allowance of food.

The friar soon became eminent in his order, and gradually rose to offices of trust by his zeal and talents. His personal austerities were excessive. Some young men of rank passing his convent at night, heard the sound of the cord wherewith he was disciplining himself, and his groans. It affected them so much, that they turned back; for, says the biographer, they were not going about the service of God. The *cilicio* which he commonly wore was of hair-cloth, more than commonly rigorous, but for Lent and particular fasts, he had them of brass or iron wire. These follies might, perhaps, have made him a saint, if his eloquence and genius had not raised him to a more active character. After various promotions he was made provincial of the Dominicans in Portugal; became the friend and counsellor of John III.; and after his death confessor to the queen, who acted as regent during the minority of Sebastian. In this rank, and with the reputation of the most eloquent writer of his time, Luis still preserved the exterior of poverty and humility with a pardonable, and according to his belief, an edifying ostentation. One habit served him twelve years, one hat forty. A friend pressed him to accept another habit, urging, that his own was in rags: he answered, I wore a worse when I used to wait for broth at the convent door. He sent a large sum, from the profits of his works, to that convent, and requested they would enter it in their books, as an alms from brother Luis de Granada, the son of their washerwoman.

He lived till the advanced age of 84. "When the feebleness of childhood came upon him, when the tongue had no pleasure in taste, when the teeth were gone or moved loosely in his head, when the stomach could no longer digest, when all was pain and sorrow, none, says Luis de Sousa, can blame him if he relaxed somewhat of those austerities which he had practised from his youth up." An unhappy circumstance at Lisbon, wherein he was interested, broke him down, and is said to have hastened his death.



This circumstance is one which catholic writers chuse only to hint at. A Dominican nun at Lisbon, by name Maria of the annunciation, affirmed that she was daily visited by Christ, and informed the provincial of her order, that he had promised to appear to her on St. Thomas Aquinas's day, and confer upon her the greatest honour which any creature was capable of receiving. On that day accordingly, when all the nuns and friars were assembled at matins, Christ crucified appeared to her, and in the sight of the whole congregation, inflicted all the wounds of his head, side, hands, and feet, upon the same parts of her body. "She had two and thirty wounds, such as thorns make, on her head, and in her side a gash resembling a spear wound, and on her hands and feet the wounds were of a triangular figure, as if made by a nail." The rags which she applied to them on Thursdays, had always the five wounds miraculously imprinted in the shape of a cross. The pope had one, the king of Spain one, and one was sent to the Empress, to be laid in her bed when she lay in. Philip II. had the royal standard of the armada blessed by this woman. Luis de Granada was one of those who testified to the truth of these miracles. He and the provincial, and other eye witnesses were examined by the inquisition; their report was favourable, and Pope Gregory XIII. wrote her a letter of congratulation. At length the political object of this artifice was discovered, and Philip was no longer a dupe when the nun began to assert the right of the Braganzan family to the crown of Portugal: he bade the inquisition re-examine the business, and the whole was pronounced to be imposture. This was the *unhappy circumstance* which hastened Luis de Granada's death; but he was in his extreme old age, and was, probably, like Fisher, a dupe, not an accomplice.

The works of this father, if we may believe his biographer, have been translated into nine languages: in the last edition they fill nineteen octavo volumes. As he is the most eloquent of the Spanish divines, we will translate a few of the passages which Mr. Jossé has selected.

"What a motive for thy gratitude, is this table of the world, so rich and so abundant, which the Lord hath created for thy service!

Every thing under heaven is designed for man, or for those things which are for his service; for if he eats not the insects that fly through the air, he eats the bird who devours it; if he feeds not upon the grass of the field, the flock feeds there which is for his food. Stretch thine eyes over the whole world, and thou wilt see how wide and spacious are the bounds of thy possessions; how rich and abundant thine inheritance. That which walks upon the earth, that which swims in the water, that which flies through the air, and that which shines in the heaven, are thine. All these things are the benefit of God, the works of his providence, the manifestations of his beauty, the testimonies of his mercy, the sparks of his goodness, and the preachers of his bounty. Look then how many preachers he sends to thee, that thou mayest know him! All things that are in heaven and on earth tell thee that thou shouldst love him, and cease not to tell it to all, that none may be excused.

"Oh if thou hadst ears to hear the voice of created things, without doubt thou wouldst see how all with one accord tell thee to love God, because all in their silence tell thee that they were created for thy service, that thou shouldst love and serve the common Lord for thyself and them. The heaven saith, I give thee light by day and night, that thou mayest not walk in darkness; and I send thee various influences to produce all things, that thou mayest not die for hunger. The air saith, I give thee the breath of life, I refresh thee and temper thine inward heat lest it should consume thee; I have in my extent the various kinds of birds, that they may delight thine eyes with their beauty, thine ears with their song, and thy palate with their flavour. The water saith, I serve thee with the early and the latter rains each in their season, with rivers and fountains to refresh thee; I produce the infinite kinds of fishes that thou mayest eat them; I moisten thy seeds and thy trees that they may support thee; I give thee, in fine, a short and compendious way through the sea, whereby thou mayest make use of the whole world, and unite all foreign riches with thine own. What saith the earth, who is the common mother of all things, the general storehouse of all natural causes! I as a mother carry thee on my back, I produce thy food for thee, and support thee with the fruit of my entrails; I treat and communicate with all the elements, and receive from all, influences and good offices for thy service; I, finally, like a good mother, neither in life nor in death forsake thee; for when living I bear thee on my back and support thee, and when dead I give thee a resting place, and receive thee in my lap. In a word, the whole world with a loud voice is crying to thee, lo how great is the love which my Lord and Maker beareth thee, who crea-

ted me for thee, and for himself wills that thou shouldest serve thyself, in serving and loving him who created me for thee, and thee for himself. All nature is continually crying out to thee these three words, *accipe, redde, cave*; receive! repay! beware! receive the bounties of God, repay the debt of gratitude, and beware of punishment if thou payest it not."—Vol. i. p. 1.

"The just man hath no cause to fear death; he instead dies praising and thanking God, because his troubles then end, and his happiness begins. He does not fear death, because he has feared God; and he who fears the Lord has nothing else to fear. He does not fear death, because he has feared life. He does not fear death, because he has spent his whole life in learning to die, and in preparing to die; and the man who is well prepared hath nothing to fear from his enemy. He does not fear death, because he has done nothing else in life than seek helpers and protectors in that hour by his virtues and good works. He does not fear death, because he hath won favour with the judge, and made him propitious for that time. Finally, he does not fear death, because the just death is not death, but sleep; not death, but change; not death, but the last day of trouble; not death, but the road to life, and the ladder to immortality; because he knows that death passed through the vein of life, lost the better savour of death, and acquired the sweetness of life."—Vol. i. 5.

"What thing is more esteemed than the body of a prince while he liveth? and what more despised, more vile than the same body when dead? Where is all their former majesty, that pomp, that authority, that trembling of all before him, that speaking to him on the knees, and with such reverence? How soon is all that pageantry vanished, as though it had been the creature of a dream, or the business of a stage-play, which in an hour is at an end! Presently the shroud is prepared, the richest, the only jewel which can be taken from this life, the jewel with which the richest of men is paid at that hour. Presently a pit is opened, some seven or eight feet long, even though it were for the great Alexander, for whom the world was not wide enough; and with only this the body is content; there they give it a habitation for ever; there it takes its perpetual mansion in company with the other dead; there the worms come forth to receive it; there, finally, they deposit it in a poor winding-sheet, the countenance covered with a face-cloth, and the hands and feet tied, of a truth full vainly, for he is secure then, he will not fly from his prison, nor defend himself from any thing! There the earth receives him in her lap, the bones of the departed bid him hail in peace, the dust of his forefathers embraces him, and invites him to that table and to that house which is appointed for all living; and the last honour which the world

can do him at that hour, is to throw over him a cloak of earth, and to cover him well with it, that none may see his corruption and his dishonour. O the avarice of the living and the poverty of the dead! How can he covet so much for so short a life, who expects to be satisfied with so little at that hour?

"At last the grave-digger takes his spade and rammer, and begins to turn over bones upon bones, and to beat down the earth, so that the fairest face in the world, that which hath been most pranked, and guarded most carefully from the sun and air, will be there under the rammer of the rude grave-digger, who will not scruple to drive it upon the forehead and break the skull, that it may be well assorted with the earth. Upon this gentleman, whom while he lived the air might not touch, nor a hair fall upon his cloaths, but that the brush came presently to remove it, they heap a dunghill of filth; and this other one who went so full of amber and sweet scents, shall see himself covered with corruption and worms. O wretch that I am! for what are riches if I am here to be stript so bare? for what are court dresses and ornaments if I am here to be so hideous? for what are dainties and festivals if I am here to be the food of worms? O pomp and vanity and glory of the world, whither is it that ye go to end?"—Vol. i. 7.

Mr. Jossé has selected little from this author, and his selections, in general, are made with so little judgment, that they may be looked upon as chance specimens. Luis de Granada is evidently a redundant writer; amplification and antithesis are his favourite figures. His talents were to declaim, not to reason, to overbear not to persuade. He attempts not to win his point by the regular approaches of European tactics, but like an Asiatic conqueror bears away his audience by the multitude of arguments, and the continuousness of attack. His faults are obvious; but it must be remembered, that the works of an orator are designed for immediate effect; he is to consult the passions and prejudices of his hearers, not the taste of a distant reader, or the judgment of after ages. Popularity is, and ought to be his aim and object; for in proportion as he is popular, he will be useful; and, perhaps, popularity is to be obtained by the very faults which criticism would most condemn.

The extracts from Quevedo are all taken from his life of Brutus; a work full of conceits, and antithesis, and point, characteristic only of his faults,

not of his genius or his opinions. In such passages as these, who would recognise the author of the Visions?

The first oration of Brutus, after having slain Cæsar:

"Romans! Julius Cæsar is dead. I have slain him. The life which I have taken from him, is that which he had taken from your liberty; if it was a crime to tyrannize over the republic, it must be a virtue in me to restore it. I put him to death in the senate, that he might not put the senate to death. He perished by the hands of the senators, the armed laws struck him; it was a sentence, not a conspiracy; Cæsar was condemned, and no one murdered him. In this action only they can be criminal, who judge us criminals. I have brought to the capitol, not my life, but these arguments, for when you have heard them, I should wrong you if I feared you."—Vol. i. 185.

"It is a heavy sin to kill any man, but to kill a king is an execrable wickedness. It is a heinous treason not only to lay hands upon him, but to speak of his person with little reverence, or to think of his actions with little respect. The good king must be loved, the bad one must be endured. God bears with the tyrant, though it is he who can chastise and deface him; and shall not the vassal bear with him, whose duty it is to obey? The arm of God needs not our daggers for his chasteners, nor our hands for his vengeance."—Vol. i. 184.

The best works of Quevedo are sufficiently known in England. Mr. Jossé has only plucked weeds, where he might have gathered flowers. The extracts from Cervantes are exclusively from Don Quixote. Solís is the only historian quoted; a writer, who certainly deserved no such distinction. Father Isla is the author of *Friar Gerund*; a satire which Baretti translated, but which was too local ever to become popular out of its own country. Lorenzo Gracian is a worthless writer, whose *Criticón* is to be found at every book-stall in Spain. The only other prose author, from whom many extracts are given, is Feyjoo; of whom Brissot said, that he was capable of interesting and instructing foreign countries, though a monk and a Spaniard. There is more of the characteristic impertinence of his nation in this saying, than Brissot usually discovered; but like most sarcastic criticisms, it contains more wit than truth. Feyjoo was a man eminently useful in his own time and country, and who could not have been so useful at any other period, or in any other place. With little genius, and little taste, he possessed good sense,

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directed by good intentions, and industriously employed. His object was to weed out the superstitions of his country, but he did not, like Voltaire, pluck up indiscriminately the tares and the wheat, anxious that his countrymen should begin to think he reasoned with credulity, but never insulted faith. There are innumerable miracles which the catholic church has never ventured to authenticate, and never chosen to contradict. These Feyjoo attacked safely, and the more so, because at the same time he laboured to disprove other falsehoods, the fictions of history, the inventions of living travellers, and the superstitions of the peasantry. It was believed, that about 100 leagues west of the Canaries, there was an island called St. Brandons; "very delightful and fertile," says Mandelslo, "and inhabited by Christians, yet can it not be said what language they speak, nor how the island came to be peopled; the Spaniards of the Canaries have often endeavoured to find out the said island, but whether it be that it is always covered with a thick mist, which hinders it from being discovered, or that the current of the water thereabouts was so strong, that it is a hard matter to land thereat;" none could ever reach it, but all certainly believed that there was such an island. Feyjoo wrote an essay to explain and destroy this error. In another he exposed the folly of believing, that the valley of Batuecas, in Estremadura, was inhabited by sorcerers and savages. This could not offend the most bigotted inquisitor. With the same security he ventured to deny the existence of the Wandering Jew; to doubt that the kings of France could cure the king's evil by their touch; or that the *ampulla* at Rheims had descended from heaven; and to prove, that St. Athanasius had not ridden upon the devil's back to Rome, to make the pope confess a deadly sin. Let it not be thought, that to explode such errors was useless. From such propositions, the *reductio ad absurdum* was easy, but the corollary was of extensive application. The abbé Baruel would rank Feyjoo among the illuminés. No man suspects another's veracity so readily as a liar.

Feyjoo kept pace with the progress of science in France and England. The bigots attempted to raise an outcry against him, from which his caution, rather

Oo

than his rank as master-general of the benedictines, preserved him. Two miserable friars reproached him for admiring the heretic Bacon; he quoted, in his defence, pope Benedict XIV. who had applauded Bacon in his book *de beatificatione et canonizatione servorum Dei*, and the laws of the inquisition, which permitted honourable epithets to be applied to heretics, when limited to any particular science or quality. "As to call Buchanan an elegant poet, Henry Stephens an erudite Greek scholar, or Tycho Brahe an excellent astronomer, for these are gifts and excellencies which God imparts even to those who are without the pale of the church." All physical questions, wise and foolish, were referred to Feyjoo. He was consulted about the cure of diseases by sympathy, or by the transfusion of blood: cases of witchcraft were submitted to him; these he ably confuted: the appearance of armies fighting in the air, he attributes to the aurora borealis: showers of blood he explains by butterflies, upon the authority of Peiresc. Concerning incubi he gives a more cautious opinion; that the devils certainly can assume a human appearance, and perform human actions, but that all the facts affirmed of their having done so, are doubtful.

But the following is the most curious question that, perhaps, was ever propounded to a philosopher. In 1736, a child was born at Medina Sidonia, with two heads, four arms, two trunks, but single below the middle. As the birth was dangerous, one of the feet which made its appearance first, was baptized. Upon this two questions arose, and were referred to Feyjoo for solution. Was the child one or two individuals? if two, did the baptism of the foot regenerate both?

Because the animal had two hearts, two lungs, two brains, and because similar monsters, who had lived long enough, had discovered a double will, the Benedictine concludes in favour of his plurality. As to the baptism, in common with all Christians, he earnestly wishes it may be valid for both souls; but as a decision in this world cannot affect their fate in the other, he proceeds to examine the case with all strict reasoning. The priest who took the foot, imagined that it belonged to only one body and only one soul, and with this belief pronounced *Ego te baptizo*. Neither verbally nor vir-

tually could he mean otherwise; *nihil volitum quin praeognitum*, the intention cannot reach any object which the understanding that directed it does not comprehend. But the understanding of the minister which directed his intention, extended not to two infants or individuals, but to one only; therefore it could not affect both.

Yet there appears an analogy in the case of a priest who consecrates the wafer; he knows not whether there be two or three wafers when he consecrates all. This analogy, however, is not just. He consecrates the wafers, not knowing their number, in a state of doubt. But no doubt existed in this baptism. The priest believed the singleness of the child whom he was baptizing, and pronounced the single formula with mental certainty. Moreover, if the priest were to consecrate two wafers, and believe he was only consecrating one, still the cases differ. The bread, the object of consecration, is before him, he pronounces the *hoc* of consecration; a word comprehensive of one, or two, or more hosts. But the *te* of baptism is singular, and can only be applied to a single object: *vos* is the plural form, and the plural form is indispensable for more than one. The baptism, therefore, is not valid for both souls.

How then can it be valid for one? The foot baptized equally appertained to both, therefore the baptism holds good for neither, and both souls are damned. Feyjoo has filled twenty-three closely printed quarto pages with this argument.

The extracts which Mr. Jossé has made from this writer are upon common-place topics of morality; avarice, ambition, luxury, the advantages of virtue over vice, the advantages of the poor man over the rich; such trite sentences as might have been written by any man in any age, and in any civilized country. It would be in vain to hunt for elegant extracts in the works of Feyjoo; but they would furnish a very interesting volume like the French *anais*.

These are the only writers of eminence whom Mr. Jossé has consulted for the prose part of his work. We find, indeed, ample quotations from academical eulogies, productions usually as worthless as their subjects; from the bishop of Rochelle's declamation upon the death of Louis XVI. and the archbishop of

'Tarragona's declamation against liberty and equality. We find two translations from Ossian, from Caraccioli, and from the *Feliz Independiente* of father Almeyda, a moral romance, which has no other merit than that it is written in remarkably pure Portuguese. There is nothing from Mariana, nothing from Mendoza's History of the Civil Wars in Grenada, the best historical work of the country; not a single extract from the romances and *novelas*, which are the peculiar boast of the Spanish language.

In the poetical part of this compilation, we perceive the same want either of knowledge or of books. There are nine poets whom the Spaniards call the Nine Spanish Muses. From two of these, Lupericio Leonardo de Argensola, and Francisco de Borja, the Prince of Esquilache, no extract whatever appears. Herrera, the best of their lyric writers, has also escaped Mr. Jossé's notice, though his odes upon the defeat and loss of Sebastian, and the victory of Lepanto, are the finest poems in the language. Some specimen of Gongora's most characteristic production, his *Solitudes*, should have been given; a work which obtained such prodigious popularity, which was commented upon with a patience that even our Shaksperian commentators might admire, and which infected the national literature for a whole century, deserved some notice: but in particular some of his *romances* and *letrillas* ought to have been inserted; for these compositions are peculiar to the Spaniards, and in these Gongora is peculiarly excellent. There is yet a more unpardonable omission. The Spanish language abounds with ballads more beautiful than the popular songs of any country, except Scotland and England. The specimens given by Percy in his *Reliques* are well known, and it is not long since a villainous translation of all the ballads in the work from whence those had been selected was published. That romance, "The Historia de las Guerras Civiles de Grenada," by Gines Perez de Hita, is more known and more popular in foreign countries than any other work in the language, except only Don Quixotte. Mr. Jossé has made no extract from it, neither from the prose narrative, nor from the ballads; nor is there a single ballad contained in his whole *Tesoro*. The task of selection is easy in itself, but it requires long pre-

vious labour; the ground must be manured, and ploughed, and sown, or there can be no harvest.

The poetical selection is divided into three books; the first consists of poems religious and moral. It begins with two *romances*, by Alonzo de Ledesma, upon the Trinity and the Nativity, chosen with some discrimination, as these poems are only dull, and Ledesma has sometimes treated religious subjects with a levity which a Protestant would think blasphemous. His dialogue between a theologian and a philosopher has been translated. Count Rebolledo's version of the Lamentations of Jeremiah follow, poems which, for the reputation of the author, who is one of the Nine Muses, are deservedly inserted. The ode by Miquel Sanchez upon the Crucifixion contains a remarkable conceit; "though I tread the ground with such weary steps, I know I shall reach thee; for since for my good thou hadst thy sovereign feet nailed to the cross, I am sure that thou canst not run from me."

"Por mas que el suelo huello  
Con pasos tan cansados,  
Alcanzarte confio;  
Que pues por el bien mio  
Tienes los soberanos pies clavados  
En un madero firme  
Seguro voy que no podras huirme."

Several odes are selected from Juan Melendez Valdes, the most celebrated of their living poets. The presence of God, the incomprehensibility of God, the vanity of man's complaints against his Maker, the prosperity of the Wicked; these, and such as these, are the subjects, and all are in a chaste and manly style, with a scriptural elevation of thought. The ode upon the passage of the Red Sea is a paraphrase of the fine poem in Exodus; in which the author has shown his good sense by adhering as closely as possible to the original. The long blank-verse sermon upon Death, by the Count de Nerona, is a very worthless poem, and ought never to have stained white paper a second time. But the best poem in this division of the work is an epistle which Mr. Jossé, with the editor of the *Parnaso Espanol*, attributes to Bartholome Leonardo de Argensola, but which Don Ramon Fernandez has shown to be the production of Francisco de Ricja. A part of this epistle we will extract:



" (Tom. 2. Part i. p. 99.

Como los rios en veloz corrida  
to

Que no perturban deudas ni pesares.)

Even as the river swift and silent flows  
Toward the ocean, I am borne adown  
The gentle tide of Time. Nought now re-  
mains

Of earlier years, and for the years to come,  
Their dark and undiscoverable deeds  
Elude the mortal eye. Beholding thus  
How daily life wanes on, so may I learn  
Not with an unprovided mind to meet  
The hour when death shall gather up the old  
And wither'd plant, whose season is gone by.  
The spring flowers fade, the autumnal fruits  
decay,

And grey old Winter, with his clouds and  
storms,

Comes on; the leaves that with their mur-  
muring

Made a sweet music to our greenwood walks,  
Now rustle underneath our sinking feet.  
So all things rise and perish! Man the while  
Doth with a dull and reckless eye look on,  
And thinks not of his latter end. But we—  
We will not let the thankless soil, which oft  
Impregnate with the rains and dews of heaven,  
Is barren still, and stubborn to the plough,  
Emblem our hearts; we will not of our God  
Forgetful be, as is the worthless vine  
That in due season brings not forth its fruit.  
Think'st thou that God created man to roam  
The ocean waste, to wander o'er the earth,  
To be the blasting thunderbolt of war?  
Was this his being's end? Oh how he errs  
Who of his godlike nature and his God,  
Thus poorly, basely, blasphemously deems.  
For higher actions, and for nobler ends,  
Our better part, the deathless and divine,  
Was given: the etherial fire cannot be  
quenched

Which warms my breast; and when that  
breast is cold,

The unextinguishable fire shall burn

With brighter splendour. Till that hour  
arrive,

Following the call of my diviner part,  
Be it my lot to live, and through the world,  
Careless of human praise, pass quietly.  
The eastern despot, he whose silver towers  
Shot back an emulous splendour to the sun,  
He was too poor for sin's extravagance.  
But virtue, like the air and light of heaven,  
To all accessible, at every heart  
Intreats admittance. Wretched man is he  
Who, through the perils of the earth and sea,  
Toils on for gold! A little peaceful home  
Bounds all my wants and wishes; add to this,  
My book and friend, and this is happiness."

The second part contains poems didactic, descriptive, lyrical, and satirical. Under this head we did not expect to find seventy pages of extracts from the

Araucana; a poem which is certainly neither didactic, descriptive, lyrical, nor satirical. A version of this work has been announced by Mr. Boyd, the translator of Dante. There are passages of uncommon beauty in Ercilla's poem; but a translation of the whole is not likely to increase his reputation in this country. Mr. Hayley's analysis exhibits the interest of the story, and conceals the prolixity of the narration. Mr. Jossé has also given copious specimens of the *Austriada*, by Juan Rufo, of Cordova; an heroic poem, which Cervantes said might vie with the best productions of Italy. The *Araucana* and the *Monserate* of Christoval de Virues, were included in the same sentence of extravagant praise. This latter poem has not been noticed by Mr. Jossé; but it contains finer passages than are to be found in the *Austriada*. But these poems, and the greater number of the numberless heroic poems which have appeared in Spain, are as different in structure as they are in merit from the best productions of Italy. They resemble the long rhymed historical narratives of Drayton and Daniel, works which never could have been, or can be, popular, though the production of no ordinary talents. Such poets resemble the old missal painters, their colours often rich, their pencilling delicate, but no knowledge of design or perspective, and their outline often deformedly incorrect. They are builders, not architects; they have raised huge edifices, and faced them with a mixture of mud and marble.

The selections from Lope de Vega are scanty; they should have been more numerous and more varied considering the celebrity of his name. Yet even this *Potosi* of rhymes, as he was called, was outdone in quantity of production by Francisco de Santo Agostinho Macedo, a Portuguese Jesuit, and afterward a Franciscan. We may be well excused from transcribing the titles of 106 printed and 31 manuscript works by this indefatigable man; biography, and martyrology, and theology, and genealogy, canonizations, and orations, and declamations, and disputations: *besides* these, he recited publicly 53 panegyrics, 60 Latin orations, 32 funeral and 48 narrative poems; and wrote 123 elegies, 115 epitaphs, 212 dedicatory epistles, 700 familiar epistles, 2600 heroic poems, 110

odes, 3000 epigrams, four Latin comedies, and one Spanish satire.

The three odes of Lope de Vega, wherein, in the character of a shipwrecked man, he alludes to the loss of his wife, have been properly selected for this compilation. Except these, there are only two other trifling poems, and a few sonnets, by this most voluminous of the Castilian poets. A few specimens should have been given from his Angelica, his Jerusalem, and his Isidro. From Garcilaso the extracts are copious; more proportioned to his fame than his real merit, for Garcilaso is almost always an imitator; nearly half the little volume of his works is included in these volumes. An epistle of some length is chosen from the poems of his friend and fellow-labourer, Boscan. There are some passages in his Hero and Leander which we hoped to have found here, for they excel any thing in his Greek original. From Luis de Leon the ode upon Rodrigo is given; which has been translated by Russel, and a ridiculous sonnet upon the Real Presence. Quevedo, Villegas, and Bartholome Argensola, have each supplied characteristic specimens. Of the other poets of that age we find something from Vicente Espinel, the inventor of one of their most favourite stanzas; part of Jauregui's excellent version of the Amintas; several poems from the Diana Enamorada of Gil Polo; and the best poem of Francisco de Rioja, his odes on the ruins of Italica; but from this writer, and from the other Andalusian poets, more might advantageously have been chosen.

With the modern poets Mr. Jossé seems to be more familiar: their works are more accessible. We find, among other academical compositions, the Canto upon the burning the ships of Cortes, by Don Josef Maria Vaca de Guzman; and the Deucalion, by the Count de Torrepalma. There are some specimens by Iglesias, a man of considerable talent, whose language is remarkably pure, and who is considered as the best imitator of Villegas. The extracts from the Count de Norona have been injudiciously selected; he is exhibited only in his worst character as an elegiac writer and a sonneteer; in such poems he is always feeble and trite; but in his odes there is a strength and manliness; and in his mock heroic, the Quicayda, there are

some passages of striking originality. The greater number of Yriarte's fables are here inserted. These are all applied to literature, and each is written in a different metre. The two best are the musical ass and the dancing bear, which have been translated. The following are not equal to these, but they will show the author's manner:

*"The Squirrel and the Horse."*

A Squirrel sate and eyed a Horse,  
Who, answering to the rein,  
Stept stately, or with rapid course  
Went thundering o'er the plain.  
The Squirrel mark'd his varied pace,  
His docile strength and speed,  
Then with a pert conceited face  
He thus address the steed:  
  
Your swiftness and force,  
And your grace, Mr. Horse,  
And your pride, which I see,  
Astonish not me,  
Because I can equal your best.  
So active am I,  
I can run, I can fly,  
Above and below,  
Here and there I can go,  
All action, and never at rest.

The Horse, who heard the strange address,  
Look'd scornfully aside,  
Then paus'd, and listened to his speech,  
And gravely thus replied:  
You can vault in the air,  
You can bound here and there,  
But I pray you, my friend,  
To what does it tend?  
The use of all this let me know.  
It is not in vain  
That I move o'er the plain,  
I speed to fulfill  
My governor's will,  
And for that my ability show.

Some certain writers, squirrel-like,  
The steed's reply may hit,  
Who, when by nature gifted well,  
In trifles waste their wit."

*"The Crow and the Peacock."*

The Peacock and the Crow met,  
So says the rhyme,  
To fly a race together,  
Once upon a time.  
  
To guess who won the wager  
Were an easy thing,  
For one who ever saw them  
Both upon the wing,  
  
Stop! cries the Peacock,  
When he was far behind,  
That you are black and ugly  
Comes into my mind.

Stop! he cries louder,  
 Being hardly heard:  
 You were always thought  
 A most unlucky bird.

Get from before me!  
 Now that I think  
 You feed upon carrion—  
 Faugh! how you stink!

This, the Crow made answer,  
 Is nothing to the case;  
 What we came here for  
 Was to fly a race.

When in his writings  
 True merit he picks,  
 'Tis thus the fool attacks  
 The person of the wise."

These fables, with a few epigrams and sonnets, compose the third and last part. The epigrams are mostly by Jacinto, Polo, and Yriarte. The sonnets selected from

Lope de Vega, Garcilaso, Melendez, and the Count de Norona; the Count's are quite worthless, and should have given place to some by Boscan, Quevedo, and the two Argensolas. As there are no dramatic extracts in this volume, it is probable that Mr. Jossé may design to publish them in a separate part. Should that be his intention, we recommend him, by all means, to increase his supplement by extracts from the prose romances, by some of the Spanish ballads, and by specimens of Herrera, the Prince of Esquilache, Lupericio Leonardo, and Castillejo. By thus increasing his work, and annexing biographical notices, as the editor of the *Parnaso Espanol* has done, he would render a useful and acceptable service to the public.

## CHAPTER VIII.

## EDUCATION.

IN this chapter we include two different classes of books: first, those which treat of the science of Education; and are, therefore, addressed to parents and tutors. Secondly, those which are introductory to general Science, or to any particular branch of it; and are, therefore, composed for the sake of children and pupils.

A highly valuable and deservedly popular system of practical Education had been published, in which the authors give the result of their personal experience with respect to all the important topics of instruction, except the inculcation of religious sentiments and feelings: a serious omission, indeed; but surely, considering the vast and even radical differences which are entertained on this subject, by no means inexcusable. This omission is supplied, not indeed avowedly, but in fact it is so, by *Miss Hamilton's Letters on Education*; in which, upon the Hartleian theory of association, are shewn the extreme importance of forming early habits of piety and moral exertion. With the exception of some metaphysical inconsistencies, and other slighter blemishes, this work is highly creditable to the abilities of the author, and will doubtless be perused with benefit and pleasure by all those to whom it is addressed. *Dr. Barrow* is an advocate for the old, but now relaxed system, of free-school discipline; and considers all that time in education as thrown away which is not devoted to the study of the Greek and Roman classics, and the catechism of the English church: he writes in a free manly style, and exposes, in a striking manner, some of the radical mistakes in modern schools.

In works intended for the use of young persons, the contribution of last year is more distinguished by its value than the number of its volumes. *Mr. Kett's Elements of General Knowledge*, from its academic dignity, deserves the first place. It is, as all such works must necessarily be, very imperfect; defective and erroneous on those topics that are less familiar to the author; more full and valuable on those that are the particular objects of collegiate instruction.

*Miss Edgeworth's Poetry explained* deserves honourable mention, and is valuable both in itself, and as affording a specimen of a method which may be pursued by parents and instructors with the happiest effect. *Dr. Aikin* had added to the obligations which both tutors and pupils are under to him by his *Arts of Life* and *The Woodland Companion*: and *Mr. Lindley Murray* has laudably employed himself in compiling the *Lecteur François*, which, like all his other works, unites in worthy association literary taste with sound morality.

ART. I. *Letters on the Elementary Principles of Education.* By ELIZABETH HAMILTON, *Author of the Memoirs of Modern Philosophers*, &c. 2 vol. 8vo. pp. 431 and 455.

FEW practical subjects have more employed the thoughts and the pen, than the important subject of education; so much has been written, and by authors of such distinguished abilities, that one might naturally suppose little remained to be said upon so beaten a subject, yet such is the deep interest inspired by the successive generation of helpless and innocent human beings that come into life under the necessity of receiving from other and imperfect human beings all their ideas, habits, and associations; such is the immense difference between man and man according as the process he goes through is favourable or unfavourable to his improvement in knowledge and virtue; such waste of genius, such wrecks of innocence, such cruel disappointment of early hopes do we see around us, that a speculative mind will be continually turning its thoughts towards some new plan of instruction, some peculiar system of management which is to remedy every preceding defect, and by assiduous and unremitting care, prolonged from infancy through youth, to build up a perfect man. Much of this sanguine hope is probably fallacious. The workman by his rules can make a machine with accuracy, and which shall fully answer his purpose, but the human mind is submitted to so many influences, the far greater part of them beyond the controul of the parent, that no certain receipt for making a wise and virtuous man will ever be found, and hence a degree of disappointment will attend every system that has been tried, and a degree of new hope every one that is untried. By education much however may be done, though not every thing, and it is perhaps more powerful to harm than to benefit; it is therefore at least desirable that bad systems should be exploded; an elegant shape may be formed without stays, but an ill made pair is sure to ruin one. It is a commendation of Miss Hamilton's treatise, considered in a practical light, that it offers no peculiar system, holds out no views of extraordinary proficiency by uncommon methods, runs into no eccentricities; forbids nothing which is commonly reckoned salutary, recommends nothing which does not approve itself to common

sense, and instead of sparkling with the fire of genius, holds out the sober lamp of truth and experience; the popularity it has gained does credit, therefore, to the public taste. This popularity has, we apprehend, been very much promoted by the judicious moderation with which it treats the important article of religion. It is well known, that two treatises on education, each of great merit, which have lately appeared, have exhibited a marked difference in this respect, the one bringing forward religious tenets with a zeal and fervour which many will term enthusiastic, the other carefully abstaining from all mention of them. Miss Hamilton observes that mean which is likely to be most agreeable to the generality of serious and moderate people; her religion is rational and liberal; she is pious without being severe, and a friend to enquiry without its leading her away from the common and most approved systems. The method Miss Hamilton proposes to herself is, first, to examine the principles of the human mind, as far as education is concerned, and to that and the practical inferences arising from them the first volume is devoted. The grand principle the author makes use of for explaining every phenomenon is the law of association, a very important principle certainly, and one that has been often discussed by philosophical writers. We think, in the present treatise, too much is made of it, and that the term is often used where habit would have been more proper; neither does the author give any clear definition of it, though we are particularly led to expect one from the observation, "that she has been assured, that however familiar the use of the term might be to a certain class of readers, to such as had never heard of any other associations than those of the loyal volunteers, it was to the last degree perplexing." If the doctrine was so new to many of her readers, certainly they had a right to expect an accurate definition of a term on which is made to depend the whole of the reasoning in all the first volume; yet for such a definition we looked through the subsequent pages in vain; we find indeed, in allusion to the volunteer associations, that,



"the associations which take place in our ideas are seldom volunteers but are united by laws which are to the last degree arbitrary, and that their union, when once formed, is no longer at the will of a superior, but frequently remains indissoluble notwithstanding the commands issued by reason for disbanding them." We also find some appropriate instances of association, but still no definition, such as would give a person who had never before heard of the term, a just idea of it. But we find the author saying in the next page, "Of systems I have none save the system of Christianity." What has the system of Christianity to do with a treatise which professes to examine philosophically the principles of the human mind, and thence to deduce our opinions and actions? Christianity has no system of the kind, it directs our faith and practice, but it does not in the least degree assist the investigations of the metaphysical reasoner. If therefore, Miss Hamilton choose to spread a philosophic and scholastic air over her work, to talk about association, perception, generalization of ideas, abstraction of ideas, &c. she ought to recollect, that instead of boasting that she has no system, it is incumbent upon her to have one, and most certainly in these points and many others that she treats of, she will not find it in the New Testament. Indeed, without undervaluing the philosophy of this part of the work, we think its merit consists still more in the maxims of sound sense and experience, and the familiar illustrations it contains, than in those observations which have an air of greater abstruseness; neither is it for want, as Miss Hamilton seems to suppose, of clear ideas of the laws of mind, that mistakes are made in education; for all practical purposes the laws of mind are sufficiently understood by the most illiterate; and the nursery-maid who gives a child sweatmeats to make it fond of her, or whips it to make it fear her, understands perfectly well the nature of the law of association, though probably she never heard of the term. The first chapters (letters they are called) of the work, show the influence of early associations in inspiring aversion or terror; permanent associations depend either on the strength of the original impression, or on the frequency of the repetition; to the former class belong those of the painful kind;

timidity ought not to be encouraged in females, as it is almost always accompanied by an extreme regard to self, and incapacitates for benevolent exertion; striking instances of each kind are given. The author goes on to observe on the danger of early antipathies, on behaviour to servants, in which she opposes a doctrine of Miss Edgeworth's, which has been generally thought exceptionable. The following observations are not only excellent, but give an amiable idea of the author:

"Whatever tends to inspire children with an high opinion of their own comparative importance; whatever annexes to the idea of situation, independent of worth or virtue, ideas of contempt or complacency, will certainly counteract our design of inspiring them with humility. The light in which children are generally taught to consider servants, must infallibly, at a very early age, produce this high opinion of their own comparative importance; an importance which they must attach to situation, and which must therefore be necessarily productive of the pride of rank and power.—A pride which we would vainly endeavour to reconcile with true christian humility. Would we make a proper use of the instruments which nature so kindly affords us, in the helplessness of infancy, we should find a powerful assistance in laying the foundation of this inestimable virtue. Why should we not teach them to accept the services their tender age requires, with meekness and gratitude? Might not this first exercise of the social and benevolent affections, produce effects upon the mind so advantageous to the character, as completely to counterbalance all the evils which can arise from occasional intercourse with domestics? But are these evils certain and unavoidable? Is it impossible to procure attendants for our children, of uncorrupted minds and undepraved manners? I cannot believe it. The corruption and depravity of servants is a general theme. From whence does it proceed, but from the corruption and depravity of their superiors? Governed by the selfishness of luxury and pride, we concern ourselves no further with the morals of our domestics than is necessary to the preservation of our property. No qualities are regarded in them, but such as contribute to the gratification of our ease or convenience. Their virtues are unrewarded by our esteem; their vices, provided they do not immediately injure us, unpunished by our disapprobation.

"Whatever may be our own opinions concerning religion, we all agree that a notion of a Deity, and a fear of future punishment, is necessary to the vulgar; and yet who, in this age of philosophy and refinement, makes the religious instruction of their servants any

part of their concern? Pride prevents us from undertaking what policy would dictate. We feel it too mortifying to represent to beings so much beneath us, that we are the creatures of the same God; that we are to be judged by the same laws; and that in a few fleeting years no other distinction shall be found between us except that of virtue. The moral precepts of our religion, it may not indeed be convenient to dwell upon, as we must blush to recommend rules to their practice, which seldom govern our own. The golden precept of *doing as we would be done by*, may, perhaps, sometimes occur to us in our transactions with our equals; but it seems as if we had some clause of exception with regard to our behaviour to those of an inferior station. We consider not them as beings endowed with passions and feelings similar to our own. Wanting in our prerogative, we provoke the one with impunity and insult the other without remorse. If we cannot read a chapter of the New Testament in their presence which does not model our conduct, it is no wonder that we decline the task of religious instruction. But why, after this, declaim against the ignorance and depravity of servants? Those who have had sufficient energy to obey the call of principle in their domestic regulations: those who have considered the moral qualities of their servants as no less important than their abilities, and who to instruction and precept, have added the weight of example; have generally found that worth is to be met with in every station. People of moderate fortune have indeed here, as in many other respects, a manifest advantage. The size of their establishments does not swell beyond the possibility of inspection. The conduct and character of every individual of their families is, or ought to be, known to them. But, alas! the indolence of luxury is no longer confined within the walls of palaces! It pervades all ranks in society. What more common, than to hear ladies, even of moderate fortune, declare they have not a servant on whose truth or honesty they can depend; but that they do not change, because they know it impossible to get better? Were I to speak from experience, I should question this impossibility; for in the course of my life it has been my fate, both in town and country, in the corruption of the metropolis and the secluded scenes of retirement, to meet with servants, the excellence of whose moral characters entitled them to my esteem. The attendant of my infancy still possesses the regard, the gratitude, and veneration of my heart. She is now advancing into the vale of years, and I firmly believe will go to the great audit with a conscience that has never been stained by deceit, equivocation, or falsehood; nor is it improbable, that, I may, perhaps, be more indebted for my love of truth to her example than to all the precepts of my instructors.

And yet she was but the orphan daughter of a poor servant! It must be, however, confessed, that the principles of religion were early and deeply implanted in her mind."

The important subject of religion is next treated on, and the author very properly insists upon the desirableness of connecting all ideas of the Supreme Being and his laws with exhilarating and cheerful impressions, and avoiding that air of gloom which is so frequently cast on such subjects: "the religious instruction of children ought to be chiefly addressed to the heart" In all this part the ideas are sound and liberal. It may be remarked, however, that the use of religion being principally as a restraining power, all those who believe and obey will be benefited by it, though the gloomy tinge which has been spread over it may hinder them from enjoying its consolatory influences; if their opinions direct them right in matters of practice, they will "depart from evil," though they may not be able "to rejoice in the Lord." Proceeding to moral from divine, we have a number of good observations on the method of cultivating the benevolent affections in children, and inducing such an orderly quiet behaviour as may tend to the comfort of those about them, without encroaching on their natural vivacity. The author is an advocate for the good old system of implicit and early obedience, and throws strong and just blame on those parents who, in order to avoid a little present trouble, allow their children to grow selfish and ungovernable, till they are obliged at length, as the most unreasonable indulgence must stop somewhere, to use those severe methods of correction which completely sour their tempers. Her reasonings are enlivened with many entertaining anecdotes both of warning and example. The pernicious influences of partiality in parents are next considered, and particularly of a partiality not uncommon, that, towards the male part of their offspring, which coinciding with the opinion of the world, tends not only to degrade the female sex in their own eyes and in those of their brothers, but also to degrade and throw a shade upon those virtues, supposed to belong peculiarly to the sex.

"With a contempt for the female sex, on an account of this fancied inferiority, has

been associated a contempt for those moral qualities which are allowed to constitute the perfection of the female character. Meekness, gentleness, temperance and chastity; that command over the passions which is obtained by frequent self-denial; and that willingness to sacrifice every selfish wish, and every selfish feeling, to the happiness of others, which is the consequence of subdued self-will, and the cultivation of the social and benevolent affections; are considered as feminine virtues, derogatory to the dignity of the manly character. Nay, further. By this unfortunate association has religion itself come into disgrace; devotional sentiment is considered as a mere adjunct of female virtue, suitable to the weakness of the female mind, and for that reason disgraceful to the superior wisdom of man. At the thought of judgment to come women, like Felix, may learn to tremble; and, in order to avert the consequences of divine displeasure, may study the practice of that righteousness and temperance recommended by the apostle to his royal auditor. But while the christian graces are associated with that contempt which the idea of inferiority inspires, neither righteousness, nor temperance, nor judgment to come, will be considered as worthy of consideration in the mind of man. This unhappy prejudice is in some respects far less injurious to the female than to the male. The obedience which they are taught to pay to authority, the submission with which they are made to bow to arrogance and injustice, produce habits of self-denial favourable to disinterestedness, meekness, humility, and generosity; dispositions which are allied to every species of moral excellence. And so seldom do these amiable dispositions fail to be produced by the subjugation of self-will, in females who have been properly educated, that in combating the prejudice which throws contempt upon the female character, I shall be found to plead the cause of the other sex than of my own. Every prejudice founded in selfishness and injustice inevitably corrupts the mind, and every act of tyranny resulting from it debases the human character: but submission "for conscience sake," even to the highest degree of tyranny and injustice, is an act, not of meanness, but of magnanimity. Instead of murmuring at the circumstances under which they are placed, women ought early to be taught to turn those very circumstances to their advantage, by rendering them conducive to the cultivation of all the milder virtues."

Every judicious reader will concur with the author, in the commendation of temperance and indifference to a certain degree) for we must not counteract nature) towards the gratifications of the palate, but we fear few must expect to meet with such children, as it seems have

fallen under the observation of the author, who "having had from five years of age a liberal supply of pocket-money, can aver that in all that period they never laid out one farthing in the purchase of fruit, cake, or sweatmeat for their own eating; but with infinite pleasure can dwell on little acts of infant charity, when the pure heart, first felt the glow of sympathy, and rejoiced in conscious benevolence." We are pretty sure at least that those self-denying infants were not boys. We are pleased with the following instance of sagaciousness, sharpened by early necessity, placed in opposition to the effect of provision made by toys and play-things for the amusement of the rich.

"It is they alone (the poor) who are permitted to feel and to enjoy the rich provision made by nature for their instruction it its full extent. Accordingly, we shall find that the children of peasants of the lowest class, nay, even the children of gypsies, have at three years of age, a greater stock of ideas, acquired from the examination of sensible objects, and are infinitely more capable of taking care of themselves, than children of the higher ranks at six.

"On a woody and steep declivity of the Cotteswold hills, where they project into the vale of Gloucester, stands a small cot inhabited by a poor widow, or rather a deserted wife, who was left with two infants, for whose provision she exerted herself in the labours of the field, and being a woman of remarkable strength and dexterity, she found constant employment with the neighbouring farmers. Soon as her youngest boy was weaned, she consigned him to the care of his brother, not three years of age. After having cut the brown bread which was to supply them with food for the day, and given necessary instructions to the elder boy, who was to act as cook, housekeeper, and nurse, she left them generally about five in the morning, and seldom returned till night. At the time I first saw this little pair (which I frequently did every day for weeks together, when on a visit to a family in the neighbourhood,) the eldest was near five, and the youngest about two years of age. Each might have sat for the picture of an infant Hercules. By living almost constantly in the open air, they had acquired a degree of hardiness and vigour, seldom to be met with at that early age; and by experience had become so well acquainted with the objects around them, and with the nature of every danger to which they were exposed, that though often on the edge of precipices which would make a fine lady shudder with horror, and where a fine little master would most probably have broken his neck, I never heard of their meet-

ing with the smallest accident or disaster. When the hours of meal arrived, the elder, who never for a moment forsook his little charge, took him into the cot, and seating him in a corner, proceeded to make a fire of sticks, which he managed with great dexterity.

"The brown bread was then crumbled down boiled with water, and sweetened with a very little very coarse sugar. This plain, but from its effects evidently wholesome viand, he then placed on the floor, and sitting down betwixt it and his brother, gave him alternate spoonful with himself till all was finished.

"Take care, Dan," said a lady who once happened to step into the cottage at the beginning of this operation, "Take care that you don't scald your brother's mouth. 'No fear o' that,' returned the boy, 'for Pa's always takes un first to self.'

Whatever tends to promote pride and vanity, whether arising from wealth, birth, acquirements, or personal appearance is next gone through, and the volume concludes with a sensible critique on books for children, and the supposed modern improvements in the art of teaching.

The second volume is devoted to an examination of the principles upon which we ought to proceed in the improvement of the intellectual faculties. It is therefore not any particular course of study which is intended to be pointed out, but a due attention to the unfolding the powers of the mind according to the order prescribed by nature. The powers are perception, attention, conception, judgment, and abstraction, all which prepare the mind for the cultivation of taste and imagination. These are treated on in the order given, and remarks on the power of reflection close the series. As this treatise, though relating to both sexes, is chiefly intended for the benefit of women, they are exhorted in the following spirited manner not to relinquish the privilege of exercising those rational faculties which are common to both the sexes.

"If in analysing the faculties of the human mind, we find that Providence has made a manifest distinction betwixt the sexes, by leaving the female soul destitute of any of the intellectual powers, it will become us to submit to the divine decision. But if, upon enquiry, we find that no such partiality has been shewn by heaven; it is incumbent upon us to consider, by what right we take upon us to despise the gift of God."

The power of perception, that is, the power of receiving ideas by sensible objects, is the first that opens in children, and indeed the foundation of all their knowledge; the vigour and clearness of this power depends partly on the perfection of the senses, but also very much on the faculty of attention, which therefore parents ought to take pains to exercise in their children: that the senses may be sharpened to almost an unlimited degree by attention, is exhibited in those who, having lost one sense, are obliged to depend on the remaining ones; on the other hand people who live in towns often become short-sighted for want of distant objects on which to exercise their powers. We cannot here help noticing what appears to us a fastidious piece of refinement in the philosophic author, who while she is recommending the assiduous culture of all the other senses, seems to think that of *taste* beneath the notice of a rational being. It is surely worthy our attention, in the first place, because of the actual pleasure it procures us, a pleasure by no means to be despised; and in the next place, to females at least it is a very necessary sense in the important part of their household duties. The author is fond of Milton; we wonder she does not recollect, that *Eve was exact of taste and elegant*, and that she was able, when her husband saw company, that is to say, when he entertained the angel, to bring

"Taste after taste upheld with kindest change,"

which she could hardly have done if she had despised the cultivation of that faculty. Attention is roused by the passions, and the passions, on the other hand, are increased by attention. By the attention which a delicate state of health demands, a disposition to selfishness is frequently produced. The instinctive perception which persons who have what is called a natural antipathy to any object, have of it, is accounted for by supposing, that the attention, sharpened by aversion, renders the smell surprizingly acute with regard to that particular object. The attention of children should be exercised on common things before they learn to read. The advantage of the institution of the Sabbath is derived from its breaking the trains of thought which otherwise, by constant attention, would grow too

strong, and turning them into different channels.

*Conception*, or the power of forming ideas of absent objects, or of combining them, comes next to be considered. This depends, in a great measure, on accuracy of perception. Children should be accustomed to describe what they have seen or heard; they should be led to observation, and not read a multitude of books. The following observations on the languid and low spirited, appear to us very judicious.

"Mothers, I apprehend, are seldom aware of the important consequences which result from their conduct to beings of this description. There is something so amiable and endearing in the gentleness which commonly attends this languor of spirits, that it naturally inspires tenderness. This tenderness is increased by that helplessness which clings to the maternal bosom for support. But if this tenderness be not enlightened and guided by reason, it will prepare a never ending fund of misery for its unhappy object.

"The inevitable effect of indulgence in generating selfishness, I have explained at large in the former volume: and as selfishness is the never-failing concomitant of the disposition above described; it follows, that it is the particular duty of the parent to guard against nurturing and increasing this natural tendency.

"From the languid flow of ideas in the low-spirited, proceeds an indolence of mind, which terminates in torpid apathy. Selfishness is then the sole spring of action: benevolence may dwell upon the tongue; but no feelings, no affections, but such as are connected with self-love, ever touch the heart. Such an one finds friendship necessary to his support, to his comfort, nay, to his very existence. He therefore clings to his friends with fondness; but what consolation, what comfort, what support, does he afford them in return? Does he enter with the same interest into the feelings of others, with which he expects others to enter into his? No. But this deficiency of feeling does not proceed from a want of benevolence or of attachment. It proceeds from a want of conception with regard to every thing that does not concern self. How would many of our acquaintances start at the picture that is here drawn, if applied to themselves! Let us make a more useful application of it to those who are yet at a period of life when the evils I have here portrayed, admit of remedy.

"In the education of children who indicate a tendency to this disposition, whether such tendency be hereditary or acquired, particular pains should be taken to lead the mind to attend to the feelings of others. Whatever

services, whatever attentions they exact from others, they should be obliged in their turn to pay. If they are once permitted to imagine, that from the softness and delicacy of their dispositions, they have any right of exemption from the rule of 'doing to others as they would have others do by them,' they are inevitably ruined. It is essential, in such cases, to use every means to increase the flow of ideas. Lively and exhilarating images ought incessantly to be presented to the mind; and instead of encouraging that disposition to study, which frequently appears prematurely in such persons, the mind ought to be roused to active and vigorous exertion. Whatever knowledge it acquires, it ought to be made freely to communicate, for unless this be done, reading will be, to such a mind, only another mode of indulging indolence. To conquer the indolence that invariably adheres to such dispositions, every effort ought to be made. These efforts ought to be unceasing; and their efficacy will be much increased by frequently changing the attention from object to object. The variety and beauty of the material world will be here powerfully assistant to the tutor's views. While the perceptive faculties are thus exercised, the mind cannot sink into apathy, or indulge in the luxury of indolent reverie. It will, by these means, likewise acquire that command of attention which is in all cases so eminently useful."

The author afterwards points out the different kinds of memory, and gives directions for inspiring the dull, and restraining the too lively, and dwells with earnestness on the importance of laying deep the foundations of knowledge. Poetry ought not to be presented to children till they have acquired a large stock of visible ideas.

"Let us suppose a little girl, whose acquaintance with natural objects extends to the grass-plot which ornaments the centre of some neighbouring square. In order to cultivate a taste for descriptive poetry; she is enjoined the task of getting by heart Gray's celebrated elegy, which abounds in imagery at once natural and affecting. Let us follow her in the conceptions she forms from it. Two lines will be a sufficient example:

'The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,  
'The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the  
'lea."

After mentioning *curfew* and *parting day* as difficulties to the child, though the first admits of an easy explanation, and the last she may surely have seen from her grass plot, Miss Hamilton adds what we cannot at all understand, except she has herself, probably from



some local meaning of the word, fallen into the astonishing mistake of supposing *herd* to mean *herdsman*.

"What does she make, what can she make, of the succeeding line? A *herd* she has probably heard of, as one who takes care of sheep, goats, or other animals; but why the herd should *low*, is certainly beyond her comprehension. How, or in what manner, he *winds*, is equally so."

If Miss Hamilton really has made this mistake, we should be glad to know how she herself interprets the *lowing* of the herdsman, for we profess ourselves as much at a loss here as the child. Whatever becomes of this illustration, with the general idea we entirely agree, that natural objects ought to be presented to children, and engage their attention as much as possible, and before they read descriptive poetry; yet, where it happens, as it often does in towns, that such objects do not frequently occur, the reverse of the method may have its advantages, for by previously uniting the object with moral, historical, or other interesting ideas, a child is led to view it with a much more lively feeling than if he had received the idea of it only from his eye. A boy who should have read Thomson's beautiful description of the *huge elephant, wisest of brutes*, will see it afterwards with much more pleasure than if he had read no such passage: and Miss Hamilton herself observes, how much Blouzelind had previously interested her in the sound of the *weather's bell*.

The next attribute of mind that comes to be considered is *judgment*. It is recommended here also to give the child ample time to form its own reasonings, and not to conduct him prematurely to the result. Arithmetic is recommended as a most useful branch of knowledge: and it is asked, why the female sex should be so utterly precluded as they generally are, from it? We did not know they were so. Accustoming women to the early exercise of judgment, is recommended as a means of keeping them in the path of virtue. Novel reading, and educating youth by means of *pretty stories*, are condemned, and every thing that tends to bring forward the imagination before the judgment. Miss Hamilton expresses her opinion, that the mode of education in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and even the

heavy needle work in fashion in those times, was more favourable to bringing forward the powers of the mind than the kind of culture bestowed at present upon young ladies.

"If the higher powers of the mind were not called forth, the first and most essential faculties were so cultivated as to produce that equality which is always favourable to the production of common sense; and in the early cultivation of these first faculties, a foundation was laid for the perfection of all the higher powers of the mind, wherever a superior degree of mental culture was bestowed. Of this we have a decisive proof in the many illustrious instances of female learning and genius, which adorned the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

"It was not by means of pretty story books, abridgments, and beauties of history, nor yet by scraps of poetry selected from the best authors, that a Lady Jane Gray, or a Lady Anne Askew, attained those high accomplishments, and that intellectual energy, which has rendered them the admiration of succeeding ages."

Of the mode of education of these illustrious ladies and their contemporaries, our accounts are very scanty, but if we are to judge of their literary merit by any thing they have produced, we imagine Miss Hamilton herself will not bring them into comparison with the female writers of the eighteenth century. Let the education be judged of by its fruits. As to Lady Jane Grey, her fame is chiefly owing to her rank and her misfortunes.

The next chapter is devoted to the best mode of giving instruction to the poor, particularly in bible knowledge.

*Imagination and taste* are next considered. The furniture of imagination must arise from having laid in a stock of clear, accurate, and distinct ideas; taste must depend on proper associations, and a devotional spirit is favourable to it. The author is not a friend, any more than Mrs. H. More, to bestowing the time which is generally bestowed on female accomplishments, and seems to prefer that general cultivation which enlarges the mind.

"The mother who is superior to the chains of fashion, and who is capable of taking an extensive view of the probabilities of human life, as well as of weighing the talents of her children with accurate impartiality, will decide with wisdom and precision, on the value of those accomplishments which must inevitably be purchased

at the expence of a large portion of time and attention. Does the mind appear destitute of that energy which is necessary to give a zest to the intellectual pleasures? she will readily perceive the advantage which may be derived to such a mind, from having at all times the power of gratifying itself by an elegant and innocent amusement. But if her children possess sufficient intellectual vigour to find full employment from other sources, she will, perhaps, content herself with cultivating in them that taste for the fine arts in general, which will at all times ensure them the most exquisite gratification.

"To such minds, sources of delight open on every side. Every scene in nature presents some object calculated to call forth trains of ideas, which either interest the heart, or amuse the fancy. But if the time in which the mind ought naturally to be employed in accumulating those ideas, be devoted to acquiring a facility of execution at a musical instrument, it is evident no such ideas can be called forth. I once travelled 400 miles in company with an accomplished young gentleman, who made, in the course of the journey, but one solitary observation, and that was called forth by an extensive moorish fen, where, he said, he was sure was abundance of snipes! Read the observations of St. Fond, on going over the same ground, and observe the rich variety of ideas presented to the man of science by objects which are to the vulgar eye barren of delight. Follow the elegant Gilpin through the same tour, and mark the emotions which the various scenery of natural landscape excites in the mind of the man of taste. Who that is capable of weighing the value of the mind's enjoyment in the scale of truth and reason, will not instantly perceive how much the balance preponderates in favour of those who have such a rich variety of associations, when put in competition with the superficially accomplished? Let science and taste unite in the same mind, and you prepare materials for a constant feast."

The power of *abstraction* comes next to be treated of, or the power of generalising our ideas, and forming principles of action. A mistress of a large family, as Miss Hamilton well observes, "has occasion for a comprehensive view of the effect to be produced, an accurate conception of the powers of each individual agent, and a just notion of how it can be employed to the best advantage, and a distinct view of how the whole is to be set in motion, so as most easily to produce the desired effect." A woman left in a state of widowhood, has still more occasion for this power. We meet with many good observations

on this head; with the following we cannot equally concur.

"Before your pupils enter upon speculative enquiry, it is above all things essential, that their judgment should be exercised in ascertaining the limits of human knowledge. All speculations concerning what is placed beyond the reach of the human faculties, ought to be avoided, for from them no possible advantage can be derived. They must ever end, as they begin, in uncertainty and doubt; but far from being a harmless waste of time, they frequently excite the violence of prejudice and animosity."

Part of this assertion may be very true, but it is difficult to imagine how a pupil *before* he enters upon enquiry, can exercise his judgment in ascertaining limits which it is necessary to have travelled to those limits in order to ascertain. He may, indeed, and in many cases, ought to allow himself to be directed, in such points, by the judgment of others; but if such knowledge is to be the result of his own, it is the very last he will acquire. It is vain to think of cultivating judgment and stimulating enquiry, and, at the same time, dictating to that judgment, and saying to enquiry, hitherto shalt thou go, and no further: the greater part of the world do, and ought to take opinions upon trust; but whenever, whether man or woman, enquires, must lay their account with a certain portion of doubt and uncertainty; and they who set them about it, must lay *their* account with seeing them rest in conclusions often very different from the preconceived opinions they began with.

The subject of the last chapter is *reflection*, or the power which the mind possesses of examining its own operations. The author seems to mean by it self-examination, and the directing all the powers which the mind has unfolded to the culture of the heart. The chapter has an excellent moral tendency, but, considered as a philosophical investigation, it is not very clear.

We have now gone through these volumes, and it only remains to express our satisfaction with their general contents. Objections might be made to many parts of the theory, and particularly this, that in fact the different powers open much more nearly together than the theory seems to imply. A child, for instance, exercises the power of *abstraction* as soon, at least, as he un-

derstands that the word *cat* means *cats* in general, and not merely an individual, and of judgment when he compares distances, &c.; but without dwelling on these remarks, we with pleasure repeat, that the sound sense, and judicious observations the reader will meet with, the just estimate of life, and the spirit of

piety and virtue breathed through the whole; a piety strict without being gloomy, and a virtue firm, but not ascetic, must make the work be numbered among those publications calculated to bring to their author the best reward, the consciousness of having done good.

ART. II. *An Essay on Education; in which are particularly considered the Merits and the Defects of the Discipline and Instruction in our Academies.* By the Rev. WILLIAM BARROW, LL.D. F. A. S. Author of the Bampton Lecture for 1799, and late Master of the Academy in Soho-Square, London. 12mo. 2 vols. pp. 314 and 333.

AMONG the treatises on education, few, comparatively, have been written by those who have actually engaged in it as a business. Systems for home education, however elaborate or ingenious, do not apply to the generality of youth (we mean to speak of boys only), who ever have, and, probably, ever must be brought up under the discipline of schools public or private. What those schools are, and what they should be, the advantages enjoyed, and the risks incurred by the scholars, the grievances of the masters, and the frequent disappointment of the parents, are here set forth in a manner which shews the publication to be the result of sound sense and real experience. Dr. Barrow speaks with just indignation against those seminaries, so frequent in the vicinity of London, where the master himself possesses no qualification for his office, but the skill of conducting a boarding house; where, consequently, the parent loses his money, and the scholar his time; and the servility, the false pretensions, and the impositions on one side, are fairly traced to their true source, the parsimony of parents, who will not give, in the first instance, that liberal stipend which would engage a man of letters, and preclude the necessity of encreasing it by mean arts. Of the little respect which, in proportion to its utility, the character of a schoolmaster obtains among the other classes of society, of the difficulties thrown in his way by the folly, suspicion, or illiberal behaviour of parents, Dr. Barrow speaks with an acuteness of feeling which is evidently not the result of observation alone.

"They (these grievances) exhaust that patience in the teacher, which ought to be reserved for the instruction and benefit of his pupils; they sometimes render his temper so irritable, that he can hardly be considered as

fit for his own profession: they accelerate that injury to his health, which his labours would naturally occasion, and render him the sooner unequal to his task. Above all, they have driven many to endeavour to make an academy merely an occupation of profit; to look upon their pupils, not so much as youth to be educated, as instruments of gain; to practise all those artifices which have been so justly censured; all that delusion which the people seemed to court, and without which they would not be contented. Is it to be wondered then, that, in this case, as in almost every thing human, evils become reciprocally the cause and effect of each other! Unprincipled schoolmasters provoke illiberal treatment, and illiberal treatment makes unprincipled schoolmasters. Is it to be wondered, that so few men of spirit and talents engage in the profession; or that they escape from it, as soon as a decent subsistence can elsewhere be found! In enumerating what were in his judgment the requisite qualifications of an instructor of youth, Quintilian has drawn such a literary and moral character, as would, indeed, do honour to any profession; but which human frailty forbids us to hope, will frequently be found: yet the idea of the ancient rhetorician, however exalted, seems by no means equal to the popular expectation of the present day. If we consult the sentiments and conduct of the less intelligent and less liberal part of the community, it will appear that the master of an academy is required to possess, like the hero of a romance, not only talents and virtues, above the ordinary endowments of humanity, but such contraries of excellence, as seem incompatible with each other. He is required to possess spirit enough to govern the most refractory of his pupils, and meanness enough to submit to the perpetual interference of their friends; such delicacy of taste as may enable him to instruct his scholars in all the elegancies of polite literature, and robust strength enough to bear, without fatigue, the most incessant exertions. He is required to possess learning sufficient to relish the eloquence of Cicero and Demosthenes; and good nature to listen, without weariness, to a grand-

mother blazoning the merits of her heir; still adequate to the performance of his task, and patience to be instructed how to perform it. He is required to possess judgment enough to determine the most proper studies, and the most suitable destinations for his pupils; and complaisance at all times to submit his own opinion to the opinions of those who have employed him; moral principle enough to ensure on all occasions the faithful discharge of his duties; and forbearance to hear those principles continually suspected, and his diligence and fidelity called in question. It is expected that he shall be daily exposed to the severest trials of his temper, but neither require, nor be allowed any indulgence for its occasional excesses; and that he be able to secure all the good effects of discipline, without the use of the only means which ever yet procured them. He is expected to feel that conscious dignity which science confers upon its possessor; and yet to descend without reluctance to teach infants their alphabet; to possess generosity enough to maintain his pupils liberally without a liberal stipend; and insensibility enough to permit his demands to be taxed by those by whom they ought to be most readily and gratefully discharged.

"That many parents appear to expect this variety of talents in the teachers of their sons, the masters of academics know to their sorrow and their cost; but where such constellations of excellence are to be found, it is surely needless to enquire. The glasses of Herschel, in the search, would sweep the regions of space in vain."

With regard to his own system, Mr. Barrow is a declared enemy to all the softnesses and indulgences of modern life, to that relaxation of parental and magisterial authority, which is generally allowed to have taken place of late years: he speaks (we had almost said *con amore*) in favour of the good old practice of flogging, "without the use or the fear of which," he says, (perhaps with some truth) "no good classic scholar was ever yet made." He sets his face against all those novelties which so many ingenious people have deemed improvements in the mode of instruction, against the deceptive system of *playing children into learning, or reasoning them into obedience, against infant libraries filled with natural history, and French philanthropy, which, he complains, have superseded the bible and the catechism; against playing tricks with electrical machines, and studying the botanical names of weeds under a hedge, instead of applying to mathematics, or Greek and Latin; and, indeed, we must so far agree with*

this author, that if the great object of the first eighteen or twenty years of life be to make a youth thorough master of two dead languages, the slow and steady method of our great schools, cannot be much improved upon. Mr. Barrow, however, is candid enough to tell us, that an education at the great schools is a very improper introduction to a mercantile life.

The following remarks are worth the notice of those parents who are ambitious of sending their sons to Eton or Westminster.

"Our public schools, properly so called, are unsuitable places of education for those who are designed for any private station, for the retirement and tranquillity of the country, or the patient diligence of trade. Young men do not there learn the sciences best adapted to such persons; and they usually acquire notions, habits, and connexions, and sometimes vices too, incompatible with their future destination. The mechanic does not willingly receive his apprentice, nor the merchant select his clerk, from amongst the pupils of a public school; nor has the pupil of a public school more inclination than aptitude to become the clerk or the apprentice. Our academics are the places where education suitable to such stations is to be sought; and in many of them it may undoubtedly be found. Sometimes, indeed, an attempt is made to unite the advantages of both. For, in the conduct of education, what absurdity can be named, which human folly has not, in some instance, endeavoured to reduce to practice? From a principle of mistaken pride, from the hope and prospect of valuable connexions, or from some other personal or general motive, a youth is not unfrequently fixed for a few years, at Eton or Westminster, and afterwards placed at an academy, to learn the qualifications requisite for trade. But the first part of this scheme usually frustrates the last. The master of an academy generally finds a youth of this description amongst the most turbulent and refractory of his pupils. He comes prepared to despise alike the persons, the instructions, and the authority of his teachers; and determines not to submit to what he deems the intolerable confinement and degrading drudgery of his destined occupation. He insists, too resolutely to be refused, on an appointment in the navy or the army; and leaves his parents to repent at leisure the disappointment of their hopes, and the folly of their plan."

The author proceeds to give his sentiments on various points, some adapted to different modes of education, others, as health and morals, common to all,

and the reader will find many excellent remarks mingled with notices of elementary books, and directions in the mode of communicating knowledge, which, from an experienced teacher, are valuable hints. These, we must be allowed to think, would have been more extensively useful, had not the author shewn himself so decidedly hostile to the principles of free enquiry and civil liberty. The leaven of high church politics pervades every chapter. Mr. Barrow, as a scholar, ought to know how inimical it would eventually prove to the interests of literature, if, as he strenuously urges, no man were allowed to teach without taking out a licence from the bishop of the diocese. A zeal for establishments both in church and state, seems paramount to every other consideration. The study of the French language is discouraged, lest their books should corrupt the principles of youth; and boys are to be taught religion at school, because *Christianity is a part of the laws of the land*. It cannot be wondered at, that with such sentiments he speaks in terms of pointed disapproba-

tion of those members of the church of England who send their children to dissenting schools. We could suggest to him one reason for this practice. It is because in many towns the established clergy want either the sobriety, the literature, or, at least, the necessity for exertion, requisite to make them able to fulfil, and willing to undertake the task. In his last chapter, on the effects of the French revolution, the author is much too angry to philosophise well.

We observe a singular error of the press, in one of these chapters. It is said, that at one period there prevailed, as we are told by Locke, in his treatise on education, so general a passion for literature, among the ingenuous youth of Portugal, that it was as difficult to restrain them as to excite others. Never having heard this anecdote of the Portuguese youth, we were at first rather startled, till it occurred, that the author must have meant *Port Royal*.

We cannot dismiss these volumes without observing, that they are well written, and in a style flowing and dignified.

ART. III. *The Parent's Friend; or, Extracts from the principal Works on Education, from the Time of Montaigne to the present Day, methodized and arranged, with Observations and Notes, by the Editor.* 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 737.

WHEN books are multiplied, compendiums become necessary, either in the way of abstract and analysis, or by giving what the French are so fond of, under the name of *l'esprit d'un auteur*, a kind of essence, in which resides the spirit and more peculiar excellencies of a writer. This latter method has been followed by the compiler of the *Parent's Friend*, with regard to the most capital books which have been published on education, from which are selected thoughts and observations, ranged, not indeed under the names of the authors, but under the different heads of food, schools, choice of books, obedience, manners, &c. At the end of the different chapters are added not unfrequently a few observations from the editor, who seems to be sensible and unassuming. The list of authorities contains the names of 47 authors, who have either professedly or incidentally written on education, from Montaigne and Fenelon, down to Miss Edgeworth and Miss Hamilton. When the earlier writers are brought into such

close comparison with the moderns, one is struck among other things with the great improvement in point of style. The first passage in the volume happens to be from the celebrated Locke, and begins thus, "I lay it down as a general and certain observation, for the women to consider, that most children's constitutions are either spoiled or at least harmed by *cockering* and tenderness;" let this notable sentence be compared with the energetic expression, the full period and the real harmony of Mrs. H. Moore, which will also be found in these volumes, and we shall be surprised at the contrast. These volumes contain much good matter, and will afford both useful and agreeable reading to those who may not have money to purchase, or leisure to peruse the original authors. Some difference of system will occasionally be seen, which the compiler declares she has not been solicitous entirely to avoid, but in general the sentiments thus collected may be supposed to agree with her own, as we think they also do with reason and



good sense. If the rising generation do not excel all preceding ones, it will surely not be for want of good advice, for

they have line upon line, and precept upon precept.

ART. IV. *Elements of general Knowledge, introductory to useful Books in the principal Branches of Literature and Science; with Lists of the most approved Authors, including the best Editions of the Classics; designed chiefly for the junior Students in the Universities, and the higher Classes in Schools.* By HENRY KETT, B.D. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 450, 480.

A SEVERE sentence has been passed upon every tree that beareth not good fruit, and the same unerring voice said that by their fruit we should know them. Were the parable applied to our universities, we fear the pruning knife would be loudly called for. Like the fig-tree they are leafy and green, and to the eye, flourishing, but where are their fruits? a single Benedictine monastery, says Gibbon, has produced more valuable works than both our universities: notwithstanding the Codex of Dr. Kipling, and the Septuagint of Dr. Holmes, notwithstanding Bampton lectures, and Seaton prize poems; notwithstanding even the Strabo with which the Clarendon press has been thirty years parturient, the assertion of Gibbon remains true.

What has Dr. Parr proved when, with his usual good nature, but not his usual judgment, he strung together the names of all the eminent and would-be eminent men who had been matriculated at Oxford or Cambridge? Orators, statesmen, philosophers, poets are not formed by academical culture, by sleeping at chapel or in the lecture rooms, or by committing to memory the miserable syllogisms which have descended from one generation to another. What lustre can Oxford derive from Locke of whom she boasts, but whom she expelled? It is to the productions which the universities send forth from their own presses, to the labours of their beneficed members of the body corporate of literature that we must look. Is there honey in the hive, or is the nest a nest of drones?

The publication before us is strictly an academical work.

"It contains," says Mr. Kett, "the substance of a course of lectures, which I have occasionally read to my pupils during the last twelve years. The satisfaction which they expressed on hearing them has encouraged me to hope, that they will not prove unacceptable to those, for whose use they are now made public.

"To assert a claim to originality in such a work as this would perhaps only be equiva-

lent to a confession of its demerit. My pretensions to public regard must depend in no small degree upon the manner in which I have clothed old ideas in a new dress, and upon my skill in compressing within a moderate compass the substance of large and voluminous works. Upon all my subjects I have endeavoured to reflect light from every quarter which my reading would afford. My references, and the books mentioned in my appendix, will shew the sources from which I have derived my principal information; but it would be almost an endless, and perhaps a very ostentatious task, to enumerate all my literary obligations.

"There are a few topics indeed, with respect to which I think I may be allowed to assert some claims to novelty. For many of my remarks on the *Greek language* I am indebted principally to my own observations upon its nature and comparative merits; the *history of Chivalry*, important as the influence of that remarkable institution has been upon manners, is a subject upon which I have not been able to collect much information from English authors; and the *history of the revival of classical learning*, although a topic of the strongest interest to every man of letters, has never been fully treated by any writer, with whose works I am acquainted."

The *wordiness* of the introductory chapter brought to our minds an inauspicious recollection of the fig-tree; there are leaves in abundance, but we searched among them vainly for fruit.

"To separate some of the most useful and the most beautiful parts from the great mass of human knowledge; to arrange them in such regular order, that they may be inspected with ease, and varied at pleasure; and to recommend them to the careful examination of young men who are studiously disposed, constitute the design of the author of this work."

We allow Mr. Kett his exordium, perceiving that he commences as naturally with the first "constituent part of a discourse" as a dancing-master places himself in the third position when he begins to make his bow.

Mr. Kett proceeds to shew the utility of general knowledge, and that it is that which produces in mixed parties, the

feast of reason and the flow of soul, that books are quickly circulated throughout the kingdom now, and the times favourable to the diffusion of knowledge; and to prove that comprehensive views of learning and science are calculated to produce the best effects upon the mind, he refers to Quintilian, Milton, and Locke; he then details the good effects of general knowledge, and proceeds to shew in what order he shall arrange its elements.

"I consider myself as assuming the office of a guide to the youthful and inexperienced traveller, and as undertaking to point out the interesting prospects of a charming country, without aspiring to the accuracy of a topographer, or the diligence of an antiquarian. I shall conduct him, who commits himself to my directions, from a low and narrow valley, where his views have been closely confined, to the summit of a lofty mountain: when he has reached the proper point of view, he will feel his faculties expand, he will breathe a purer air, enjoy a wider horizon, and observe woods, lakes, mountains, plains, and rivers, spreading beneath his feet in delightful prospect. From this commanding eminence, I shall point out such places as are most deserving his researches; and finally, I shall recommend him to those who will prove more instructive, and more pleasing companions, through the remaining part of his journey."

The first class consists of two chapters upon the christian religion: this subject as its importance deserves, is treated of at some length, and on the whole well-treated, though on some proofs the author insists with more zeal than discrimination. Class the second, is upon language. We must transcribe the *exordium* of the chapter.

"The principles and characteristics of language render it a subject of pleasing and useful inquiry. It is the general vehicle of our ideas, and represents by words all the conceptions of the mind. Books and conversation are the offspring of this prolific parent. The former introduce us to the treasures of learning and science, and make us acquainted with the opinions, discoveries, and transactions of past ages; by the latter, the general intercourse of society is carried on, and our ideas are conveyed to each other with nearly the same rapidity with which they arise in the mind. Language, in conjunction with reason, to which it gives its proper activity, use, and ornament, raises man above the lower order of animals; and, in proportion as it is polished and refined, exalts one nation above another in the scale of civilization and intellectual dignity."

This is not the only instance of Mr. Kett's proficiency in the use of that constituent part of a discourse, termed amplification; by the proper use of which constituent part, themes and declamations are spun to the length required, as tavern-waiters contrive to make a glass which is but half full of liquor, overflow with froth.

In this chapter the author supports the opinion of Johnson, that language must have come by inspiration, and he adduces some striking etymological instances to prove that all languages were derived originally from one and the same source. If, however, it be true that the different tribes of savages in New Holland do not understand each other, it would follow that languages are confluent, not diffuent. The section upon letters affords another specimen of Mr. Kett's skill in wire-drawing; he expatiates upon their use in epistolary correspondence, informs us that letters record the words of the dead; there needs not one either from the dead or from the university to tell us this. The characteristic distinctions between ancient and modern languages furnish a better section; from this we shall make some selections.

"In proportion as the Goths made more successful and extensive ravages in the Roman empire, their phraseology was blended with that of their captives, and the coarse dialect of Provence and Sicily contributed many ingredients to the composition of the Italian language; in the same manner as the fusion of the precious and baser metals at the conflagration of Corinth is said to have produced the valuable mixture, which derives its name from that celebrated city. As in the features of the Italian ladies, the curious traveller may now discern a striking likeness of the faces engraved on antique gems; so in the language of that country, he may discover a strong resemblance to the original from which it is derived. If it wants the strength and majesty of the latin, it inherits that delicacy and melodious flow of expression, which never fail to charm every reader of taste, in the works of Dante, Ariosto, Petrarca, Machiavel, Algarotti, and Metastasio. It is the singular glory of Italy, that while the early poets and historians of France and England are become in a great measure obsolete, her writers, who flourished so early as the fourteenth century, are read with the fashionable authors of the present times, and share their popularity and applause."

Perhaps our language is the stronger for its slow growth; the richest fruits are the longest in maturing. Our lan-

guage is the slow-growing oak. The southern ones have never exceeded sapling strength.

"Between the languages of Greece and Rome, and those of modern times, a very remarkable difference prevails. The prepositions of the latter, supply the place of the cases of the former; and as these prepositions are of a very abstract and general nature, they shew the progress of the moderns in metaphysical reasoning. Auxiliary verbs are used instead of many of the ancient tenses: these forms of expression contribute greatly to simplify modern languages in point of rudiments and first principles, and consequently render them more easy to be acquired. Still, however, they are subject to faults, which nearly counterbalance their excellence; for they are weaker in expressions, less harmonious and agreeable to the ear, and, as the construction of the words necessarily fixes them to particular situations in a sentence, they are less adapted to the uses of poetry.

"Another very remarkable distinction prevails in *poetry*. Those effusions of fancy which the moderns express in rhyme, the ancients conveyed in metre. In the classic authors, the quantity of words is fixed, the various combinations of long and short syllables give a pleasing variety to pronunciation both in prose and verse, and render every word more distinct and harmonious to the ear. Rhyme was the invention of a dark and tasteless age, and is generally thought, when it predominates in the poetry of a language, as it does in the French, to indicate a want of strength and spirit. It is the glory of the English language to be capable of supporting blank verse; which the French, from its want of energy and vigour, cannot admit even in tragic composition.

"Rhyme is frequently the source of redundancy, and feebleness of expression; as even among the most admired writers, instances frequently occur of the sense being so much expanded, as to be on that account extremely weakened, because the poet is under the necessity of closing his couplets with corresponding sounds. The translation of Homer, by Pope, and of Virgil, by Dryden, afford striking proofs of the truth of this observation. The verbose passages in many of the finest tragedies of Corneille, Racine, and Voltaire, arise from the same cause. In rhyme the sense is usually closed with the first line, or at least with the second. This produces a tedious uniformity, which is particularly unpleasant to those, whose ears are accustomed to the varied periods of the classic authors. Rhyme appears not so well adapted to grand and long, as to gay and short compositions. Its perpetual repetition in the *Henriade* of Voltaire is tiresome: in the stanzas of the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser, its re-

currence, although stated and uniform, is more tolerable, because the pauses are more varied: but it certainly is of all compositions best suited to the lively turn of an epigram, and the ludicrous descriptions of a mock-heroic. As a proof how little rhyme can contribute to the essential beauties of poetry, those persons are esteemed the best readers, who pay the least regard to its regular and stated return, and attend only to such pauses as the sense of an author naturally points out. This may be considered as no slight proof of the comparative excellence of good blank verse, and the ancient metrical compositions."

This is a favourable specimen of Mr. Kett's talents; but at the end of this section he contrives to introduce a panegyric upon the art of writing.

The second chapter of the second class is upon the English language; in this we find some good remarks.

"The same countries, which have supplied the English with improvements, have furnished the various terms by which they are denoted. Music, sculpture, and painting, borrowed their expressions from Italy; the words used in navigation are taken from the inhabitants of Flanders and Holland; the French have supplied the expressions used in fortification and military affairs. The terms of mathematics and philosophy are borrowed from Latin and Greek. In the Saxon may be found all words of general use, as well as those which belong to agriculture, and the common mechanical arts."

The turgid style of Johnson, and the affectation of Gibbon, are deservedly censured: but among the writers of English prose we expected to have seen the great names of Raleigh, Bacon, Bishop Taylor, and Milton. The Latin and Greek languages have been more studied by Mr. Kett, and these are, therefore, the best chapters of his work. The receipt how to be eloquent will never make an orator.

The latter half of the first volume treats of history. Mr. Kett names Clarendon, Robertson, and Henry, as our best historians. This is a bad list. Hume, indeed, we neither expected, nor desired, to find mentioned with praise; but Mitford is superior to the two Scotchmen: and by any but an Oxford critic, Gibbon, affected as he is, would assuredly be ranked as the first, not merely of English, but of modern, historians. We allow his style to be vicious, his opinions erroneous, his mind depraved, but his genius and his learning counter-

balance even these grievous faults. Hume's reputation is on the wane, nor will Robertson's very long survive him: it will one day be discovered, that his mind was meagre, and his information scanty; that he theorised upon possibilities, overlooking, or suppressing, facts.

The section upon chivalry, is one of those for which the author asserts some claim to novelty. Upon this subject he says he has not been able to collect much information from English authors, yet St. Palaye's work, the *single* source of all Mr. Kett's knowledge upon the subject, has been translated by Mrs. Dobson: and knowledge of this kind should be more familiar in a college that can boast of Warton. There are several errors in this part of the work, the more obvious, as the publications of Warton, Percy, Ritson, if the most honest, but most irritable, of our antiquarians will allow us to name him in such company, and, above all, the *Fabliaux* of Mr. Ellis, and the late Mr. Way, have rendered the manners, and the history, of chivalry, familiar. Mr. Kett speaks of Rabelais as burlesquing the extravagancies of knight-errantry: is it with the romances, or with Rabelais, that he is unacquainted? Butler too is classed with Cervantes, as satirizing these books; but Butler only incidentally satirizes what in his days was already obsolete.

"The classical reader cannot fail to be struck with the coincidence in the political state of ancient Greece, as described by Homer, and the condition of the feudal times. The military ardour of the heroes is similar to that of the barons. What are the Grecian Bacchus, Hercules, and Jason, wandering over various parts of the world in search of adventures, conquering giants and monsters, but knights-errant, and the exact counterparts of Sir Launcelot, and Amadis de Gaul, and the Seven Champions? Generosity, courtesy, and hospitality, were the virtues common to them all."

We suspect that Mr. Kett is but little versed in romances; elsewhere he has separated Sir Launcelot from the Knights of the Round Table; and here he brings forward, as exact counterparts to the Grecian demi-gods, two knights, whose actions are uniformly influenced by love, in that excess which is peculiar to romance, and which was utterly unknown in Greece.

"We discover the first dawns of modern literature in the cultivation of the language of

Provence, and the rude productions of the Troubadours. The first of this order, whose name stands recorded, was William, Count of Poitou, a nobleman who distinguished himself by his prowess in the crusades. Many of the men of rank, who embarked in the first expedition to the Holy Land, were of that number. Their romances, composed upon the striking subjects of gallantry, war, satire, and history, first awakened Europe from its ignorance and lethargy, amused the minds of men with grotesque, and lively, images and descriptions, and first taught them to think, reflect, and judge upon subjects of imagination. The Troubadours occupied the middle place between Gothic ignorance, and Italian excellence; and after this period, literature is indebted to them for raising the earliest fruits of European genius, and inspiring the moderns with a love of poetry. Their reputation and their language extended far and wide; and every country upon the continent of Europe could boast its itinerant bards. In the courts of kings, and the castles of barons, they were always hailed as the most welcome guests; and their exertions to please, and to instruct, were repaid by splendid rewards. The commencement of the crusades, and the close of the fourteenth century, mark the limits of their celebrity. The Romance, which had its rise in the manners of chivalry, fell into disrepute as soon as that institution began to decline."

Mr. Kett confounds the Troubadours with the Trouveurs, the poets of the south, with those of the north of France. Le Grand has established the distinction. The history of the Troubadours, which St. Palaye begun, might have taught him that the subjects of their songs were almost exclusively love. Our author also asserts a claim to novelty for his sketch of the revival of classical learning, which he says has never been fully treated by any writer with whose works he is acquainted. Roscoe's life of Lorenzo de Medici is, indeed, in his catalogue; but of the far better work of Tenhove, which Sir Richard Clayton has translated, he seems ignorant.

The history of our own country compleats the historical part of these elements. This class is the worst executed portion of the work: with the classical period Mr. Kett is, of course, acquainted; but when we find him relying upon Sanchoniathon, Berosus, and Manetho; when he speaks of the *patriarchal* state of society in China; when he classes Sebastian Cabot as a navigator, with Vasco de Gama, and Christopher Columbus;

and calls Brama a law-giver, we perceive that he is alluding to subjects, which he has never examined.

With logic and mathematics Mr. Kett is more familiar, and the subjects compel him to more precision. Roger Bacon deserved more notice, as the greatest man, not merely of his age, but of all whom Oxford can boast. Mallet's life of Lord Bacon is called "very excellent." This commendation of a work so notoriously worthless, is, indeed, surprising! The comparative merits of Descartes and Newton, are thus stated:

"They began at the opposite extremes of the physical chain. Descartes boldly attempted to measure the designs of an infinite and perfect being by the standard of his own intellectual powers; and from thence deduced, as by a necessary consequence, the whole fabric of nature, and the development of all her phenomena. Newton, with the diffidence of one, who was truly sensible of the limited powers of the human mind, advanced with slow and steady pace along the road of experiment, and ascended from certain effects, ascertained upon earth to obscure causes, which were concealed in heaven. The one was lost in the intricate mazes of metaphysical hypothesis; the other steered his steady course through the vast ocean of nature, guided by the compass, and directed by the chart of pure mathematics. Descartes, with the audacity of the empiric, who thinks his own medicines a cure for every malady, esteemed the principles of his philosophy sufficient to account for every appearance in nature, and disdained an appeal to fact, for the truth of any of his opinions. But for his honour it must, however, be acknowledged, that if Newton was the discoverer of a greater number of philosophical truths, Descartes, in many instances, pointed out the road to him. He first applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems; and his ingenuity in this respect constituted no small part of his glory. Newton followed his example; his scientific attainments took a wider range, and were adapted to more various purposes. The revolution which Descartes had made in philosophy, by the expulsion of the occult qualities, accidents, and substantial forms of Aristotle from the schools, prepared the way for the doctrines of Newton. Descartes possessed a fine and prolific imagination, which impressed upon all his works the character of genius: he created a new system of physics; and if natural philosophy had been a romance, no writer was more capable of supplying it from his own copious stores with the pleasing delusions of fancy. Newton, with an ardent and penetrating eye, looked abroad upon nature, discovered her genuine character, and

always acting under the control of a cautious and solid judgment, established no principles, which were not perfectly consistent with her real constitution. Descartes, eager to embrace vast and general propositions, attempted to frame a universal system, and disdained the toil and the detail of minute investigation. Newton thought it not beneath the dignity of his philosophical character, to remark the slightest effects, aimed at certainty in particular pursuits; and had the merit, the glory, and the happiness, to be in every pursuit successful."

This chapter concludes with a just and liberal commendation of the rival university, for its attention to mathematics.

Some interesting chapters treat of the works of nature, anatomy, botany, mineralogy, chemistry; enough is said of the sciences to stimulate his pupils to the desire of knowing more. At the end we find an address to the Great Author of all things, which, notwithstanding Mr. Kett's receipt for eloquence, we cannot praise as eloquent.

Upon taste, our author, like all his predecessors, writes vaguely.

"The man of taste extends his observations to the appearances of nature, as well as the productions of art. He discovers beauties wherever they are to be found in the works of God and of man, and is charmed with the harmony and order of the different parts of the creation, and with the endless variety of new objects, which nature presents to his view. The flowers, as they disclose their vivid hues; the animals that move in comely symmetry; the ocean that now spreads its smooth surface, and now heaves its tempestuous waves on high; the mountains that swell in rugged majesty; the valleys clothed in verdant attire; the splendid luminary, whose beams disclose the beauties of the world, and who decks the face of nature with brighter charms; the blue concave of heaven spangled with countless stars, and illumined by the soft effulgence of the moon; all these come under the observation of taste, and supply it with abundant sources of enjoyment."

Substitute feeling or genius for taste in this passage, and either word will equally suit the whole paragraph. "The feelings of that connoisseur are not to be envied," says the author, "who turns from the majestic forms and glowing colours of Reubens, as displayed in the marriage of Mary de Medicis, to censure the introduction of flying cupids, and other allegorical figures." The feelings of no man are to be envied if he attends



to faults, rather than beauties; but surely by taste a quick perception of the incongruous, as well as of the beautiful, is implied. We may add that Mr. Kett's taste is not sufficiently discriminating. There is some merit in his condemnation of the *Henriade*, and of Cato; but when he speaks of genius, he should not class Horace and Tibullus, with great Lucretius; nor Dryden and Thomson, with Shakespear and Milton. This is indeed classing hot-house flowers and garden shrubs with the oaks of the forest. We forgive him for naming the Wartons as men eminent for correctness of taste; they have deserved well of literature, and this praise, though unappropriate, is excusable from a friend.

The seventh, and last class, treats upon the sources of our national prosperity. Upon agriculture and commerce, the author has amplified rather too much. The professions are the concluding topic, and Mr. Kett thus sums up the work.

"May this indispensable and invaluable truth be for ever inculcated by parents and teachers, with a degree of solicitude and zeal proportioned to the importance of the subject, and for ever be remembered by the young, that the honour of the BRITISH CHARACTER, and the stability of the BRITISH CONSTITUTION, must depend upon religion, virtue, and knowledge, as their firmest and

best supports. In the higher ranks of society, and more particularly among PROFESSIONAL men, it is more immediately requisite, that these constituents of personal merit should be carried to the greatest perfection. Every sincere lover of his country, therefore, will be eager to promote, by all expedients in his power, that RATIONAL, ENLIGHTENED, and COMPREHENSIVE system of education, which admits, improves, and perfects all of them; and he will determine, that every channel to useful information ought to be opened, every proper reward offered, and every honourable incitement held out, which may stimulate our ingenuous youth to IMPROVE TO THE UTMOST OF THEIR POWER THE FACULTIES, WITH WHICH PROVIDENCE HAS BLESSED THEM, IN ORDER THAT THE SEEDS OF INSTRUCTION MAY PRODUCE THE MOST COPIOUS HARVEST OF VIRTUE; AND THEIR CONSCIENTIOUS AND ABLE DISCHARGE OF ALL THE DUTIES OF LIFE MAY CONTRIBUTE EQUALLY TO THE HAPPINESS OF THEMSELVES AND THEIR FRIENDS, AND TO THE GENERAL PROSPERITY AND TRUE GLORY OF THEIR COUNTRY."

The language of this work is stiff and laboured; never natural, never easy; it resembles the march of a recruit, not the step of a man. The list of books in the appendix, is, except in the classical part, remarkably imperfect. Mr. Kett, indeed, has acted meritoriously in not hiding his candle under a bushel, but we wish the candle could have given a stronger light.

ART. V. *Poetry Explained.* By R. L. EDGEWORTH. 8vo. pp. 115.

THE family of Edgeworth, unwearied in their benevolent exertions for the benefit of the rising generation, have presented us with another little publication devoted to its service. No one will deny that poetry, when it is given to children, (and it is often given to them, both for perusal, and for committing to memory,) requires a great deal of explanation. Its figures, its mythology, its abrupt transitions, and inversions of the common order, with the various liberties, some sanctioned and some unsanctioned, taken with the rules of grammar, make the language of poetry, especially in English, a different language from that of prose; and the numerous allusions that occur in every page, require the various knowledge of a well-informed mind to comprehend them. Mr. Edgeworth's view in this little piece, is to explain some chosen pieces of English poetry, much in the same manner

as a parent would do in familiar conversation. The pieces he has selected are, *Gray's Elegy in a Church-Yard*; *Milton's Allegro and Penseroso*, and a few others; and those who know Mr. Edgeworth's talents in conveying instruction, will not doubt of his having made them the vehicle of much useful information to the young mind. We consider the book, however, as chiefly valuable to the parent, or instructor, for it is impossible in the compass of a few printed pages, to explain every thing a child has occasion to ask, but the manner is here shewn in which it ought to be explained; and the instructor with this pattern before him, will adapt his information to the age and capacity of the child. Mr. Edgeworth has not taken much notice of what are technically stiled the figures of poetry, which, indeed, have often been treated on, and, in general, his remarks are rather adapted to explain the sense by appropriate

information, than to form the taste by poetic criticism. We could have wished, for instance, that in the stanza of Gray's elegy, beginning, 'The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,' the beauty of the *climax* had been pointed out to the young readers, that they should be led to attend to the *imitative harmony* in such lines as, "Over some wide-watered shore," "Swinging slow with sullen roar," and that, in general, the art of the poet had been more opened. Sometimes too, we miss an article of information which would have been desirable. When Gray speaks of 'knowledge unrolling her ample page,' the young scholar should be informed of

the manner in which the ancients used to roll up the manuscripts. When Milton says, 'Where I may oft out-watch the bear,' he should have been told that the great bear is said to keep watch, because that constellation never sets. We wish too, that some less obscure piece had been substituted in the room of Collins's Ode to Fear. The Odes of Collins are too difficult for a child with any explanation he can enter into. On the whole, however, this little volume will be read with pleasure and profit by young people, and they will find it contains a good deal of miscellaneous information, given in a lively and free manner.

ART. VI. *The Arts of Life.* 1. *Of providing Food.* 2. *Of providing Clothing.* 3. *Of providing Shelter.* Described in a Series of Letters for the Instruction of Young Persons. By the Author of "Evenings at Home." 12mo. pp. 201.

DR. AIKIN, whose peculiar talent in uniting instruction with amusement, is well known, has presented the world with two little volumes for young people. *The Arts of Life*, and *The Woodland Companion*. The first, the Arts of Life, treats of those arts which are of the first necessity under the heads of *Food*, *Clothing*, and *Shelter*. Food is considered as vegetable or animal. Under the vegetable, the kinds most in use are enumerated according as they are adapted for nutriment, by their farinaceous, saccharine, oily, or mucilaginous qualities. A letter on agriculture, gives an outline of the different operations of husbandry in this island, whether employed on grains, legumes, or grasses. Under animal food are noticed the arts of taking the wild, and of pasturing the tame, animals; with an explanation of the way of procuring the useful products of the dairy. A letter on the preparation of food, introduces the young reader to some of the more general processes of cookery, which, as the author observes, may be considered as belonging to physick in its intention, and to chemistry in its practice. Clothing is the next general head, under which we are presented with a succinct account of the material and the manufacture, whether flax, cotton, wool, silk, hair, &c. and few are the readers of any age, who will not meet with some information that is new to them under these seemingly familiar terms. Our readers may take as a specimen the account of flax.

*linen*) is an annual plant, rising on a single stalk to a moderate height, and crowned with handsome blue flowers, succeeded by globular seed-vessels. It is cultivated more or less in most of the countries of Europe, and succeeds best in a strong loamy soil, with a good deal of moisture. It is suffered to grow till the seeds are ripe, and is then plucked up by the hand, laid in little bundles to dry, deprived of its seed-vessels, and then put into pits of water to rot. The purpose of this part of the process is to dissolve a gummy or mucilaginous matter which holds the fibres together. It is the most disagreeable thing belonging to the management of flax, since the smell arising from it while rotting, is extremely offensive and prejudicial to the health, and the infected water is apt to kill the fish which swim in it. When the flax has lain long enough, it is taken out, washed, dried, then beaten with mallets, combed, and by various other operations so prepared, that the long fibres are got by themselves, clean and loose, in which state they are shining, soft to the touch, yet strong. It is this which the manufacturers call *flax*: the shorter and coarser fibres separated by the comb are called *tow*. The staple of flax is longer or shorter, coarser or finer, according to the soil in which it is grown, and the methods used in dressing it. The operation of spinning, which it next undergoes, consists in drawing out with the fingers several of the fibres together, and twisting them. This was originally done by means of a distaff, or rock, on which the flax was fastened, and which was stuck in the girdle, while one hand of the spinner was occupied in drawing out and twisting the thread, and the other in winding it upon a reel or spindle. But this method has long given way to the use of a simple machine called a wheel, in which the twisting and winding are performed by means of a wheel turned by a treadle.

"Flax (in latin, *linum*, whence the word

Spinning has been a part of the domestic occupation of women from the earliest ages; and notwithstanding the modern use of compound machinery, the spinning of flax is usually performed by them at home in the old way. The spinning-wheel is a pleasing object in cottage-scenery; and it is desirable that some employments should be reserved in a simple state, which may fill up the vacant hours of rural life, and offer some reward to humble industry. The product of spinning is thread, which is more or less fine according to the dexterity of the spinner, and the nature of the material. Some thread closer twisted than the rest is kept for needle-work; but the greater part is made up in bundles called linen-yarn, and committed to the weaver."

The art of providing shelter, conducts the reader from the scooping out a rude habitation in the rock, a shelter still practised in some parts of France, to the finishing a house with every due attention to cleanliness and comfort, beyond which the author does not propose at present to conduct us. We hope he will some time or other resume the subject; the clearness of his style, and the variety of his knowledge, together with the incidental touches which mark the man of taste and literature, render all he writes peculiarly valuable for young people.

ART. VII. *The Woodland Companion: or a brief Description of British Trees, with some Account of their Uses, illustrated with Plates. Compiled by the Author of "Evenings at Home."* 8vo. pp. 92.

THE confined knowledge which young persons, and even those of advanced age, are usually found to possess of the noblest products of the vegetable creation, the trees which compose our woods, and decorate our parks and pleasure-grounds, suggested to the writer, that a brief description of them would be acceptable. It is executed with that knowledge of the subject, elegance in the style, and taste in the execution, which might be expected from its author. The trees which are described are those which are indigenous to our country, or have been so far naturalized as to be common amongst us. The descriptions include the generic character, the general appearance and manner of growth of the tree, and the various uses of the wood, bark, &c. These are mingled with those historical notices, and touches of the picturesque, which render the subject equally interesting and agreeable. The work is accompanied by eight and twenty engravings, executed with great clearness and precision, which are copied from the plates in Dr. Hunter's valuable edition of Evelyn's *Sylva*. The following description of the *lime* or *linden* will give an additional idea of the execution of this little work.

"The lime or linden is one of the beauties among trees, and is rather cultivated on that account than for its utility. It grows straight and taper, with a smooth erect trunk, and a fine spreading head inclined to a conical form. Its leaf is large, and its bark smooth. In a good soil it arrives at a great height and size, and becomes a stately object. But it is

seldom viewed single, and its chief glory arises from society. No tree is so much employed for avenues, and for bordering streets and roads. Some of the straight walks of ancient times, which modern taste has hitherto spared, are beautiful specimens of the pointed arch made by the intersection of branches, which has been supposed to be imitated in the Gothic architecture of cathedrals. In viewing one of these noble works of nature disciplined by art, who will not exclaim with Cowper,

Ye fallen avenues! once more I mourn  
Your fate unmerited, once more rejoice  
That yet a remnant of your race survives.  
How airy and how light the graceful arch,  
Yet awful as the consecrated roof  
Re-echoing pious anthems! while beneath  
The chequered earth seems restless as a flood  
Brushed by the wind.

*Task, b. 1.*

"The lime comes early into leaf, and its verdure is one of the first harbingers of spring beheld in great towns, where it often decorates the squares and public walks. Its flowers are highly fragrant, and are very attractive to the bees, which gather much honey from them. An infusion of them is said to make a pleasant tea. The sap of the tree contains sugar. Lime wood is soft and light, and therefore only fit for uses requiring little strength. It is used by shoemakers and leather-cutters to cut leather upon, as not being liable to turn the edge of their knives. The closeness of its grain, joined with softness, and the property of not being readily attacked by the worm, has caused it to be chosen by carvers for the rich ornamental work with which churches and palaces were formerly decorated. Mr. Evelyn mentions it as the material employed by the celebrated artist Gibbon for his beautiful fes-

toons and other sculptures. It makes good charcoal for designers. Its inner bark, soaked in water, yields a fibrous matter fit

for ropes and fishing nets. The Russia mats, and the bark shoes of the peasants, are made of this material."

ART. VIII. *Lecteur François : ou Recueil de Pièces en Prose et en Vers, tirées des meilleurs Ecrivains. Pour servir à perfectionner les jeunes Gens dans la Lecture ; à étendre leur connoissance de la langue Française ; et à leur inculquer des Principes de Vertu et de Piété.* Par LINDLEY MURRAY, Auteur d'une *Grammaire Angloise, &c.* 8vo. pp. 400. *The French Reader ; or a Collection of Pieces in Prose and Verse ; taken from the best Authors, &c.*

THE favourable reception which Mr. Murray's "English Reader," and his "Sequel to the English Reader" experienced, has encouraged him to hope that a work of the same nature in the French language might also be received with similar approbation. Mr. M. in all probability will not be disappointed in his expectations; the extracts of which the present volume consists, are for the most part selected from eminent writers of the Augustan age of Louis XIV.

In turning over the pages, we see the illustrious names of Boileau, Buffon, Delille, Fenelon, Fontaine, Fontenelle, Gesner, Massillon, Olivet, Pascal, the two Racines, Rollin, Rousseau, Voltaire, &c. &c. &c. A work supported by such pillars, cannot be weak in its structure. The notes contain slight biographical sketches of the authors, sometimes interspersed with a few critical remarks on their writings.

ART. IX. *Leçons de Fenelon, extraites de ses Ouvrages pour l'Education de l'Enfance, & accompagnées de Notes.* Par M. de LEVIZAC. 12mo. pp. 359. *Lessons, extracted from the Works of Fenelon, for the Instruction of Youth. With Notes, by M. de LEVIZAC.*

AS a critic, a grammarian, and a man of taste, there are few persons who rank higher than the Abbé Lévizac; as an elegant and moral writer, there are few that reach the eminence of Fenelon. Anxious that good taste, elevation of sentiment, and purity of morals, should preside over the education of youth, the abbé has made this selection, and offered it for their acceptance. He has divided his little volume into five books; the

first consists of fables, the second of history, the third of descriptive pieces, the fourth of dialogues, and the fifth of moral maxims and duties. The notes will be found extremely useful to young persons; they explain allusions, contain occasional remarks on the style of the author, and briefly afford such historical and mythological elucidations as are necessary to render particular passages intelligible.

ART. X. *Moral Tales ; from the Italian of Francesco Soane.* By P. R. ROTA. Small 8vo. pp. 235.

THE original of these tales won the prize at Brescia, instituted by Count Carlo Bettoni, for the best collection of moral tales, destined to excite the love of virtue and detestation of vice in youthful

minds. After so flattering a testimony of their merit, we can only say that they are not unworthy of the estimation which they enjoy on the continent.

ART. XI. *Eight historical Tales, curious and instructive.* 1. *The Unfortunate Damascenes.* 2. *Jetzer.* 3. *Arden of Feversham.* 4. *The Gowrie Conspiracy.* 5. *Massaniello.* 6. *The Campden Wonder.* 7. *The Mysterious Letters.* 8. *Ivan the Third.* Small 8vo. pp. 284.

IT is really an important object to divert the attention of young persons from the vile trash which is distributed among them with such fatal activity by our circulating libraries, and to persuade them that in the pages of authentic history are recorded facts, equally interesting, and infinitely more important than any fables which are decked in

the most fascinating imagery of romance.

The compiler of these tales has consulted different writers for the same narrative; he has quoted his authorities, and they are among our best historians. We must not omit to remark, that the style in which the tales are told, is quite unaffected and correct.

ART. XII. *The Friendly Adviser and Juvenile Monitor; being a Series of Examples intended to correct the Failings and improve the Judgment of Youth. To which are added, Thoughts on the first Principles of Religion, and the great Importance of early Piety.* By SARAH WHEATLEY. 16mo. pp. 208.

WE have looked over these pages with pleasure: the stories are told in a very plain and simple style, and will be read with interest and advantage by those for whom they are intended.

ART. XIII. *Bible Stories. Memorable Acts of the ancient Patriarchs, Judges, and Kings; extracted from their original Historians. For the Use of Children.* By WILLIAM SCOLFIELD. In 2 vols. 16mo. pp. about 190 each.

THESE stories are much abbreviated, but they are abbreviated in the phraseology of the original. We are not certain that it is not better to invite children to the perusal of them in their unmitigated state. In a preface Mr. Scolfield animadverts on the tendency of our modern Lilliputian libraries: he thinks that our fashionable works of instruction for children are calculated, indeed, to improve the head, but not to warm the heart, and to unfold the powers of imagination and genius. The remark, we trust, is not founded on an accurate and extensive observation.

ART. XIV. *Family Stories; or, Evenings at my Grandmother's: intended for young Persons of eight Years old.* By MISS GUNNING, *Author of the Packet, &c.* 12mo. 2 vols. pp. 235.

THESE are fairy tales; but ill adapted to amuse, and certainly not at all to instruct children of eight years old.

ART. XV. *Maternal Instruction, or Family Conversations on moral and entertaining Subjects; interspersed with History, Biography, and original Stories: designed for the Perusal of Youth.* By ELIZABETH HELME, *Author of "Instructive Ram-*

*bles in London," &c. &c.* 2 vols. small 8vo. pp. 420.

THESE little stories are interesting and instructive, and may be put into the hands of children at about ten years old, with much advantage.

ART. XVI. *The Accountant's Practical Guide: in which a regular Gradation of useful Business is contrived, so as expeditiously to qualify the Student for commercial Employment, or Artificers' Computations.* By J. H. WICKS, *Englefield-House, Eggham, Surrey.* Small 8vo. pp. 137.

AN useful school-book: the arrangement seems to be good, the explanations concise, and the examples numerous.

ART. XVII. *A brief Epitome of the History of England, from the Conquest of 1066 to the Accession of our Gracious Sovereign George the Third: calculated to exercise the Memory of the infant Readers of History, as well as to excite their Curiosity to the Perusal of the more enlarged Abridgements.* By S. ZIEGENHEIT. 2 vols. 16mo. about 140 pp. each.

IN order to give an idea of this work, we must extract a sentence:

"FIRST OF THE NORMAN RACE.

"— the First, surnamed the —. 1066.

"Son of — Duke of — and — of —, at which place he was born in —. He succeeded his father in the dukedom at nine years old.

"Under pretence of being left heir to the crown of — by the will of — the —, he invaded it in the year —; landed at — in Sussex, and sent his fleet back to —, to prevent any whom cowardice might urge to it from deserting him."

These blanks are to be filled up by children: when three or four of them are assembled, some counters are to be distributed among them, and if the first reader cannot fill up the blanks, she must put a forfeit into the pool, and pass it to the next, &c. This is, indeed, making game of instruction. In a third volume is given a key to the blanks.



## CHAPTER IX.

## BIOGRAPHY.

THIS interesting department of literature has received, during the last year, some very valuable contributions. Mr. Shepherd's *Life of Poggio*, presents us with much curious information concerning those Italian worthies who devoted themselves to the cultivation and revival of literature and good taste. If the comparative want of celebrity in his hero, render the labour of his biographer but little prepossessing, it is a misfortune not only to the author, but to the public, who are thus inadvertently deprived of much gratification. Mr. Coxe has displayed great judgment and impartiality in his *Life of Lord Walpole*; a publication which, if not calculated to delight the flimsy sentimental taste of the age, may confidently appeal from the multitude to the discerning few, and rest secure of the lasting gratitude of the political historian. Dr. Aikin's excellent *General Dictionary of Biography* proceeds with unabated vigour, and promises to be a most honourable monument to the taste, the judgment, and impartiality of the writers. Miss Hays, in vindication of the intellectual powers of her own sex, has published a *Biography of eminent Women*, a work which does credit to her correctness and flow of style, though exposed to objections on other accounts. Dubroca's *Anecdotes*, though deficient in authority, and with something of an air of romance, are deeply interesting, and awaken the most lively sympathy for those heroic women, whose devoted attachment as mothers, daughters, and wives, was so cruelly put to the test by the atrocious horrors that have eternally disgraced the French revolution.

A<sup>nt</sup>. I. *The Life of Poggio Bracciolini*. By the Rev. WM. SHEPHERD. 4to. pp. 492.

IN order to constitute a proper subject for a separate and extensive biographical work, it seems necessary that the hero should either be so elevated by rank and station as to form a kind of centre to the great events and characters of a particular period, or that he should himself possess a very distinguished place in the class of mankind to which he belongs. Without one of these conditions, unless indeed where the features of character and the incidents of life are very remarkable, an interest will be wanting to keep up the reader's attention through the details of a long narrative. There is however a method by which, through the skill of a writer, a subordinate personage may be made the theme of a work which, though long, shall not prove tedious; this is the judicious mixture of

collateral matter, slightly, perhaps, connected with the main subject, yet sufficiently so, not to appear intrusive and irrelevant.

The name of *Poggio Bracciolini*, scarcely known to any but practised philologists, will probably be thought too deficient in celebrity to be happily prefixed to a quarto volume; and true it is, that it cannot claim a place among either of the biographical classes above described. Poggio was one of a constellation of learned men, who were laudably engaged in the revival of elegant literature; but he was by no means the most considerable of them either in point of erudition or of industry. His civil condition during the greatest part of his life was that of a secretary in the Roman chancery, which was finally exchanged

for the chancellorship of the Tuscan republic. Many scholars have risen higher, and been capable of exerting a greater influence upon public affairs. But although these leading circumstances relative to his person appear of no great promise, yet they connect him with a chain of literary and political history, fertile in objects of curiosity and interest. The characters of his fellow-labourers in literature, and the success of their efforts in bringing to light the dormant authors of antiquity, furnish copious matter for the scholar's information; while the many vicissitudes of the court of Rome, during the long period of his connection with it, the acts of councils and intrigues of statesmen, present striking pictures to the politician.

Mr. Shepherd, whose model in composition appears to have been the admired Lorenzo de Medici of Mr. Roscoe, has not been backward to avail himself of every advantage which his subject afforded; and so widely has he gleaned for materials, that he is sometimes in danger of being overwhelmed by his riches, and the *Life of Poggio* is in some chapters "*pars minima sui.*" We do not mean to blame a liberty which has enabled him to expand a narrow topic to a bulk which gives it importance, while its variety renders it entertaining. The author may perhaps have deviated from the just rules of biography, but he has digressed with skill, and consulted both the instruction and amusement of his reader. We shall give a brief sketch of the matter of his volume, with some extracts by way of specimens of his style and manner.

In the first chapter, the hero is launched into the world in 1380, and notices are given of some men of learning with whom he was connected, as John of Ravenna, Manuel Chrysoloras, and Leonardo Aretino. The papal schism of the west, the distracted state of the Roman see and of Italy in general, and the convocation of the council of Constance are touched upon.

The second chapter is chiefly occupied with the sitting of the council of Constance and the tragical or rather heroical scenes of the condemnation and martyrdom of John Huss and Jerome of Prague. The story of the latter is admirably related by Poggio, who was an eye-witness, and by no means an unfeel-

ing or bigotted one, of his trial and death. We shall quote a part of it.

"His observations were so weighty that little credit would have been given to the depositions of the witnesses for the prosecution, in any other cause except in a trial for heresy. He moreover added, that he had voluntarily come to the council, in order to defend his injured character, and gave an account of his life and studies, which had been regulated by the laws of duty and of virtue. He remarked, that holy men of old were accustomed to discuss their differences of opinion in matters of belief, not with a view of impugning the faith, but of investigating the truth. That St. Augustine and St. Jerome had thus differed in opinion, and had upon some points even held contrary sentiments, without any suspicion of heresy. All the audience entertained hopes, that he would either clear himself by retracting the heresies which were objected to him, or supplicate pardon for his errors. But he maintained that he had not erred, and that therefore he had nothing to retract. He next began to praise John Huss, who had been condemned to the flames, calling him a good, just, and holy man, a man who had suffered death in a righteous cause. He professed, that he himself also was prepared to undergo the severest punishment with an undaunted mind, declaring that he had submitted to his enemies, and to witnesses who had testified such shameful falsehoods; who would however, on some future day, give an account of what they had said, to a God who could not be deceived. When Jerome made these declarations, the assembly was affected with the greatest sorrow; for every body wished, that a man of such extraordinary talents should repent of his errors and be saved. But he persisted in his sentiments, and seemed to court destruction. Dwelling on the praises of John Huss, he said, that he had entertained no principles hostile to the constitution of the holy church, and that he only bore testimony against the abuses of the clergy, and the pride and pomp of prelates; for that since the patrimony of the church was appropriated first to the poor, then to strangers; and lastly, to the erection of churches, good men thought it highly improper that it should be lavished on harlots, entertainments, dogs, splendid garments, and other things unbecoming the religion of Christ. It may be mentioned, as the greatest proof of Jerome's abilities, that, though he was frequently interrupted by various noises, and was teased by some people who cavilled at his expressions, he replied to them all, and compelled them either to blush or be silent. When the clamour incommoded him, he ceased speaking, and sometimes reproved those who disturbed him. He then continued his speech, begging and entreating them to suffer him to speak, since this

was the last time they would hear him. He was never terrified by the murmurs of his adversaries, but uniformly maintained the firmness and intrepidity of his mind. It is a wonderful instance of the strength of his memory, that, though he had been confined three hundred and forty days in a dark dungeon, where it was impossible for him to read, and where he must have daily suffered from the utmost anxiety of mind, yet he quoted so many learned writers in defence of his opinions, and supported his sentiments by the authority of so many doctors of the church, that any one would have been led to believe that he had devoted all the time of his imprisonment to the peaceful and undisturbed study of philosophy. His voice was sweet, clear, and sonorous; his action dignified, and well adapted either to express indignation, or to excite compassion, which however he neither asked or [nor] wished for. He stood undaunted and intrepid, not merely contemning, but like another Cato, longing for death. He was a man worthy to be had in everlasting remembrance. I do not commend him for entertaining sentiments hostile to the constitution of the church; but I admire his learning, his extensive knowledge, the suavity of his eloquence, and his ability in reply. But I am afraid that all these endowments were bestowed on him by nature, in order to effect his destruction. As he was allowed two days for repentance, several learned men, and amongst the rest, the cardinal, of Florence, visited him with a view of persuading him to change his sentiments, and turn from the error of his ways. But as he pertinaciously persisted in his false notions, he was condemned as guilty of heresy, and consigned to the flames. No stoic ever suffered death with such constancy of mind. When he arrived at the place of execution, he stripped himself of his garments, and knelt down before the stake, to which he was soon afterwards tied with wet ropes and a chain. Then great pieces of wood, intermixed with straw, were piled as high as his breast. When fire was set to the pile, he began to sing a hymn, which was scarcely interrupted by the smoke and flame. I must not omit a striking circumstance, which shews the firmness of his mind. When the executioner was going to apply the fire behind him, in order that he might not see it, he said, come this way, and kindle it in my sight, for if I had been afraid of it, I should never have come to this place. Thus perished a man, in every respect exemplary, except in the erroneousness of his faith. I was a witness of his end, and observed every particular of its progress. He may have been heretical in his notions, and obstinate in preserving in them, but he certainly died like a philosopher. I have rehearsed a long story, as I wished to employ my leisure in relating a transaction which surpasses the events of ancient history. For neither did

Mutius suffer his hand to be burnt so patiently, as Jerome endured the burning of his whole body; nor did Socrates drink the hemlock as cheerfully as Jerome submitted to the fire."

The serious matter of this chapter is relieved by a very entertaining and humorous account of the baths of Baden, which Poggio visited for his health, and describes to a friend. It will give the reader a much stronger conviction of the simplicity than of the innocence of those early ages.

Chapter 3, affords memoirs of Guarino Veronese and Francesco Barbaro, and cardinal Zabarella, and relates a journey made by Poggio in search of ancient manuscripts, with its success. The termination of the schism and dissolution of the council dismiss Poggio to a visit to England on the invitation of cardinal Beaufort, which naturally introduces some notices of the state of literature and of society at that time in our island. These, however, are less ample than might have been wished. A furious quarrel between Leonardo Aretino and Niccolo Niccoli, about a mistress, is one of the too numerous instances this work affords, of the disgraceful conduct of the literary ornaments of that age.

The fourth chapter is principally employed on public transactions. Poggio, however, has a considerable part in it, on account of his dialogue on avarice, and the satire he bestowed on the *Fratres Observantia*, and other monastic orders. We view him, in this respect, almost as the precursor of Erasmus.

The fifth chapter is likewise historical, relating to the elevation of Eugenius IV. to the popedom, and his politics; with the meeting of the council of Basil, and their proceedings against the pontiff, which we cannot but think Mr. S. too much stigmatizes as rash and violent. If there was any use in those synods of the Christian church, and any just foundation for the authority they pretended over the popes, it was necessary with a high hand to support that superiority which they knew to be extremely galling to the Roman court, and exposed to all its attacks, open and secret. Eugenius was most pertinaciously contumacious, and the council could not be more indulgent than it was without totally relinquishing its prerogatives. His flight from Rome was the cause of Poggio's misfortune in falling

into the hands of the soldiers of the opposite party, who extorted from him a large ransom.

The state of parties in Florence, and the political rise and fall of Cosmo de Medici, are the chief topics of the sixth chapter. The banishment of this great character introduces a long consolatory letter from Poggio, in which the common arguments for resignation and fortitude are dwelt upon with some eloquence, but rather too much of philosophical declamation. The famous scholar Francesco Filelfo (Philephus) is next brought upon the stage, whose enmity to the house of Medici involved him in a very acrimonious contention with Poggio. Each of them poured forth a torrent of classical scurrility against his antagonist, to their mutual discredit; and we could have spared Mr. S. the unpleasant labour of translating a passage of three pages from the nauseous Latin heroics of Filelfo on the occasion.

Chapter 7, continues the history of pope Eugenius and his contests. A more pleasing theme is the rural retreat of Poggio, from the description of which we shall make an extract, as a specimen of our author's style in original writing.

"Whilst the power and activity of the pontiff's enemies seemed to throw a considerable degree of uncertainty upon his future destiny, Poggio appears to have made preparations permanently to fix his residence in the Tuscan territory. With this view he purchased a villa in the pleasant district of Valdarno. In the choice of the situation of his intended mansion, he was guided by that love of rural retirement which is generally experienced by men of contemplative minds, who are compelled by the nature of their occupation to engage in the active scenes of society. To him who has been distracted by the bustle and tumult of a court, whose spirits have been jaded by the empty parade of pomp, and whose ingenuous feelings have been wounded by the intrigues of ambition,

the tranquil pleasures and innocent occupations of a country life appear to possess a double charm.

"Whilst Poggio was thus providing for himself a place of peaceful retirement, he received from the administrators of the Tuscan government a testimony of respect, equally honourable to the givers and to the receiver. By a public act which was passed in his favour, it was declared, that whereas he had announced his determination to spend his old age in his native land, and to dedicate the remainder of his days to study; and whereas his literary pursuits would not enable him to acquire the property which accrued to those who were engaged in commerce, he and his children should from thenceforth be exempted from the payment of all public taxes\*.

"The fortune of Poggio was, indeed, still very small, and consequently his villa could not vie in splendour with the palaces of the Tuscan aristocracy, but he wisely attempted to compensate by taste what he wanted in magnificence. In pursuance of this design he rendered his humble mansion an object of attention to the lovers of the liberal arts, by the treasures of his library, and by a small collection of statues, which he disposed in such a manner as to constitute a principal ornament of his garden, and the appropriate furniture of an apartment, which he intended to dedicate to literary conversation†.

"The study of ancient sculpture had long engaged the attention of Poggio, who was not less diligent in rescuing its relics from obscurity, than in searching for the lost writers of antiquity. During his long residence in Rome, he assiduously visited the monuments of imperial magnificence, which fill the mind of the traveller with awe, as he traverses the ample squares and superb streets of the former mistress of the nations. The ruins of these stupendous edifices he examined with such minute accuracy, that he became familiarly acquainted with their construction, their use and their history‡. Hence the learned men who had occasion to repair to the pontifical court, were solicitous to obtain his guidance in their visits to these wonderful specimens of industry and taste§. Whenever the avarice or the curiosity of his

\* Apostolo Zeno *Dissertatione Vossiana*, tom. i. p. 37, 38.

† Poggii *Opera*, p. 65, 67. *Meli vita Ambrosii Traversarii*, p. lii.

‡ The catalogue of Reliques of Roman Architecture, which Poggio has inserted in the interesting premiss to his dialogue *De vanitate Fortunæ*, evinces the diligence and care with which he had surveyed the ruins of ancient Rome. This catalogue did not escape the extensive researches of Gibbon, who has introduced it into the 71st chapter of his *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.

§ "Poggius noster sæpe mecum est; reliquias civitatis probe callens nos comitatur.

*Ambrosii Traversarii Epistola*, p. 407.

In a letter to Bartolomeo Faccio, Poggio thus invites him to visit the ruins of Rome. "Video te cupere urbem visere, et certe nisi inceptum opus, ut ais impediret hortarer, te ad inspicendas reliquias urbis quæ quondam orbis lumen præclarissimum fuit. Equidem quamvis in ea jam pluribus annis ad ipsa juvenute fuerim versatus, tamen quotidie tamquam novus incola tantarum rerum admiratione obstupe co, recreoque persæpe animam visu æorum adificiorum, quæ stulti propter ingenii imbecillitatem a Dæmonibus facta dicunt. Faccio de viris Illustribus, p. 97.

contemporaries prompted them to search into the ruined magnificence of their ancestors. Poggio attended the investigation, anxious to recover from the superincumbent rubbish, some of those breathing forms, the offspring of Grecian art, which the refined rapacity of Roman imperators, had selected from amongst the spoils of Greece, as ornaments worthy to adorn the temples and palaces of the capital of the world. Nor did he confine these researches to the precincts of Rome. The neighbouring district witnessed his zeal for the restoration of the monuments of ancient sculpture. With this interesting object in view, he visited Crypta Ferrata, Tusculum, Ferentinum, Alba, Arpinum, Alatrium, and Tiburtum\*. Whilst he was fitting up his villa, he had the good fortune to pass through the district of Casentino, at the time when an antique bust of a female was discovered by some workmen who were employed in digging up the foundation of a house. This bust he purchased, and added to his collection†. His enquiries after specimens of ancient art, were also extended into distant countries. Being informed that one Francesco di Pistoia was on the eve of embarking for Greece, he requested him with the utmost earnestness, to procure for him any relics of Grecian statuary, which he might be able to obtain in the course of his travels‡. At the same time he wrote to a Rhodian, of the name of Suffretus, a celebrated collector of antique marbles, to inform him that he could not bestow upon him a greater pleasure, than by transmitting to him one or more of the pieces of sculpture, which he might be able to spare out of his well-furnished gallery§. Suffretus, actuated by a noble spirit of liberality, immediately on Francesco's arrival at Rhodes, consigned to his care three marble busts, one of Juno, another of Minerva, and the third of Bacchus, said to be the works of Polyclethus and Praxiteles, and one statue of the height of two cubits, all which he destined for Poggio||. The announcement of this intelligence was received by Poggio with the highest exultation. The names of such eminent artists as Polyclethus and Praxiteles raised, indeed, in his mind, a prudent degree of scepticism: but he dwelt, with fond anticipation, upon the pleasure which he should experience on the arrival of the busts, and he instantly assigned to each of his expected guests their proper stations in his villa. "Minerva," says he, in a letter to Niccolo Niccoli, "will not, I trust, think herself improperly situated beneath my roof. I will place her in my library. I am sure Bacchus will find himself at home in my house: for if any place is his appropriate residence, that place is my native district,

where he is held in peculiar honour. As to Juno, she shall retaliate the infidelities of her straying husband, by becoming my mistress."

In his 35th year, Poggio thought it suitable to his character and station to make a great reform in his private life. He therefore turned off an old concubine who had borne him fourteen children, and took a handsome young wife, not eighteen. He also, in order to provide for a future family, turned adrift four children, the remaining offspring of his first connection, for whom he had procured a bull of legitimation. His biographer does not seem altogether to approve his conduct on this occasion, but we think he might have stigmatized more severely a pretended reformation, founded only on lubricity and want of feeling. Poggio himself, however, from some epistles translated in this chapter, appears to have been delighted by the joys of wedded love. The subsequent death of Niccolo Niccoli gives occasion to some interesting memorials of that friend to letters.

The eighth chapter contains various details concerning Eugenius and the council of Basil, the council of Ferrara, and the reconciliation of the Greek and Latin churches. It also gives an account of the learned men, Antonio Beccatelli and Ambrozio Traversari; and relates some farther anecdotes of the dispute between Filelfo and Poggio. An analysis of the latter's "Dialogue on Nobility," is the concluding article.

Chapter nine is rendered interesting chiefly by the memoirs of Tommaso da Sarzana, afterwards pope Nicholas V. and by many particulars of Leonardo Aretino, who died within its period. It also analyses Poggio's "Dialogue on the Unhappiness of Princes," a piece which breathes a very free and republican spirit.

Chapter ten opens with the death of Eugenius, the succession of Nicholas V. and a view of the state of Italy at that period. It gives extracts from Poggio's address to the new pontiff, and from his "Dialogue on the Vicissitudes of Fortune," and some other pieces. Squabbles with George of Trebizond, Tommaso da Rieti, and Filelfo, occupy some

\* *Mehi Vita Ambrosii Traversarii*, p. lii.

§ *Ibid.*

† *Ibid.*

|| *Ibid.* p. 329.

‡ *Poggii Opera*, p. 321.



pages. One of the most remarkable circumstances of this advanced period of Poggio's life, is the publication of his "*Liber Facietiarum*," a book of jests; in which he has endeavoured to bestow pure latinity on a number of ludicrous anecdotes and witty sayings, many of them sufficiently impure. That this should be one of his latest performances, gives a strange idea of the manners either of the age or the man. The work was extremely popular; yet we find that it exposed him to some severe and merited censure.

The death of Carlo Aretino, with which the eleventh and concluding chapter commences, made a vacancy in the chancellorship of the Florentine republic, which Poggio was elected to fill in his seventy-third year. This was also about the period of his quarrel with the celebrated Lorenzo Valla, which, though it arose merely from some grammatical criticisms, was carried on with the bitterest mutual revilings, and with such attacks upon each other's moral character, as nothing but the probability of exaggeration and calumny on both sides could prevent from consigning both to eternal infamy. Mr. S. has some very judicious remarks upon this literary animosity, which in all ages has disgraced the profession of letters. We are somewhat disappointed in the very jejune account given of Poggio's last work, his "*History of Florence*," which, from its bulk and subject, must have been the most important of his compositions. We are told enough, indeed, to judge, that it was formed more upon the principles of classical imitation, than of true historical excellence; and was more distinguished for patriotism, than for impartiality. The life of the author was terminated in 1459, at the mature age of seventy-nine; and his character is thus summed up by his biographer:

"It was with justice that the Florentines held the name of Poggio in respectful remembrance. Inspired by a zealous love of his country, he had constantly prided himself upon the honour of being a citizen of a free state, and he neglected no opportunity which presented itself, of increasing and displaying the glory of the Tuscan republic: and this end he most effectually promoted by the splendour of his own accomplishments. He so faithfully improved the advantages which he enjoyed in the course of his education in the Florentine university, that amongst the multitudes of learned men

who adorned his age, he occupied a station of the highest eminence. His admission into the Roman chancery, and his continuance in offices of confidence under eight successive pontiffs, afford an ample proof, not only of his ability in business, but also of his fidelity and integrity. Honoured by the favour of the great, he did not sacrifice his independence at the shrine of power, but uniformly maintained the ingenuous sentiments of freedom. The whole tenour of his writings evinces, that he united to the accomplishments of literature, an intimate knowledge of the world; and many passages might be quoted from his works, to prove that the eye of his mind surveyed a wider intellectual horizon, than fell to the general lot of the age in which he lived. He was warm and enthusiastic in his friendly attachments, and was duteously eager to diffuse the renown of those whom he loved. But acute sensations are not productive of signal virtues alone; they too frequently betray mankind into capital errors. Poggio was as energetic in the expression of resentment, as he was enthusiastic in the testimonies of his esteem. The licentiousness which disgraced the early part of his life, and the indecent levity which occurs in some of his writings, are rather the vices of the times than of the man. Those circumstances did not deprive him of the countenance of the greatest ecclesiastical dignitaries—they did not cause him to forfeit the favour of the pious Eugenius, or of the moral and accomplished Nicholas V. He seems, indeed, to have recommended himself to most of those with whom he maintained a personal intercourse, by the urbanity of his manners, by the strength of his judgment, and by the sportiveness of his wit.

"As a scholar, Poggio is entitled to distinguished praise. By assiduous study he made a considerable proficiency in the Greek language, and became intimately conversant with the works of the Roman classic authors. In selecting, as his exemplar in Latin composition, that most elegant of all models, the style of Cicero, he manifested the discernment of true taste. His spirited endeavours to imitate this exquisite model, were far from being unsuccessful. His diction is flowing, and his periods are well balanced. But by the occasional admission of barbarous words and unauthorized phraseology, he reminds his reader, that at the time when he wrote, the iron age of literature was but lately terminated. His most striking fault is diffuseness—a diffuseness which seems to arise, not so much from the copiousness of his thoughts, as from the difficulty which he experienced in clearly expressing his ideas. It must, however, be observed, that he did not, like many modern authors who are celebrated for their latinity, slavishly confine himself to the compilation of centos from the works of the ancients. In the pro-

sécution of his literary labours, he drew from his own stores; and those frequent allusions to the customs and transactions of his own times, which render his writings so interesting, must, at a period when the Latin language was just rescued from the grossest barbarism, have rendered their composition peculiarly difficult. When compared to the works of his immediate predecessors, the writings of Poggio are truly astonishing. Rising to a degree of elegance, to be sought for in vain in the rugged latinity of Petrarca and Coluccio Salutati, he prepared the way for the correctness of Politiano, and of the other eminent scholars whose gratitude has reflected such splendid lustre on the character of Lorenzo de Medici."

ART. II. *Memoires de Henri Louis Le Kain; publiés par son fils aîné Paris. 8vo.*

LE KAIN is the Garrick of France.

"His figure," says Madame Clairon, "was displeasing and awkward, his stature was low, his voice discordant; yet, with all these disadvantages, he launched from the workshop to the theatre; and, without any other guide than genius, without any assistance but art, he attained the reputation of the greatest actor, and the most interesting and dignified of men. I am not speaking either of his first essays, or his latter exertions: in the former, he doubted, attempted, and was often disappointed; a circumstance that could not fail to happen. In the latter, his strength did not second his intentions. For want of physical faculties he was often tedious and declamatory; but in the meridian of his powers, he approached nearer, than any other of our actors, to perfection."

The present volume consists of selections made by the younger Le Kain from his father's manuscripts.

"I give them to the public," says he, "in the hope that they will deign to receive with some interest these details of an artist, who for nine-and-twenty years continually exerted himself to merit their applause, and whose social virtues added new lustre to the celebrity which he acquired in his theatrical career. He was drawn into it by an irresistible impulse, and all his moments were consecrated to the study of that art which unites such difficulties to such charms. His design, after thirty years of such labour, was to retire to Fontenay, near Vincennes, to a small house which he called his cottage. There, in the bosom of repose and of friendship, his leisure would have been employed in arranging his ideas upon an art which was the constant object of his idolatry; but he died at the very time when he was about to enjoy the fruit of his toil."

We expected to have found some bio-

The view we have given of the contents of this volume, will show that it offers a rich and varied entertainment to the scholar, and considerable amusement to the miscellaneous and cursory reader. The style we think of superior quality; it is firm, energetic, manly, and free from affectation or singularity. The reflections display an enlarged and liberal mind, much above the narrowness of sect or party. On the whole, we consider Mr. Shepherd as enrolled in that list of living authors which will always command the respect and attention of the public.

graphy of Le Kain in this volume; but the only account of his life is a meagre extract from the *Mercur de France*.

"His father was a goldsmith; he himself excelled as a maker of surgical instruments. After the peace of 1748, a number of young townsmen formed themselves into theatrical societies, and established three theatres, of which that at the hotel de Jabac was founded by Le Kain. The regular actors had influence enough to prevent those performances. The Abbé Chauvelin, a Jansenist, interested himself in behalf of the aspirants, and made them play *Le Mauvais Riche*, a comedy by M. D'Arnaud: this was in 1750. The piece did not succeed. Voltaire had been invited to the representation by the author, and, either from tenderness towards M. D'Arnaud, or from pure good humour towards the actors, who took all imaginable pains to support a feeble and uninteresting work, this great man appeared sufficiently pleased, and inquired earnestly who it was that had played the part of the lover. He was informed that it was the son of a goldsmith, who acted for his amusement, but wished to make it his profession. He then expressed to M. D'Arnaud a desire to become acquainted with me, and begged him to engage me to visit him the next morning.

"The pleasure," says Le Kain, "which this invitation gave me, was even greater than my surprise: but what I can never paint, is that which passed in my soul at the sight of this man, whose eyes sparkled with fire, and wit, and imagination. In addressing myself to him, I felt myself penetrated with respect, enthusiasm, admiration, and fear. I experienced all these feelings at once, when M. Voltaire had the goodness to put an end to my embarrassment, by opening his paternal arms to me, and blessing God for having created a being who had moved and affected him by reciting bad verses! He afterwards asked me many questions con-

cerning my situation, that of my father, the way in which I had been brought up, and upon my own views in life. After having answered these questions, and taken part of a dozen cups of chocolate\* mixed with coffee, I replied with intrepid firmness, that I could find no other happiness upon earth, than that of acting; that an unfortunate circumstance had made me my own master; and that having a small patrimony of 750 livres a year, I had reason to hope, that in abandoning my father's trade I should lose nothing by the change, if I could one day be admitted into the troop of the king's comedians.

"Ah, my friend!" cried M. de Voltaire, "never take that step! take my advice, act for your amusement, but never make it your business. It is the finest, the rarest, the most difficult of all talents; but it is degraded by barbarians, and proscribed by hypocrites. France will one day esteem your art; but then she will have no longer a Baron, no longer a Lecouvreur, no longer a Dangeville. If you will give up this intention, I will lend you 10,000 francs, to begin your establishment, and you shall pay me when you can. Go, my friend, come to me again at the end of the week, think well upon the matter, and give me a positive answer."

"Astonished, confused, and affected even to tears, by the goodness and generous offer of this great man, who was said to be avaricious, hard-hearted, and unfeeling, I would have poured out my thanks. I began four sentences without having power to finish one; at length I took leave, stammering, and was about to withdraw, when he called me back, and begged me to repeat some passages from the parts which I had already performed. Without consideration, I awkwardly enough began to declaim the famous couplet of Gustavus in the second act. 'Nothing from Piron!' he cried out with a thundering and terrible voice. 'I do not like bad verses. Repeat all you know from Racine.' Luckily I recollected that being at Mazarin College I had learnt all the tragedy of *Athalie*, having heard it frequently rehearsed by the scholars who were to represent it. I began the first scene, playing alternately the part of Abner and of Joab. But I had not half gone through my task, when M. de Voltaire cried, with divine enthusiasm, 'Ah, my God! what fine verses! and, what is truly astonishing; the whole piece is written with the same warmth, the same purity, from the first scene to the last. The poetry is inimitable. Adieu, my child!' said he, embracing me. 'It is I who prophecy that you will have a heart-rending voice, and that you will one day be the delight of Paris; but, for God's sake! never go upon a public stage.'

"This is a faithful account of my first interview with M. de Voltaire. The second was more important; for he consented, after the most pressing intreaties on my part, to receive me into his house as his boarder, and to erect a little theatre below his apartments, where he had the goodness to make me act with his nieces, and all my associates. He did not learn without horrible indignation, that till then it had cost us a large sum to amuse the public and our friends. The expense which this temporary establishment occasioned to M. de Voltaire, and the disinterested offer which he had made me some days before, convinced me feelingly that he was as generous and noble in his proceedings, as his enemies were unjust in attributing to him the vice of sordid economy." P. 3.

Le Kain remained six months with Voltaire, who defrayed the whole of his expences during that time; and afterwards, by his influence with the Duc d'Aumont, procured his admission into the company of the king's comedians. The actor every where speaks of his benefactor with just gratitude.

"*L'amitié d'un grand homme est un bienfait des Dieux*," is the motto which he prefixed to this narrative. The anecdotes which it contains of Voltaire form the most interesting part of this publication.

"He cannot be accused of having ever first attacked his adversaries; but, after the first hostilities, he showed like a lion roused from his den, and tired by the yelping of dogs whom he could silence only by shaking his mane; some he crushes under his majestic foot, the rest take to flight. I have heard him a thousand times say it grieved him that he never could be the friend of Crebillon; that he had always his genius more than his person; but that he never would forgive him for refusing to approve *Mahomet*. P. 10.

"Every body knows that after the death of the celebrated Baron, and the retirement of Beaubourg, the tragic and comic characters of both these great actors were given to Sarrasin, who followed at a great distance the steps of his masters. This drew upon him a tolerable jest from M. de Voltaire. He had given him the part of Brutus in the tragedy of the same name; the piece was rehearsed, and the gentleness of Sarrasin in his invocation to the god Mars, his want of firmness, and greatness, and majesty, throughout all the first act, provoked the author, till he said to him with an angry irony, 'Monsieur, recollect that you are

\* This was the only food of M. de Voltaire from five in the morning till three in the afternoon. It was only Dr. Tronchin who had power enough to make him change this regimen.

Brutus, the most resolute of all the Roman consuls; and that you ought not to address the god Mars as if you were saying, Good Virgin, please to give me a prize of a hundred francs in the lottery.' P. 11.

"The celebrity is well known which Mademoiselle Dumesnil acquired in the character of Merope, and which she supported for twenty years: yet even this could not secure her from the sarcasm of M. de Voltaire. When Merope was represented for the first time, he thought that famous actress did not discover strength or fervour enough in the fourth act when she reviles Polissonté. 'One must have the devil in one,' said Mademoiselle Dumesnil, 'to reach the tone which you would have me use.' 'Just so, Mademoiselle,' replied he. 'We must have the devil in us to excel in any of the arts.' P. 13.

"A very young and beautiful girl played with me the part of Palmira, in Mahomet, upon M. de Voltaire's theatre. The child, for she was but fifteen, was far from being able to deliver with force and energy the imprecations which she poured out upon the tyrant; she was only young, beautiful, and interesting. M. de Voltaire assumed a gentler manner towards her, and to show her how far she was from conceiving the character, said, 'Mademoiselle, recollect that Mahomet is an impostor, a villain, a wretch, who has had your brother stabbed, who has just poisoned your father, and who, to crown his good works, is absolutely determined to lie with you. If all this little scheme gives you a certain satisfaction—ah! you are right to address him as you do! But if you have any kind of aversion to him, this is the way you must express it.' M. de Voltaire then repeated the imprecation himself. P. 14.

"After my departure from Ferney, in April 1762, M. de Voltaire thought proper to represent the Orphan of China upon his own little theatre. Cramer, the bookseller, had studied the character of Gengis Kan with the Duc de Villars. Every one knows how this great personage pretended to teach acting; he made his pupil Cramer accordingly a cold and heavy declaimer: and M. de Voltaire was not long in discovering it. From the first performance he perceived more than ever, that it is possible to be at once a duke, a man of wit, and the son of a great man; but that neither of these circumstances can give genius to exercise the fine arts, knowledge to understand, or taste to appreciate them. M. de Voltaire in consequence began to hiss Cramer, and promised to torment him till he had changed his manner of speaking. The faithful *Genevese* made incredible efforts to forget all that his master had taught him, and at the end of fifteen days returned to Ferney to repeat the character before M. de Voltaire, who perceiving a great alteration, cried to Mademoiselle Denis, 'My

niece, God be praised! Cramer has voided his duke.' P. 16.

In his letters to Le Kain, Voltaire speaks of the English stage, and the English people, with a modesty and candour peculiar to the French.

"I flatter myself," says he, "that you are not of Mademoiselle Clairon's opinion, who desires to have a scaffold. This is proper only at *La Grève*, or upon the English theatre. The gallows and the hangman must never disgrace the stage at Paris. Let us imitate the English in their marine, in their commerce, in their philosophy; but never in their disgusting atrocities. Mademoiselle Clairon has certainly no need of this unworthy assistance to touch and to soften the heart. P. 196.

"Decorations, pomp, the position of the actors, and dumb show, are necessary; but it must be when some beauty results from them, when all these things combine to heighten the plot and the interest. A tomb, a chamber hung with black, a gallows, a ladder, characters who fight upon the stage, dead bodies, all these are excellent things to exhibit upon the Pont Neuf with rarities and curiosities! But when these sublime puppetries are not essentially connected with the story; when they are introduced without necessity, and merely to amuse the barbers' boys in the pit, we run some risk of degrading the French stage, and resembling the English barbarians only in their bad parts. 198. Madame Clairon, notwithstanding she wished to introduce a scaffold in *Tancred*, with all her genius, was tainted with the same false delicacy of taste. She says, 'the English manners admit on the stage what in this country would be considered as highly disgusting. Richard the Third is represented with all the defects he derived from nature. As it is easier to deform than improve, it therefore requires less efforts to assume a vulgar than a dignified air; but as he who in the same character avails himself of both, has more resources than he who confines himself to one, I am apt to think the dramatic art is less difficult at London than at Paris. *The French critics only admit of elegant and noble figures in tragedy*; they would laugh to see the personage, who was to excite their terror or pity, appear with a humped back, or distorted limbs. Every one is sensible that the greatest monarch may be as ill made, as awkward, and have as vulgar an air, as the lowest peasant in his kingdom; that bodily infirmities, physical defects, and low habits, seem to equalize him with the rest of mankind: but nevertheless, the respect which his rank impresses, the sentiment of fear or love which he inspires, and the pageantry with which he is surrounded, always impart to him a commanding aspect.'

"Le Kain," says Madame Clairon, "could not do justice to Corneille; the characters of Racine were too simple for him. He portrayed the characters of neither of them well, except in some scenes which allowed his genius those striking bursts of passion, without which he never appeared to advantage. His perfection was only complete in the tragedies of Voltaire. Like the author, he constantly appeared noble, true, sensible, profound, vehement, or sublime."

But not only were the characters of Voltaire best adapted to Le Kain's powers, he had the advantage of the author's instructions. One remarkable instance the actor has himself detailed in this volume:

"You request, my friend, some particulars of my last interview with M. de Voltaire. I shall satisfy your curiosity more willingly, because what you have already heard has been incorrect. Soon after the first representation of the *Orphan of China* I made a visit to Ferney. The journals had spoken with great approbation of this new work; but M. de Voltaire wished me to inform him of the particular details which they had not mentioned; and I gave him an account, at once true and satisfactory, of the enthusiasm which his *Orphan* had excited. After a conversation of some length upon the scenes which had produced the most effect, he requested me to repeat my character. I consented with pleasure to a request from whence I expected to derive the greatest advantage. My expectation, in fact, was not disappointed; but I paid somewhat dear for the lesson which I received.

"Our little assembly was held on the following day. Animated by the presence of the circle who surrounded me, I exhibited my part with all *Tartarian* energy, as I had done at Paris, with some success. I was not, however, so engrossed as not to observe what impression it made upon M. de Voltaire; but, far from seeing in his countenance the approbation for which I looked, I discovered in his features the marks of an indignation, and even of a fury, which, after having long gathered in his soul, burst out at last with a terrible explosion. 'Stop!' he cried, 'stop!—the wretch! He kills me! he murders me!' At these words, pronounced with that energetic tone which you know so well, the company rose and drew round him, and attempted to calm him; but he again abandoned himself to his passion, and the most earnest intreaties could not moderate him: it was a volcano which nothing could extinguish. He went out at last, and shut himself up in his apartment.

"Astonished and confused at such a scene, you may suppose, my friend, that I was not anxious to expose myself to a se-

cond. I announced my departure for the next day to Madame Denis, and she could not persuade me to change my resolution. Before I went, however, I requested a moment's conversation with M. de Voltaire. 'Let him come, if he will,' said he. This gentle answer was not very encouraging: nevertheless I went into his room. We were alone. I told him I was going, and expressed my regret at not having answered his intention in the part which he had entrusted to me; and I added, that I should have gratefully received his instructions. These words appeared to calm him. He took his manuscript, and from the first scene I felt how much I had been mistaken in my conception of the character. I should attempt in vain to give you an idea of the deep impression which M. de Voltaire engraved upon my soul, by the sublime, imposing, and passionate tone with which he painted the different shades of character in *Gengis Kan*. Struck with admiration, even when he had finished, I still continued listening. After some moments he said to me, in a voice exhausted by fatigue, 'Do you now, my friend, feel the true character of your part?' 'I believe so, Monsieur,' I replied; 'and to-morrow you shall judge.' I then studied it anew. The effect obtained his approbation; and the most flattering applause was the reward of my docility. I confess to you I was proud at being able to penetrate him, in my turn, with the same sentiments which he had made me feel. All the passions which I expressed, were alternately imprinted upon his softened features. The expressions of his friendship were as affecting as those of his anger had been impetuous: and I left Ferney delighted with the new conception which had been taught me of a character so fine and so difficult.

"I played it again on my return. One of my comrades, who had not overlooked my first error, could not conceal his astonishment at the new effect which I produced; and he remarked, it is evident that he is come from Ferney." P. 326.

Le Kain had not the same respect for other authors as he uniformly and justly showed to Voltaire. Marmontel, who had made many vain efforts to obtain literary fame before he wrote his *Tales*, had altered the *Venceslas* of Rotrou, and brought forward his alteration under the patronage of Madame Pompadour. Le Kain had the part of *Ladislav*, which Marmontel had rendered cold and feeble; but which, in the original, was a character of force and energy. The actor, with rather more confidence than his situation justified, rehearsed the altered character, and played the original one. The public applause justified



his opinion; but Marmontel and his friends were, with good reason, offended at an act of deceit, as well as contempt. One other theatrical anecdote deserves to be repeated. The Vicomte de Grave sat in the pit at the first representation of his own tragedy. At the moment of the catastrophe he cried out aloud, *Ab! que cela est ingenieux!* The audience did not know him, but they took his word; and the piece, whose success had been doubtful, had a run of seventeen nights.

Le Kain had many difficulties to overcome before he was enrolled in the king's company. The pit, indeed, always applauded him; but he had enemies in the green-room, and Louis XV. was prejudiced against him before he saw him act. But then he cried out, "He has made me shed tears—one who never weeps!" This decided his fortune. He and Madame Clairon reformed the French stage, as far as it was capable of reformation: they rejected the ridiculous dresses which had formerly been used indiscriminately for all ages and all countries; and introduced an accuracy of costume which we in England have been tardy in imitating. Le Kain was very solicitous to procure the establishment of a seminary for actors. "It is inconceivable," he says, "why Louis XIV. should have established academies, and instituted schools for dancing and music, and yet neglected a seminary for actors!" Madame Clairon differed with her friend upon this opinion, because genius is requisite to form a great actor, and genius is not to be taught at schools.

The importance which he attaches to

theatrical affairs is sometimes ludicrous. It was at the theatre that kings were to receive lessons of policy, justice, and humanity: that subjects were to learn their duty to God, to the king, to their parents, and their country: that the painter, the mechanic, and the architect, were to improve themselves in their several professions. He relates the petty intrigues of a company of players in the most important language.

"I maintain," he says, "that every society which, by the progress of time, has lost sight of its principles, its constitution, and its customs, must at last change its principles, constitution, and customs. We have relied too much upon the old proverb, *the mill which has ground will continue to grind*; every thing has its period. Even matter itself appears to be destroyed when it changes its substance. The most legitimate complaints have been answered only with irony and sarcasms. What has been the consequence? Wise men have chosen to be silent; anarchy has succeeded to a state of subordination, and the society has broken up of itself; because there is a time when every thing is abolished. This is the ordinary course of things." 98.

All this will do as well for an essay upon the French revolution, as for an essay upon the French theatre.

Some letters from Garrick are inserted in the correspondence. They do not exhibit him in a very favourable light. The greater part of the volume is occupied with dramatic criticisms, which to an English reader are completely uninteresting, and, indeed, can be of little value any where. A very fine portrait of Le Kain is prefixed.

ART. III. *Memoirs of Horatio Lord Walpole, selected from his Correspondence and Papers, and connected with the History of the Times from 1678 to 1757; illustrated with Portraits.* By W. COXE, A. M. F. R. S. F. A. S. 4to. pp. 510. 22 Plates.

MR. COXE has long been known in the literary world as a laborious and useful compiler. The present volume is designed as a supplement to his memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole; it enters more minutely into foreign transactions and diplomatic history, and passes lightly over the home politics which are detailed in that work. The documents from which it is compiled, fill 160 large volumes, or portfolios, of which Mr. Coxe gives this account.

"They comprise,

"1. Mr. Walpole's correspondence with

George II. Queen Caroline, and the other branches of the royal family, at different periods of his life.

"2. His official and private correspondence with Sir Robert Walpole, the secretaries of state, and foreign ministers, from the commencement of his political career, to the resignation of his brother.

"3. Letters of the most private and interesting nature, which passed between Mr. Walpole, the Duke of Newcastle, Mr. Pelham, Mr. Trevor, Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, the Hon. Philip Yorke, late Earl of Hardwicke, and others, from the period of Sir Robert Walpole's resignation to his own death.

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"4. A numerous collection of deductions, memorials, projects, and observations, on a variety of political subjects, together with the draughts of several speeches in parliament.

"5. Mr. Walpole's apology. This authentic document, written by himself, towards the latter end of his life, and still preserved in his own hand writing, contains a candid and lively narrative of his transactions, from 1715 to 1739.

"Among these articles, I have principally availed myself.

"1. Of his apology, the greater part of which is printed in these memoirs.

"2. Of his extensive correspondence during his embassy at Paris.

"3. Of that part of his correspondence with Queen Caroline, and the other branches of the royal family, which was not printed in the memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, particularly his interesting letters to the Duke of Cumberland, in 1746 and 1747.

"4. His miscellaneous correspondence, from 1742 to 1757.

"5. Thoughts on the utility of an alliance with Prussia, occasioned by the approaching death of the king, 1740. Project of a grand alliance, founded upon a good understanding between his majesty and the King of Prussia, October 5, 1740. Rhapsody of foreign politics, occasioned by the conclusion of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, and that with Spain in 1750; and other documents, which are referred to in the course of the narrative.

"6. The substance of a speech on the question for continuing the Hanover troops in the pay of Great Britain, 1743. Substance of a speech in the committee of supply, on the demand of the empress-queen for 100,000*l.* 1749. Mr. Walpole's speech in a committee of the whole house, upon a motion: that a sum not exceeding 32,000*l.* be granted to his majesty, to make good his engagements with the King of Poland, Elector of Saxony, by treaty, 1752.

"In addition to these sources of information, I have had recourse to the various other documents enumerated in the preface to the memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, particularly the Orford, Waldegrave, Grantham, Harrington, Melcombe and Keene papers.

"The Hardwicke papers" supplied me with a series of confidential letters between the Duke of Newcastle, Lord Walpole, Lord Chancellor Hardwicke, and his son, the Hon. Philip Yorke, late Earl of Hardwicke. I have also considerable information from a parliamentary journal written by the late earl, which contains an account of the debates during the session of 1744 and 1745, and details many interesting particulars concerning the dismissal of Lord Granville, and the formation of the broad-bottom ministry.

"I have availed myself of the correspondence between Lord Walpole and Mr. Etough, in the Etough papers; and particularly of a narrative drawn up by Mr. Etough, entitled, 'Minutes of memorable conversations with the late Lord Walpole, baron of Wallerton, with remarks on his character and conduct.'

"I am considerably indebted to Lord Viscount Hampden, for access to the papers of his noble father, who was the confidential friend of Lord Walpole, secretary to the embassy, and afterwards envoy and plenipotentiary at the Hague. This collection contains numerous letters from Lord Walpole, which form an interesting addition to the narrative.

"From the papers of Sir Charles Hanbury Williams, preserved at Pont-y-pool park, communicated by the kindness of Capel Hanbury Leigh, esq. I derived many curious anecdotes; and have been enabled to give to the public some interesting letters of Mr. Fox, afterwards Lord Holland."

Horatio Walpole was born 1678, educated on the foundation at Eton, and, in 1702, chosen fellow of King's College; his fortune was only 1500*l.* The death of his friend the Marquis of Blandford, who had engaged him to accept a commission in a regiment to which he soon expected to be appointed, prevented him from choosing a military life. On this disappointment he entertained hopes of procuring an office in the exchequer, or a small place at court, but instead of losing time in expectation, he commenced the study of the law. This study he relinquished on being appointed secretary to General Stanhope, envoy and plenipotentiary to the Archduke Charles, whom the allied powers acknowledged as king of Spain. A curious instance of Austrian superstition and phlegm, is here recorded.

"This slow court (he says) has at last determined to set out for Valentia, having spent a great deal of time in unnecessary ceremonies, with thanks to the Holy Virgin and St. Antonio; and now they must not omit, though much out of their way, the solemnity of going to Montserrat. The king sets out this afternoon, which being two days later than he had fixed for his departure, excused himself to Mr. Stanhope (who has always been pressing him to lose no time,) and said he staid for his equipage. My master told him, the Prince of Orange entered London in a coach and four, with a cloak bag behind it, and was made king not many weeks after."

\* May 16, and June 23, 1706. Walpole Papers.

Mr. Walpole was then successively private secretary to Mr. Boyle, when chancellor of the exchequer, and secretary of state, and to Lord Townshend, when joint plenipotentiary with the Duke of Marlborough, to the congress at Gertruydenburgh. From the resignation of Lord Townshend to the accession of George I. he held no public office, remaining firm to his party. His name appears as a member of the Hanover club, with Lord Pelham, afterwards Duke of Newcastle, Addison, &c. That club, who testified their zeal for the Protestant succession, by burning in effigy the devil, the pope, and the pretender! In 1713, he obtained a seat in parliament, and seconded his brother in opposing the treaty of Utrecht; a treaty which, in the last essay he ever committed to writing, he thus condemned.

"After a series of wonderful successes for ten years, obtained by us, jointly with our allies, against the common enemy, we made an unequal and disadvantageous treaty of commerce with France. Our ancient privileges of trade to Old Spain, were explained away by a treaty of commerce with that crown; by our separate treaties of peace we sacrificed and abandoned, in violation of all good faith, the interest of our allies; and particularly, our solemn engagements with the King of Portugal (who had exposed himself to the vengeance of France and Spain, by deserting them to come into the grand alliance, and who, at the same time, had made a treaty with us, very beneficial to the trade of this country,) were broken, to oblige Spain; the security of the Netherlands, and of this nation, as well as the settlement of the Hanover succession (which, in consequence, was afterwards attempted to be subverted,) was left upon a very loose and precarious foot, by a new treaty of barrier and succession."

On the accession of George I. he obtained the reward of his attachment to the whigs: and after holding the offices of under secretary of state, and under secretary to the treasury, he was, in 1715, deputed to the Hague, to concur with General Cadogan, the British plenipotentiary, in an application to the States General, for the immediate succour of 6000 men. Having succeeded in this mission, he was afterwards appointed joint envoy with the general. Mr. Coxe has here introduced a sketch of the constitution of the United Pro-

vinces, a "many headed, headless government," whose defects, he says, could only be duly modified and corrected by the office of stadtholder. A far more able account of Dutch politics, is inserted in Segur's history of the late King of Prussia, and a very different conclusion deduced. The writer is, indeed, sometimes led away by the spirit of party, but it is the work of a masterly hand. The integrity of Mr. Walpole in this mission, deserves to be related.

"During the course of the negotiation for the conclusion of the triple alliance, Mr. Walpole gave the most solemn assurances to the states, that no treaty should be concluded with France without their participation. But the impatience of the king to secure the guaranty of France, ill according with the dilatoriness of the Dutch government, a separate treaty was arranged between the Abbot du Bois and secretary Stanhope, at Hanover, and full powers were forwarded to General Cadogan and Mr. Walpole, to sign it, in conjunction with du Bois. Mr. Walpole declined signing a treaty in contradiction to his solemn asseverations, requested instant permission to return to England; and, in a letter to Secretary Stanhope, expressed the agony under which he laboured, 'Having plighted to the States my faith, my honour, and my conscience, in his majesty's name, that nothing of this nature should be done, if I should afterwards sign with the abbé, in violation of these sacred and solemn assurances, which I repeated but last Tuesday in a conference, I should never be able to show my ignominious head here again. And therefore I plainly see, that this business, in which I thought I should have some share of credit, will end in my ruin; because, although I shall ever think it the last misfortune to disobey so good and gracious a sovereign; yet I must licely confess, I had rather starve, nay die, than do a thing that gives such a terrible wound to my honour and conscience, and will make me for ever incapable of serving the king any more, especially in this place, where I have at present some little credit and interest.'"

"He made as strong remonstrances to Lord Townshend and his brother; and after much difficulty, obtained the king's permission to return to England, and commit the signature of the treaty to General Cadogan."

The subsequent events of Mr. Walpole's public life, till his mission to Paris in 1726, cannot be fully understood without referring to the memoirs of his brother.

Sir Luke Schaub, a native of Basle, was, at this time, the English minister at Versailles. Lord Townshend and Lord Carteret were disputing for the ascendancy at home, and Schaub, who was of the party of the latter, suggested to him a scheme which he immediately adopted, to ingratiate himself with the king. This was to negotiate a marriage between Amelia, the king's illegitimate daughter, and the Count de St. Florentin, and to procure, through the king's influence, a dukedom for the Count's father, the Marquis de la Vrilliere. The king warmly seconded this proposal, and Du Bois, who, by English influence had been made a cardinal, an archbishop, and a prime minister, readily promised his assent. On the death of Du Bois, it was expected that Count Nocé would come into power, who had been banished by the late cardinal, and considered Schaub as the cause of his disgrace. Lord Townshend therefore suggested the propriety of deputing to Paris a person capable of ascertaining the state of the French cabinet, and the real influence of Schaub; he obtained the king's consent, and entrusted this office to Mr. Walpole, who, to avoid disgusting Lord Carteret, was not to assume a diplomatic character. With respect to the affair of the dukedom, he was instructed neither to oppose it, lest he should offend the king, nor to interfere in it, if he could avoid it with prudence.

The Duke of Orleans was now in full possession of authority. Mr. Walpole immediately saw the power which Nocé possessed over him, though he was generally supposed to be the regent's social companion only; to this man, therefore, he paid his court, and thus secured the good-will of the duke. Schaub, who was aware of Mr. Walpole's mission, and apprehensive of being superseded, availed himself of the private negotiation relative to the dukedom, to render his continuance at Paris necessary. The duke felt himself greatly embarrassed. Marshal Villars said to him, "your faithful servants cannot forbear representing to you, that you should not let it be said, that the King of England not daring to give his bastard to a lord, of whom he has more than two hundred at home, obliges you to create a duke in France to marry her!" The regent had just explained

his wish to comply with the king's request to Mr. Walpole, and the difficulties which opposed him, when his sudden death prepared the way for the peaceful administration of Fleury.

This excellent man, who had been formerly Bishop of Frejus, was now preceptor to the young king, and hitherto had been so cautious and unobtrusive, that even Mr. Walpole, skilled as he was in reading human characters, mistook him.

"Frejus is not very able, I am told, as to foreign affairs; but a mighty bigot, inasmuch, that the French themselves think him too great a Papist. I have learnt, this day, a particular instance of it, and of his being no great friend to England. The night before I was to deliver my credential letter to his majesty, l'abbé Alaric, sub-preceptor to the king, was in company with Mr. Crawford and me, and, the next morning, being, at his usual hour, with his majesty, he talked to the king of my being to wait upon him that day, and of both of us, in so kind a way as to please his majesty, which Mr. Frejus taking notice of, stepped up, and said, *But these are enemies, Sire, to our holy religion.*"

Mr. Walpole, however, soon became aware of his growing credit and influence with the king; he obtained an interview with him, and that interview led to an intimacy and confidence to which Europe was probably indebted for many years of peace. The minute secret history of this period, is very interesting. The cunning of Schaub, the craft of Bolingbroke, then an outlaw at Paris, are laid open. When we recollect that the business which chiefly occupied the English minister at Paris, was to procure a dukedom for the husband of the king's natural daughter, we cannot refrain from smiling at the miserable intrigues which influence the fate of nations. At length the Duke of Bourbon explicitly avowed the impossibility of complying with the king's desire. Schaub was soon afterwards recalled, and Mr. Walpole nominated ambassador.

For the history of the quadruple alliance, and the treaties of Vienna and Hanover, we are again referred to the work of which this volume forms the supplement. The successful termination of these negotiations was principally owing to the talents of Mr. Walpole, and his influence with Fleury, whose predominance in the French cabinet he

duly appreciated. The ministers at home were repeatedly advising him to pay his court to the ladies who were supposed to govern the Duke of Bourbon; but he was satisfied that the duke himself owed his office to Fleury, and held it only by his forbearance. His conduct during the retreat of Fleury, confirmed their intimacy. There is something very ludicrous in the account of Louis XV.'s conduct, when he learnt that the bishop had retired in disgust. "The king said nothing, but with the greatest appearance of concern in his countenance, suddenly left the room, and went to his own closet, where, to avoid company coming to him, he retired to his *garderobe*, and set himself upon the close stool, in a very sullen and melancholy posture."

"I will not conceal from your lordship, that the bishop's country house being directly in my way from Versailles to Paris, I stopt in my chaise at the end of the village, at my return from court that Tuesday, and sent my servant to enquire, how the bishop did; resolving, in case he gave me any encouragement, to have made him a visit, and to have exhorted him to return to court, if possible; being persuaded, should he retire from business at this juncture, that things would go into the greatest confusion here, and have a dangerous influence on the foreign affairs. He returned me a civil compliment of thanks, and said he hoped, that he should see me in two or three days, and very early next morning he sent his secretary to me, to acquaint me that he was setting out to return to court. I did not think proper to wait upon him at Versailles, until Saturday last, and then I took care to see M. le Duc and M. de Morville first.

"It is impossible for me to express the obliging manner in which the bishop received me, *full of acknowledgment for that mark of my friendship, in calling upon him in the doubtful day of his retirement*; and I hope his majesty will not be displeased at my having taken this step, which honour and gratitude, for his constant behaviour towards me, called upon me to take, whatever his fate might have been, which, I am persuaded, he will never forget."

"The observation of Mr. Walpole, that Fleury never would forget his visit, was verified by the event; and their intimacy was strengthened by this mark of regard. The deference of Fleury to the English ambassador, gave umbrage to the French party, who were adverse to the union with England. Montgon says, that Mr. Walpole had subjugated Fleury, and calls them two fingers of the same hand; Marshal Villars also, and the Duc de St. Simon made the most urgent

remonstrances to Fleury on his subserviency to the English ambassador, but without effect."

While Mr. Walpole was attending his parliamentary business in 1726, the Spanish interest began to strengthen at Versailles. The schemes of Spain were soon destroyed by the disgrace of *Ripperda*. The worthless adventurer who had planned them, the Duke of Bourbon, was soon afterward displaced, and the administration entrusted to Fleury, then in the seventieth year of his age. The dispute between Spain and England, greatly embarrassed the Cardinal. His candid explanation of his own intentions to Mr. Robinson, during Mr. Walpole's absence, is highly honourable.

"The allies," he said, "may trust me, that I shall never receive any proposal without communicating it to them, nor give an answer but what is agreeable to their sentiments. But as much management as I am bound to have for them, I am no less obliged to have some for our own people. The king has, and still honours me with his most intimate confidence; but I am far from having that of the nation in general, who, by the arts of some, or the ignorance of others, are taught to imagine, that I myself am too easy, and entirely led by the English. What is still worse, this evil has crept into the council; and I am often obliged to hear these reproaches thrown to my face; or when certain persons dare not contradict, at the board, the force of my reasons, they are afterwards weak or malicious enough to give out in the world, that I am the only author of all: it is in vain that they oppose me, and sometimes truly, sometimes falsely, arrogate to themselves the public merit of having done so. This is my situation, which would be much worse if I did not appear to be as ready and willing to hear all proposals for an accommodation, as I am resolute and determined to reject all such as cannot be received by the allies. An instance happened yesterday in council, to whom I appealed; applying myself to the king, whether they had not all been of opinion, that the first proposal from the emperor was not receivable? they answered yes; and so of the second. I asked the same of the last, to which they gave the same reply; I then desired they would remember it, that on my side I might hear no more reproaches, and that on theirs they might expect to see me act in consequence of what they then avowed.

"I speak to you," he added, "with sincerity, and as frankly as I write. I flatter myself this openness made my late letter as well received by the king of England as all



my others' are, I hope, by Mr. Walpole. I shew the difficulties I labour under at home, as well as point out to you what you have to rely upon. There is that difference between what I appear to do here, and what I am resolved to do in the main; the one is for my honour, the other for my self-preservation. To do otherwise than I do for the allies, would be to forfeit my word: and I might run the risk of being stoned, if I was thought here to do so much; for you must not imagine that this nation is universally disposed to a war, or will easily be brought to make one upon Spain; and therefore I am at a loss how to answer Mr. Walpole, when he demands that we should declare immediate war against that nation, on the first hostility against Gibraltar. There is the same reason for me not to disoblige the people of France, as there is with him for satisfying the people of England. But we have one method left still to dispose the French to a war, which is by turning wholly upon the emperor, and making him the chief author of it, and sufferer by it; which will have this good effect, to convince the king of Spain, better than all the force in the world, of the emperor's weakness, of which, as well as of his insincerity, his catholic majesty is already grown sufficiently jealous."

"At the conclusion of this discourse, the cardinal added, that the sentiments he then disclosed, were of too delicate a nature to be communicated in a dispatch to the secretary of state, and were only suitable to the intimacy between Mr. Walpole and himself."

Of the secret articles between the courts of Vienna and Madrid, Mr. Coxe speaks thus.

"The speech from the throne, on this important occasion, contained a remarkable passage: 'I have likewise received information, from different parts, on which I can entirely depend, that the placing the pretender upon the throne of this kingdom, is one of the articles of the secret engagements.'

"This charge, formally announced from the mouth of the king, was as formally disavowed by the emperor, and occasioned his imprudent appeal to the British nation, by the publication of his minister, Count Pan's memorial, which roused the spirit of the people, and united all parties in support of the dignity of the throne. This formal charge on one side, and denial on the other, of the two sovereigns, gave rise to a controversy, which occupied the attention of Europe at the period, and is still undecided.

"Mr. Walpole, whose sagacity and information cannot be disputed, and whose sincerity cannot be questioned, believed the existence of these secret articles, as appears from numerous documents and observations in his own hand-writing, found among his papers, not only during the negotiations against

Spain and the emperor, but even in the latter period of his life, when he had no views or interests to promote. Perhaps no proof made a stronger impression on his mind, than the communication of the secret articles by two Sicilian abbots, of great birth and consequence, who received them from King Philip himself, on the 15th of November, 1725, for the purpose of making their observations."

The existence of this treaty, as asserted in Mr. Coxe's former work, has been controverted with too little urbanity by Mr. William Belsham. Mr. Coxe has now subjoined one of the articles, as communicated to Platania and Caraccioli, the two Sicilian abbots, by King Philip himself.

"Their Cesarean and Catholic majesties, foreseeing that the King of England will oppose the execution of such designs, as well in regard to his particular interests, as not to lose his umpireship in Europe, for which reason he will undoubtedly engage the English nation, and unite the Dutch and other princes in his league, they oblige themselves to seek all methods to restore the pretender to the throne of Great Britain; to which end the Catholic king was to make use of the pretence of the restitution of Gibraltar, which he was to demand immediately as soon as the peace of Vienna was published.

"The free remarks which these ecclesiastics made on the secret articles, inflamed the resentment of Philip, and he banished them from Spain. They then retired into France, enjoyed the protection of the French government, and imparted much useful intelligence to Mr. Walpole. I trust this document, in addition to those already published, will show the futility of opposing *vague conjectures* and *perverted reasoning* against positive fact."

We agree with Mr. Coxe, that Mr. Walpole manifestly believed the existence of these secret articles, and that his sagacity and information cannot be disputed. Such a design was consistent with the character of Ripperda, and the interest of the confederating powers.

The interest of Mr. Walpole at Versailles prevailed against the Spanish party. France co-operated with vigour and effect in counteracting the designs of Spain and the Empire; the Emperor was intimidated, and signed the preliminaries of peace at Paris; Philip, thus abandoned, was compelled to accept the conditions obtained for him; and the preliminaries were signed on the part of Spain also: but the death of George I.

at this period, materially changed the situation of affairs. The Jacobites at Paris, with Atterbury at their head, began to cabal anew for the restoration of the worthless line of Stuart. They openly avowed their hopes; rumours were spread that the two branches of the house of Bourbon were about to unite and compel England to receive its lawful sovereign; that Fleury had deceived the English; that even if the accession of George II. was undisturbed, Lord Townshend and Sir Robert Walpole would be displaced, and Mr. Walpole recalled from Paris. The cardinal, however, convinced his friend of his sincerity, and advised him immediately to go to London, to receive the king's orders in person, and explain to him the situation of affairs. Your excellency, said the cardinal, will do more in one or two conferences, than in volumes of letters. In conformity with this prudent advice, Mr. Walpole instantly departed. The king had announced his intention of displacing Sir Robert, whom queen Caroline was labouring to support: he received Mr. Walpole coldly, and appeared extremely dissatisfied that he had quitted his post without orders; but this interview and Fleury's letter decided the king, and he resolved to continue the system which his father had pursued. In consequence, he wrote, with his own hand, a gracious letter to Fleury: the manner in which it was received, indicates some weakness in the cardinal. Mr. Robinson has thus related it.

"Your grace's other dispatch, inclosing his majesty's letter to the cardinal, required immediate execution: and having heard that his eminence was at Issy, near Paris, instead of accompanying the French king, as it was thought he would have done, to Rambouillet, I sent thither to demand his leave, and his hour, for my waiting upon him; which he having given for any time of the day, I did not lose a moment in going to present to him the king's letter, which his eminence opened and read in my presence; and it was easy to perceive, by his looks, what sensible pleasure it gave him, even before he expressed, as he did in the handsomest manner and words, his acknowledgments and thanks for so high and early a mark of his majesty's esteem and affection.

"He told me he had indeed been already prevented with the hopes of having a place in his majesty's good opinion, by what count Broglio had acquainted him of the king's sentiments and regard for him, which his majesty had so strongly expressed at that

minister's last departure from England. He repeated this often, being no less pleased with the civilities that were then made by the prince of Wales, than with the distinction now shown him by the king.

"As I found that this circumstance seemed to have made much impression upon his eminence, I could not forbear, in order to make him as sensible as lay in my power, of his majesty's personal esteem for him, to acquaint him that when I was in England, and had the honour to be presented to the king, his majesty, in enquiring after France, had had the goodness to turn the questions he was pleased to make me, entirely to the cardinal's subject, and particularly with relation to his eminence's health, and to his drinking the waters at that time. 'And had the king that goodness?' replied the cardinal, 'and was it possible he should know I was drinking the waters?'

"I beg pardon, my lord, for mentioning these little incidents of conversations; they are little indeed, but, even as such, may perhaps, serve to show how extremely pleased and flattered the cardinal is with his majesty's past and present goodness to him."

When Mr. Walpole returned to Paris, he and the cardinal acted together "more like friends than ministers, and renewed their mutual endeavours to establish the tranquillity of Europe. At this time, Marshal Berwick, natural son of James II. was employed in concerting with Mr. Walpole," the brother of the great whig minister and supporter of the Brunswick family, operations against the emperor and Spain, who on their side were meditating to place his brother the pretender, on the throne of his ancestors! Marshal Berwick is represented in these memoirs, as a man of high integrity and unsullied honour: to that honour indeed, he seems ever to have been ready to sacrifice his feelings, his affections, and his opinions. In 1719, when he led a French army into Spain, his son, the duke of Lyria, was a general in the Spanish army opposed to him, and was exhorted by his father, to fulfil his duty to the sovereign whom he served. With Mr. Walpole he concerted operations against those who were attempting to place his family again upon the throne of England; that family cause he considered as hopeless and was ready to oppose, yet what but that family cause could have excused him for bearing arms against his country? He was convinced that the union between France and England was for the interest of both countries; he experienced much attention

from the king and the English cabinet, and had even designed to pay his respects to George I. in person; yet Mr. Walpole says, "he would still, in case affairs should ever take such a turn as to occasion a war between England and France, command the French army, in any manner, suitable to his quality, that he should be directed, in opposition to his majesty or his dominions, as any Frenchman would do." It seems then that Marshal Berwick's morality was founded upon the laws of war.

The reconciliation between Spain and France now took place, and the remaining part of Mr. Walpole's ministry in France, is represented by himself as disagreeable and painful. In spite, however, of the intrigues of the Imperial ambassador, count Zinzendorff, a treaty was projected between the courts of Madrid, Versailles, and London: the plan was drawn at Madrid, and its terms were very vague with respect to the interests of England, leaving our ancient privileges of trade with Spain, and the right for our possession of Gibraltar and Port Mahon, to be contested and decided before other powers. These articles were explicitly and advantageously settled, solely by the influence which Mr. Walpole possessed over the cardinal, at a time when his fellow plenipotentiaries desponded of success. With this important service he concludes his embassy.

After his return to England, his talents and services entitled him to a distinguished office, and the good opinion of the king, the favour of the queen, and the ascendancy of his brother, would have ensured his promotion; but his temper was unambitious, and he prudently thought, that if he, as well as his brother, took a lead in administration, it would excite jealousy; he was, therefore, confidentially, but not officially employed, till in the third year after his return, the affairs of Holland rendered it expedient to send an able negotiator there. In consequence of the contest for the crown of Poland, the emperor withdrew ten of the sixteen thousand men, whom he was bound by treaty to keep in the barrier towns. This compelled the States to negotiate a neutrality with France; and Mr. Walpole, for his known talents, and for the influence which he

was supposed to possess at the Hague, was sent there to counteract the ascendancy of French politics. The history of this embassy, and of the petty intrigues of the stadtholder and the princess, forms the least interesting part of these memoirs.

The death of queen Caroline deprived the Walpoles of a steady friend, and the king of a prudent and faithful counsellor. The private enmity between the princes of Brandenburg and Hanover, began to influence the public measures of England. George II. could not brook the interference of his English ministers in electoral concerns. Mr. Walpole's situation at the Hague became irksome, when plans contrary to the wish of the States, and to his own advice and opinion, were pressed upon him. In his letters to his brother,

"He adverted with concern to the conduct of the king, in regard to continental politics, and complained that 'low, partial, electoral notions, are able to stop or confound the best conducted project for the public.' 'We have,' he adds, 'jealousies of one power, aversions to another prince, contempt for this or that state; we have pretensions or desires of our own, that must either be made ingredients in any scheme for the public good, or that scheme must not go on.' \*\*\*\*\*

"In the mean time those that serve abroad have no comfort; they are liked and disliked, not according to their fidelity and diligence, but by humour and fancy; and were I not your brother, you would soon hear, nay, perhaps you do hear, of me, with my friend Trevor, in the list of those who are of no consequence but to receive their pay, which is grudged them. And, therefore, I must freely own to you, that dangers and difficulties from abroad do not discourage me; but the not seeing the least likelihood of right measures being pursued at home, to obviate or withstand them, although such measures might be found out, that is what disheartens me. \*\*\*\*\*

"While I am employed, I will serve with the utmost diligence; but I see nothing but disgrace and disappointments, and, as the world ever judges by events, and not by conduct, I am sensible of what I am to apprehend from my continuance here. However I should be glad to know how long this servitude is to endure, that I may take my measures accordingly? \*

With these feelings he did not cease to solicit his recall, till he had obtained it. On his return in 1739, he found the people of England wild with schemes against

\* Correspondence to the *Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole*, vol. 8. p. 535, 539.

Spain; a country whom it has always been popular to attack, because she is weak and wealthy. The Walpoles were anxious to form an alliance with Prussia, but this, which was so necessary for the interest of the country, was rendered impossible by the unpersuadable obstinacy of the king, who had, indeed, been insulted by Frederic William, but who should not have sacrificed policy to resentment.

"George the Second brought to the throne, in addition to political reasons, a personal antipathy to his brother-in-law. Having been associates during their youth, their discordant tempers had inspired them with mutual contempt, and their aversion was heightened by a disagreement relative to the will of George the First. The British monarch, in allusion to the minute attention of Frederick William to his military arrangements, and his uncourtly manners, called him, 'My brother the corporal'; while Frederick, retaliating on the punctilious etiquette of George the Second, styled him, 'My cousin the dancing-master.' The negotiation for the double marriage between the two sovereigns contributed to increase their irritability; and Frederick William frequently declared, in his paroxysms of passion, 'that he had already too much of the Brunswick blood in his family, and should have thought himself culpable if he admitted more \*.' His anger was also roused by suspicions that the attempt of the prince-royal to escape from his dominions was made at the suggestion of the English court; but his fury was inflamed to the highest degree, by the treatment of his recruiting parties in Hanover, and the arrest of his agents for kidnapping men from England.

"Agents from Frederick William, having enticed several tall men to enlist in the Prussian service, their relations and friends made repeated complaints to government; and two of his German emissaries were arrested for attempting, by large offers, to enlist a corporal of the guards. Mr. Walpole transmitted to Mr. Guy Dickens, the British envoy at Berlin, the act of parliament by which the offence was made capital: desiring him to lay it before the Prussian ministers, and represent the necessity of discontinuing so illegal a practice. As Baron Borek, the Prussian minister, was proved to be the principal manager, and most active director, of such enrolments, representations were made for his recall; but Frederick William, declaring that he would not be prescribed to by England, restored him to his mission: he also threatened, that, should his envoy be contemptuously received, the English mi-

nister at Berlin should be treated in the same manner; and if Borek was desired to withdraw from England, he should instantly order Guy Dickens to quit the Prussian dominions. He also gave him an additional pension of 1000 crowns, which, as the Prussian ministers insinuated, was granted because the English had complained against him. George the Second, incensed at these insults, sent orders from Hanover, not to receive Borek as the Prussian envoy.

"It was now apprehended that Frederick William would carry his threats into execution, by instantly dismissing the English envoy; and Mr. Guy Dickens entertained the same suspicions, on being unexpectedly summoned to a conference with the Prussian ministers of state. To his astonishment, however, no notice was taken of Borek; but two objects of complaint were brought forward: the first related to the arrest of the Prussian agents in England; and 'the second point,' to use the words of Mr. Guy Dickens, 'was a personal quarrel to me, about a dog belonging to one of my neighbours, which some of my servants stole away, not long since, because he had been troublesome to the whole family. This affair was treated in a very serious manner, and as if they had a mind to make me believe that the stealing away of a Prussian dog was a matter of much greater consequence, than the stealing away several score of our master's subjects. But this most important dispute was at last settled; the ministers promising me that my neighbour should be no more troublesome to me, and I agreeing to make him a few apologies for the too warm zeal my servants had shewn for my repose and their own. So that if I am to be served with a *concilium abeundi*, or any other out-of-the-way compliment, it will entirely turn upon the answer I shall receive from England, upon the affair of the Prussian agent †.'

"The dispute relating to Borek and the agent occasioned 'a paper war,' as Guy Dickens calls it, between Lord Harrington and the Prussian minister; and Frederick William became calm, or warm, as the situation of Europe rendered him of greater or less consequence.

"This unfortunate misunderstanding, between two sovereigns of the same family, and of the same religion, had given great advantage to the French interest in Germany, and crippled the efforts of the house of Austria. Sir Robert Walpole was the only minister who had ventured to represent the policy of a reconciliation with the King of Prussia, and endeavoured to overcome the repugnance of George the Second. His efforts were ineffectual; but as the health of the Prussian monarch declined, he looked forward to the accession of Frederick the

\* Polnitz, Histoire des quatre derniers Souverains de la Maison de Brandebourg, tom. 2. p. 208.

† Mr. Guy Dickens to Mr. Tilson, Berlin, March 2, 1737.

Second with hopes of effecting a reconciliation between the two houses."

This hope was frustrated. The affairs of Austria suffered, as the pride and rashness of the cabinet there deserved, and the influence of the Walpoles was on the wane. Mr. Walpole says, in one of his letters to Mr. Trevor, his successor at the Hague, "I pretend to no credit either in public or private matters at court, and the giving me the place of teller for *life* was done grudgingly. I give, when in town, my opinion on foreign matters, in the private conferences: but as it is not always agreeable to narrow electoral views, it is, I believe, seldom followed, and indeed minded, till it is too late." In another place he says, "the notions of things and measures are not uniform on this side of the water. Popularity, and pomp, and glory, of old just and honourable principles, with regard to the liberties and the balance of Europe and the freedom of our commerce, are carried on by some with a vehemence and extension beyond what the abilities and powers of this country can bear, so that there is no time to think coolly, or to act with uniformity."

These letters were written not long before the resignation of Sir Robert: the minutest history of that event is related in Mr. Coxe's former volumes. From the virulence of his enemies, apprehensions were entertained lest his papers should be seized. Mr. Walpole, under this fear, burnt great part of the documents in his possession, which would, doubtless, have thrown much light upon this period.

Upon the important transactions of 1745, we find, literally, nothing. The loss of his brother deeply affected Mr. Walpole, and he began to allot some time from politics, to humbler, wiser, and better pursuits. In the midst of a volume that displays the littleness of the great, among the petty intrigues of diplomacy, and miserable politics of courts, a passage like the following, appears like an oasis in the deserts:

"As to politics, I can only tell you, that my thoughts, as well as my situation, are at a great distance from them, and my *res rustica* employs me entirely. Retired from the noise and nonsense of a public station, no man, I thank God! can have more reason than I have to be satisfied with the more solid and innocent pleasures of a private life. In this situation my mind is kept in a pleasing activity, very different from that which arises

from the tumult of passions, and the hurry of affairs. My house, of my own building, is not extremely large, nor little; is neither to be envied nor despised. The disposition of the rooms is neither magnificent nor contemptible, but convenient. The situation is upon an eminence that commands a most agreeable prospect of woods intermixed with fruitful fields, and so sheltered by thick and lofty trees, in the cold quarters, as not to be exposed to the inclemency of the rigorous seasons. It is encompassed with a most delightful and innocent army of vegetable striplings of my own raising, which are already, (though but of twenty years growth from the seed,) with a becoming rivalry, stretching and swelling themselves into timber. They are all of noble and worthy extraction; the names of their families are oaks, spanish chesnuts, and beech; and I believe none of their relations, in any country, can be more promising and hopeful than they are. They are so ranged and disciplined, as to form, in some parts, most agreeable lines and walks, and openings in other places; from the right and left they discover spacious and delightful lawns.

"Before my house, on the south, a green carpet of the finest verdure, gratifies the eye, and gradually leads it into a more extensive plain. On one side a lake of living water catches and fills the sight, from whence a most beautiful fluid glides with a serpentine and seemingly endless current, and loses itself in a wood on the other. My rural walks and contemplations amidst this mild, diversified, and engaging scene, afford me constantly new sources of health and pleasure, and make me lament the noisy, anxious, and tumultuous hours spent amidst the broils of faction, or vain attempts to serve an ungrateful public.

"If this description pleases you, come, my dear friend, come and partake of the beauties from whence it is drawn. Come, and let us remember our friends in a modest cup of smiling home-brewed ale, and forgive and forget our enemies, and pray for the *peace* and *liberties* of Europe; the first of which, I am afraid, is not so near as I could wish, because the last seem to be in greater danger than ever, which, notwithstanding my retirement, and my philosophical pretensions, gives me frequently uneasy moments."

The veteran statesman did not, however, remain an indifferent spectator, he still continued to recommend an alliance with Prussia, and to distract the mercenary politics of Austria.

"But will our allies, especially the queen of Hungary, hearken to a guaranty of Silesia, although she is obliged to do it by treaty; or to the least establishment for don Philip in Italy; although it may save the rest of her dominions there, and recover all that



France has conquered, and is like to conquer, which, in effect, will be no less than the whole continent. Good God! how many millions has her resentment against Prussia, and pride with regard to Spain, cost this poor exhausted nation! The English have already paid forty millions sterling in carrying on a ruinous war. They only fight, they only pay not only the troops that were furnished, but for many more that are no where but upon paper; and it is an undoubted truth, confirmed by the experience of many wars, that as long as others will find money, the Austrians will pretend to find men, and never think of peace; I say never, if they are assured to govern, as they have hitherto done, until they have killed the hen that has laid 'em so many golden eggs, and is already so worn out as to be at the last gasp."

This passage is in one of his letters to the Duke of Cumberland, whose character is here very favourably, and, we believe, justly represented. The Leicester-House party is less advantageously portrayed.

"There is (says Mr. Walpole) a sort of *imperium in imperio*, a court within a court. The royal family is split into two branches, separate and independant of each other, and each in effect has a share in the government; and while the father and the son are divided in every other respect, they both seem to have a confidence in the same persons, who, as is often the case of those out of employment, are more attached to the son than to the father; but, having a secret credit with the latter, direct their advice to him in a manner agreeable to the inclination of the former; and while every body perceives and knows this management but the father, the son, besides the natural weight of his own servants in parliament, gets an increase of strength in the house, and has it frequently in his power to turn the scale in questions of the greatest nicety and importance, and to disappoint the ministry in the means necessary to carry on the affairs of government; and then care will be taken, by artful insinuations conveyed to the closet, to lay such a disappointment to the weakness and want of ability in the ministers, and not to the various intrigues arising from the combination of different causes, and the confused state of things at court.

"But, to complete this distraction, it is whispered, that a most unaccountable and dangerous phenomenon is ready to break forth; which is, that the elder brother and heir, entertains jealousy of the younger, whose glorious actions, although conducted with the greatest modesty for the salvation of the whole family, have created more uneasiness than satisfaction, and have been the secret cause, from certain brigues, why Prince Charles of Lorraine had the command of the allied army in Flanders this campaign: that

a great intimacy had been struck up between the court of Vienna, and that of Leicester-fields; and that upon this foundation, and by a proper management, deducible from what goes before, the house of Austria flatters her selfish pride with being able to govern at St. James's, and by that means to carry on their own views and the war, according to their own private notions; and that no British minister shall either dare, or be able to oppose or controul their presumptuous schemes."

Peace, peace, was the perpetual cry of Mr. Walpole, and this wish he never ceased to enforce, true to his brother's system, and to the real interests of England. His repeated advice at length made some impression in the cabinet, and, fortunately, the French made new overtures, when, to use his own expressions, they might in three weeks time more, have been masters of the whole seventeen provinces in the Low Countries, and consequently of the maritime ports and continent from the Texel to Bayonne, and have dictated at the Hague, or Amsterdam, terms of peace at the good-will and pleasure of their arbitrary and invincible monarch. In the subsequent terms of peace, Mr. Walpole, though not officially employed, discovered an important omission which had escaped the notice of the plenipotentiaries, and of the British Cabinet. The consequence was, Spain was placed upon the footing which the treaty of Utrecht had assigned, but certain grievous restrictions, which that treaty enacted, had been modified in 1715, and of these modifications no notice was taken. This oversight was therefore rectified.

In 1751, we find an admirable memorial, which Mr. Walpole, by means of the Countess of Yarmouth, had laid before the King; and which, in direct and honest opposition to the prejudices, sentiments, and wishes of his Majesty, demonstrated the folly of trusting to what he calls that rope of sand, subsidiary treaties, in time of peace to German princes. Upon the same subject he made a forcible speech when the Bavarian subsidy was defeated. This was the last time that he ever spoke upon foreign affairs, and he could not better, or more consistently, have concluded a long and honourable career. When the marriage-bill was agitated, he objected to the prerogative enjoyed by the Archbishop of Canterbury of granting special licences; in consequence of this, Arch-

bishop Herring addressed to him the following dignified letter :

*" Lambeth-House, May 17, 1753.*

" Dear Sir,

" If the following letter be considered as wrote to a senator, I am sensible it were impertinent, if not presumptuous; if as to a friend, it will plead a title to his indulgence.

" I heard a little of the debate in the house of commons on Monday last, and have conceived hopes, from the issue of it, that the bill against the clandestine marriages will return to the lords, and receive the confirmation of the legislature. There is one clause in it, reserving a part of the Archbishop of Canterbury's prerogative, as to granting special licences, which it seems was natural to think would give room for observation; and, indeed, very justly, as the power there reserved, if not lodged in safe hands, might, in a great measure, defeat the good effect of the whole bill. I was told that you was pleased to make that observation, and to enlarge upon the mischievous consequences just now suggested.

" By the favour of the King I am now entrusted with the execution of that power, and if I found it detrimental to the public, or at all likely to interfere with the good designs of this act, should be ashamed to appear as an advocate for its continuance.

" The design of the legislature, in leaving such a power in being, is very apparent by the constant use and application of it; and I suppose, as it was judged proper to preserve it, it was thought it could no where be so safely lodged as in the hands of one, whose high station and character must put him above all corruption, and who received no emolument to himself from the issuing of those licences. Practice has confirmed the wisdom of that parliament in this respect; and I question whether the registers of the office afford a single instance of a mischievous and corrupt abuse of this power, in the hands of the archbishops, since the reformation. I am told they do not.

" You know me very well, Sir, and how little my nature carries me to aim at high powers and prerogatives; and yet, when I find them vested in my character, never abused by my predecessors, nor by myself, it would not, perhaps, sit so easy upon me, to find myself divested of them, without some very great and important reason; much greater, and more important, than a possibility, (for probability there is none from past times,) that the powers may come to be abused. I think it would not shew much loftiness of spirit to be a little anxious to guard against such indignity, which would be the more apparent too, if, to obviate the mischief of clandestine marriages, it should be found necessary, in the same act, to put a stop to the scandalous practices at May

Fair, and the Fleet, and guard against the corruptions of the Archbishop of Canterbury's prerogative. It would naturally hurt an archbishop to see his court classed with such infamous company.

" I take the liberty, Sir, to suggest these few things to you in the character of a friend. Senators must be above all partialities; and yet, as the world goes, and always has gone, there are a thousand circumstances in the conduct of public affairs, which will admit of great indulgences in point of time, and a manner of doing what is right. She might deserve to be taken down; but it was a mortification of the poor bird in the fable, that the arrow which wounded her was fledged from her own wing. There are times, indeed, when friendship becomes criminal by its influence: but those are times of deep moment; in the common affairs of life, there is great room for her operation.

" I am afraid, dear Sir, you will think me much too serious in this matter; but I write only to yourself, and if you think it will be impossible, as a good patriot, to acquiesce in this power being left vested in the see of Canterbury, I shall applaud your integrity, but shall not help wishing that the blow had come from some other hand; and shall look upon it as an infelicity, that this diminution of the honour of the see should happen when I was possessed of it, and without any instances of corruption proved, or, that I can hear, alledged, either in the times of my predecessors, or my own."

In this latter period of life, Mr. Walpole employed himself in answering Bolingbroke's Letters on the Study of History: a wicked impostor he calls him, whose villainous ministry and measures, have been the source from whence all the difficulties, debts, and distresses, that have embarrassed this nation, both in domestic and foreign concerns, ever since the peace of Utrecht, have directly flowed. This work he did not live to finish, the two parts which he had completed were published after his death by his son. In 1756 he was raised to the peerage: the brilliant period of Mr. Pitt's administration he did not live to witness; his death took place in 1757, in his 79th year.

One anecdote of his personal courage is related in this volume. A motion being made in the house of commons, which he supported, he said to Mr. Chetwynd, "I hope we shall carry this question." Mr. Chetwynd replied, "I hope to see you hanged first." "You hope to see me hanged first," repeated Mr. Walpole, and immediately seized him by the nose; they went out and

fought. A more interesting anecdote is given on the authority of Lord Sidney: In a debate, in which Mr. Pitt, Mr. Lyttleton, and perhaps, some of the Grenvilles, who were then all young men, had violently attacked Mr. Horace Walpole; he, in reply, "lamented that having been so long in business, he found that such young men were so much better informed in political matters than himself; he had, however, one consolation, which was, that he had a son not twenty years old, and he had the satisfaction to hope, that he was as much wiser than them, as they were than his father." Mr. Pitt got up with great warmth, beginning with these words, "With the greatest reverence to the grey hairs of the honour-

able gentleman,"—Mr. Walpole immediately pulled off his wig, and showed his head covered with grey hair. This occasioned a general laughter, says Lord Sidney, some feeling too, it perhaps, occasioned, for all warmth subsided. The celebrated retort of Mr. Pitt in this debate was made for him by Dr. Johnson, who with all his morality, boasted of helping out the tories by such falsehoods.

General amusement must not be sought for in the volumes of Mr. Coxe; but he who wishes to understand intimately the politics of the two last reigns, must consult them, and the future historian will refer to them with confidence and gratitude.

ART. IV. *Female Biography, or Memoirs of illustrious and celebrated Women of all Ages.*  
By MARY HAYS. 6 vol. 12mo.

IN the preface to this work, the author informs us that it is for the benefit of her own sex, and especially the younger part of it, "who have not grown old in folly; whose hearts have not been seared by fashion; and whose minds, prejudice has not warped," that she has written. By presenting examples of "women whose endowments, or whose conduct has reflected lustre on the sex," she hopes to excite an emulation nobler than the frivolous rivalry of beauty and equipage. For the execution of this design, she has endeavoured to interest the affections of her readers, through which she asserts the female understanding to be principally accessible, and to gratify the taste of the sex for "the minute delineations of character." This principle serves as an apology for the disproportionate length of some articles, the materials for which were peculiarly copious, and peculiarly replete with amusement and interest. We cannot but observe, however, that as the present undertaking professes to be a *general* biography of distinguished women, not a *partial* selection of favourite characters, the symmetry of the design appeared to require a more equal distribution of the space allotted to the work.

As no precise rule can be laid down for the admission or rejection of particular characters in a work of this nature, it must obviously depend on the judgment of the writer, exercised in every particular case; and it is scarcely possible, that so perfect a coincidence of

opinion should exist between any two persons, as that some individuals should not appear to every reader, unworthily chosen, and others unworthily refused. On this subject, therefore, we shall content ourselves with stating, that an apology is made for the omission of several eminent women lately dead; that none of the scripture heroines have obtained a place; and that, on the whole, the ancients bear but a small proportion to the moderns in number, or minuteness of detail. The truly liberal maxim of judging every character on its own principles, laid down at the commencement, and strictly observed to the conclusion of the work, justly entitles Miss Hays to that reputation of impartiality, often claimed, and so seldom merited by writers on all the various and important topics, involving controverted opinions, whether moral, political, or even literary. A general propensity to elevate the feminine, comparatively with the masculine character, in the moral and intellectual scale, by throwing light upon its fairest parts, and casting into shade its most deformed, we perceived with the more indulgence, as it has not led to a greater distortion of the truth, than that extreme of candour, bordering on credulity, so frequently observable in biographies of the other sex. The reflections are, as the writer observes, "sparingly interwoven," nor has she, "ever gone out of her way in favour of sects and systems." In some cases indeed, for the sake of youthful and inex-

perienced readers, we could wish that the moral had been more strongly pointed; that in the article of Heloise, less of the passionate language of love had been inserted, and that the conduct both of Abekard and his mistress had been with more severity condemned. The office of the biographer, is indeed distinct from that of the moralist; and to estimate correctly the merit or demerit of each character, is obviously, from the number of circumstances to be taken into account, a very difficult task; yet surely, one who professes "to serve the interests of truth and virtue," scarcely performs her duty in omitting to embrace opportunities of stigmatizing vice, when presented under the seductive garb of tenderness and sentiment.

In a select biography we should have objected to the admission of Ninon l'Enclos, Aspasia, Mrs. Behn, and a few more of the same class, and perhaps even on a more general plan, some of the anecdotes of these ladies, however amusing in circumstance, and decorous in language, might have been sacrificed with advantage to the *sacred ignorance* and unpolluted purity of female youth, yet unknowing of the very existence of evil. A tendency to set talent above virtue, in the general estimate of character, and an opinion that strong passions are indicative of general abilities, we observed with concern; and were inclined to ascribe these ideas, so peculiarly dangerous to be inculcated on the female mind, to the French authorities, so frequently cited throughout the work.

To the same source may, probably, be traced the story of Calpurnia's pronouncing from the rostrum a funeral eulogium on her husband; and that of Cornelia's giving lectures on elocution at Rome; for which we should like to see better vouchers. A multitude of Latin and Italian names likewise bear melancholy tokens of Gallic mutilation;—as, the island of *Pandataire*, the city of *Urbini*, the historians *Diogene Laerce* and *Dictys de Crete*, with many others. An anonymous lady is said to have been a professor at *Boulogne*; we presume *Bologna* was meant. The commentary on the works of Leibnitz, by the marchioness de Chatelet, was probably called "institutes of *physics*, not *physic*." From what language the word *innamoretta* was borrowed, we cannot pretend to say. It was the poet *Ramus*, not *Racine*, whose

introduction to Madame Gournaye was so comic. The mother of Henry IV. was Jane *D'Albret*, not *D'Albert*; the dates of her life too are incorrect, which is the case in one or two other instances. *Laying in ambush* is a gross, however common vulgarism. The latin quotations are full of blunders, and we cannot refrain from advising our author to procure for the whole work, the revision of a learned friend, should it arrive at a second edition, a success which, from its general merit, it well deserves. Miss H's style, though somewhat chargeable with stiffness and monotony, is, on the whole, good; she has aimed at making it "correct, clear, and harmonious," and has, with few exceptions, succeeded.

The life of Catharine of Russia, which occupies almost a sixth part of the whole work, is interesting and well written, though too much at length. The same may be said of the memoirs of Mary queen of Scots, and queen Elizabeth, which also fill a large space; but we know not what apology can be offered for the tediously minute account of Bianca Capello, who would scarcely have been thought worthy to occupy two pages, had not a recent life of her by a laborious German, afforded an easy method of filling almost seventy.

Most of the shorter articles we found extremely entertaining, and we think it fair to give two of these at full length, as specimens of the work, as well as an extract from one of the longer ones mentioned above. The memoir of Sappho will, probably, displease the reader as much by the sophistry, with which it endeavours to defend its subject from the charge of licentiousness, as that of Anne Askew will please by the warmth with which it espouses the cause of innocence and piety, perishing under the gripe of tyranny and superstition.

"SAPPHO, so celebrated for her impassioned and elegant poetry, was a native of Mitylene, in the isle of Lesbos. She lived in the forty-second Olympiad, six hundred and ten years before the Christian æra. She composed a great number of odes, elegies, epigrams, epithalamiums, &c. and received from her contemporaries, the title of the tenth muse. But few of her numerous productions have descended to posterity; yet those few justify the panegyrics which have been bestowed upon her. Her hymn to Venus was preserved by Dionysius of Halic-

earnassus, who inserted it in his works, as an example of perfection. Her well-known amatory ode was preserved by Longinus, as a specimen of equal excellence. Her poetry was held in great and just esteem by the ancients. 'In Greece,' says Tanaquillus Faber, 'no productions were esteemed more elegant, exquisite, and beautiful, than those of Sappho.' Mitylene boasted of the honour of her birth: in testimony of their respect for her memory, the Mitylenians stamped their coin with her image. The Romans afterwards erected a statue of porphyry to her honour. Both ancients and moderns have vied with each other in enthusiastic admiration of her genius and talents. Vossius affirms, that none of the Greek poets excelled Sappho for the sweetness of her verse: he adds, that she took as her model the style of Archilochus, the severity of which she softened. Critics, historians, and poets, have, in every age, united in her praise. Catullus endeavoured to imitate the verse of Sappho, but with inferior success; nature, tenderness, and passion, breathe through all her productions.

"She was married young to Cercela, one of the richest inhabitants of the isle of Andros, by whom she had a daughter, named Cleis. The parentage of Sappho is uncertain; she had three brothers, one of whom, called Charaxus,\* she reproves for his infatuation with Rhodope or Doricha, a celebrated courtesan. She lost her husband not many years after their marriage, and determined against second nuptials.

"She unhappily conceived a passion for Phaon, a beautiful youth, whom she followed into Sicily, where, as it is believed, she composed the hymn to Venus. It is doubtful whether Phaon, of whom she complains with so much eloquence, was insensible to her tenderness or unfaithful to his vows: the latter, according to Ovid, appears to have been the case. Unable to recal her wandering lover, or to move his obdurate heart, she determined, by a perilous expedient, to put an end to her sufferings and mortification, and to extinguish, with her life, her unfortunate passion. For this purpose, she threw herself from the promontory of Leucas into the sea. This promontory, entitled the lover's leap, was resorted to by those who had suffered disappointment in their affections; as an effectual cure for their sorrows. According to tradition, though the self-devoted victims should escape with life, which was scarcely possible, they would experience from the leap a cure for their passion. Sappho is said to have been the first woman who tried the dangerous experiment, and perished in the trial.

"An expression of Sappho's is recorded by Aristotle, to prove what the stoics affected to deny, that death is an evil. 'The gods,' said Sappho, 'have judged it so; otherwise

they would themselves die.' Whether death is to be considered as an evil, must depend upon the degree of enjoyment which attends life: privation of good must always be evil; release from suffering desirable. Sappho herself acted upon this principle.

"Alceus, a contemporary poet, conceived a passion for Sappho; he wrote to her: 'I wish to explain myself,' said he, 'but shame restrains me.' 'Your countenance would not blush,' replied she, 'if your heart were not culpable.' Sappho professed to reconcile the love of pleasure and the love of virtue. 'Without virtue,' said she, 'nothing is so dangerous as riches: happiness consists in the union of both.' 'This person,' she would also say, 'is distinguished by his figure; that by his virtues: the one appears beautiful at first view; the other not less so on a second.' It is possible that the licentiousness imputed to Sappho may be a calumny: the extreme sensibility of the Greeks, and the animated language in which they were, on all occasions, accustomed to express their feelings, may mislead a modern reader. Persons of licentious manners are seldom capable of the strong individual attachment which proved fatal to Sappho: neither is it, by any means, always a true criterion to judge of a writer by his works; still less of a poet, who professes to give the rein to his imagination.

"After the death of her husband, Sappho devoted herself to letters, and undertook to inspire the Lesbian women with a taste for literature; many foreigners were, with her fair countrywomen, among her disciples. The Lesbian poetess was, like all persons of talents, (women more especially) exposed to envy and slander: having neglected to conciliate her enemies, she provoked them by contempt and irony. Persecuted, and at length compelled to fly her country, she found an asylum in Sicily, where it was proposed to erect a statue to her honour. Her poems, composed in a metre of which she was herself the inventress, abounded in a variety of novel and happy expressions, with which she is said to have enriched her native language. Of all the Grecian women who cultivated poetry, not one equalled Sappho; of men, very few, if any, surpassed her. She painted from nature, and from genuine sensibility; her style was flowing and harmonious, her sentiments tender and voluptuous. From her descriptions of the symptoms and emotions of love, which were exquisite and unrivalled, the physician Erasistratus, discovered the cause of the sickness of Antiochus, who was enamoured of his step-mother, Stratonice. In the Prytaneum of Syracuse, was a beautiful statue of Sappho, the work of Silanion."

"ANNE ASKEW, daughter of sir William Askew, of Kelsay, in Lincolnshire, knight,

\* Charaxus sold Lesbian wines in Egypt.



was born in 1529. She received a liberal and learned education, and manifested in early life a predilection for theological studies. Her eldest sister, after having been contracted in marriage to the son of Mr. Kyme, of Lincolnshire, died before the nuptials were completed. Sir William Askew, on this event, unwilling to lose a connection which promised pecuniary advantages, compelled his second daughter Anne, notwithstanding her reluctance, remonstrances, and resistance, to fulfil the engagement entered into by her sister, and to become the wife of Mr. Kyme. This marriage laid the foundation for the subsequent misfortunes of her life, which terminated in a cruel and premature death. But, however reluctantly she gave her hand to Mr. Kyme, to whom she bore two children, she rigidly fulfilled the duties of a wife and mother.

"Though educated in the Roman catholic religion, by which the perusal of the Scriptures is withheld from the laity, Anne, from attending to the questions respecting the reformation, at that time violently agitated, became curious to examine the records from which both parties affected to derive their faith, and to which they mutually appealed. In this pursuit, doubts suggesting themselves to her mind, her adherence to the opinions of her ancestors became daily weaker, till at length she adopted the principles of the reformers. Her presumption in making use of her own judgment, disgusted and incensed her husband, who, at the suggestion of the priests, drove her with ignominy from his house. Anne, conceiving herself released by this treatment, from the obligations that had been imposed upon her, determined to sue for a separation. For this purpose, she proceeded to London, with a view of imploring protection and aid from those who favoured the protestant cause.

"In London she met with a favourable reception from many of the principal ladies of the court, and was particularly distinguished by the queen, who favoured in secret the doctrines of the reformation. The catholics, on this occasion, endeavoured with impotent malice to misrepresent her conduct, and to sully her reputation; but the innocence and consistency of her life confounded their malignity.

"The king (Henry VIII.) rendered irritable by declining health, under the influence

of no steady principle, whimsical, vindictive, and tyrannical, exacted from his subjects an implicit compliance with his caprices: while, daily changing his faith, he treated with severity those who wanted facility to accommodate to his, their opinions. In these perilous times, Anne became a victim to the vengeance of her husband, and to the bigotry of the priests, who accused her to Henry of dogmatizing on the subject of the *real presence*; a notion respecting which, in proportion as it was untenable, he was particularly tenacious. The sex and age of the heretic aggravated, rather than softened, the malice of her adversaries, who could not pardon in a woman the presumption of opposing arguments and reason to their assertion and dogmas.

"Anne was accordingly seized, in March, 1545, and taken into custody: she was repeatedly examined by Christopher Dare, the lord-mayor, the bishops, chancellor, and others, respecting her faith, transubstantiation, nasses for departed souls, &c. &c.: her answers to the questions proposed to her were more clear and sensible, than satisfactory to her inquisitors.\* The substance and particulars of this examination were written by herself, and published after her death.

"Being committed to prison, she was refused bail, detained there eleven days, and prohibited from having any communication with her friends. During this confinement, she employed herself in composing prayers and meditations, and in fortifying her resolution to endure the trial of her principles.

"On the 23d of March, a relation, who had obtained permission to visit her, endeavoured to bail her: his earnest application for this purpose, to the mayor, to the chancellor, and to Bonner, the bishop of London, was at length successful. On this occasion she was brought before the bishop, who affected concern for what she had suffered, while he again proposed to her ensnaring questions. Mr. Britagne, her relation, and Mr. Spilman, of Gray's Inn, became her sureties.

"A short time after, she was again apprehended, and summoned before the king's council, at Greenwich, when Wriothesley the chancellor, Gardiner bishop of Winchester, and other prelates, once more questioned her on the doctrines of the church of Rome.

\* In the course of her examination she was asked, by the lord mayor, whether the priests could not make the body of Christ? (in allusion to the doctrine of the Eucharist). To which she replied:—'I have read that God made man; but that man can make God, I never yet read, nor, I suppose, ever shall read.'—'After the words of consecration, (retorted her adversary) is it not the Lord's body?'—'No; it is but consecrated, or sacramental bread.'—'What if a mouse eat it after the consecration, what shall become of it, say you, my lord?'—'I say that the mouse is damned.'—'Alas! poor mouse!' replied she, smiling. Thus ludicrously did her persecutors convert their tragedy into farce. When threatened by the chancellor with the stake, she observed, that, having searched the Scriptures, she had never been able to find that either Christ, or his apostles, put any creature to death. The chancellor rebuked her for referring to the Scriptures, declaring that women were forbidden, by St. Paul, to speak of the word of God. To this she modestly replied, that the prohibition of St. Paul respected teaching publicly in the congregations.

She replied to their enquiries with firmness, and without prevarication: on finding her impracticable, her sagacious judges determined on other measures, and remanded her to Newgate, though she was at the time suffering under a severe indisposition. Having entreated, in vain, to be allowed a visit from Dr. Latimer, she addressed a letter to the king himself, declaring, 'That respecting the Lord's supper, she believed as much as had been taught by Christ himself, or as the catholic church required.' But still refusing her assent to the royal explication, her letter served but to aggravate her crime. She then wrote to the chancellor, enclosing her address to the king, but with no better success. From Newgate she was conveyed to the Tower, where she was interrogated respecting her patrons at court, with several ladies of which she held a correspondence: but, heroically maintaining her fidelity, she refused the deposition exacted of her.

"Her magnanimity, so worthy of admiration, served but to incense her barbarous persecutors, who endeavoured by the rack to extract from her what she had refused to their demands. She sustained the torture with unshaken fortitude, and meek resignation: her courage, her youth, her sex, her beauty, failed to soften the hearts of the monsters which fanaticism had inflamed. Wriothesley, with unmanly and infernal rage, commanded, with menaces, the lieutenant of the tower, to strain the instrument of his vengeance: on receiving a refusal, he threw off his gown, and, maddened with superstitious zeal, exercised himself the office of executioner, and nearly destroyed the tender frame of the innocent victim. Anne, loosed at length from the horrid engine of their cruelty, with every limb dislocated, fainted with anguish. When recovered, she remained sitting two hours on the bare ground, calmly reasoning with her tormentors. Again, by flattery, sophistry, and menaces, they sought to move her from her purpose, and once more were confounded by her courage and resolution. Unable to stand, she was carried away in a chair, and pardon and life again offered to her, upon condition of recanting her declarations, which, having still refused, she was condemned to the stake.

"In the mean time, the lieutenant of the tower hastened to court, and informed the king of what had past, while he apologized for the humanity he had displayed. Even the tyrant betrayed, on this affecting narration, some symptoms of being a man; he commended the lieutenant for what he had done, and appeared disgusted with the brutality of the chancellor.

"A report having been circulated that the prisoner had yielded to her persecutors, she wrote a letter on the occasion to Mr. John Lascelles, a gentleman who had been her tutor, justifying herself from the charge:

She also composed a general address to the public, to the same purport. She drew up likewise, before the executioner, a confession of her faith, and an attestation of her innocence, which concluded with a prayer for fortitude and perseverance in what she conceived to be her duty, and for the conversion and pardon of her adversaries. A gentleman who saw her the day previous to her execution, observes, that, amidst all her pains and weakness, (being unable to rise or stand but with the assistance of two persons,) her features, animated by enthusiasm, and a consciousness of undeserved suffering, expressed a sweetness and serenity inexpressibly affecting.

"At the stake, letters were brought to her from the chancellor, exhorting her to recant, with a promise of the king's pardon. Averting her eyes from the paper, she simply replied, 'she came not thither to deny her lord and master.' The same proposition was made to her fellow-sufferers, with the same success. While Shaxton, an apostate from his principles, harangued the prisoners, she listened attentively to his discourse, nicely distinguishing, such was her self-possession at this terrible hour, between what was deserving of approbation, and what she conceived to be erroneous. Fire being put to the pile, she commended her spirit to God, and resigned herself with magnanimity to her fate. She expired in the twenty-fifth year of her age, July 16, 1546.

"Such are the triumphs and the monuments of fanaticism;—triumphs and monuments which are peculiar to no sect: all who have attached important consequences to speculative theology, have, in proportion to the spirit of the times, and to the power allowed them by civil governments, employed it for the exultation or the annoyance of those, who, doubting the propriety of a *standard-mind*, have presumed to exercise their own judgments."

The character of queen Elizabeth will, we apprehend, be allowed to be drawn with considerable skill, at the same time that it displays some of the peculiar opinions of the writer, as well as her propensity to lean to the merciful side of justice.

"The character of Elizabeth appears to have been exalted by her friends, and depreciated by her enemies, in nearly equal proportions. As a monarch, her activity and force of mind, her constancy, magnanimity, sagacity, prudence, vigilance, and address, have scarcely been surpassed in royal annals, and are worthy of the highest admiration. Pope Sixtus V. spoke of her on all occasions as 'a woman with a strong head,' and gave her a place among the three persons, who, in his opinion, only deserved to reign: the remaining two were himself and Henry

IV. of France. 'Your queen,' said he, once to an Englishman, 'is born fortunate: she governs her kingdom with great happiness: she wants only to be married to me, to give to the world a second Alexander.'

"Neither the cares of government, nor the infirmities of approaching age, weaned her from the love of letters, which, at every interval of leisure, were her great delight. When nearly sixty years of age, in 1592, she made a second visit to Oxford, where, having been entertained with orations, disputations, &c. she pronounced, on her departure, a Latin oration to the vice-chancellor and doctors, when she took her last farewell of the University. In the ensuing year, she translated from Latin into English, Boethius '*De Consolatione Philosophiæ*.' In 1598, when the disturbances in Ireland occupied a considerable share of her attention, she translated Sallust '*De bello Jugurthino*.' Also, the greater part of Horace '*De Arte Poetica*,' and Plutarch's book '*De Curiositate*;' all which were written with her own hand.

"In 1598, Paulus de Juline, the Polish minister, gave offence to Elizabeth by the impertinent manner in which he delivered his embassy. Cutting him short, in the presence of her nobility, she reproved him sharply in an extempore Latin oration, which having concluded, she rose with a majestic air, and turning from him to the gentlemen in waiting, 'God's death, my lords,' said she, 'I have been forced this day to scour up my old Latin, that had long lain rusting.'

"It would be tedious to enumerate her epistles and speeches to her parliament, which have been published in the *State Papers*, and in various collections. Many of her letters in manuscript are preserved in the Bodleian and other libraries. In the library at Norwich, is a book of prayers, pr. Lond. 1561, 24mo. bound in silk, the leaves gilt, which is believed to have been Elizabeth's own book. In the beginning of it is '*A prayer to be said in tyme of extreame sickness*,' written, as appears, with her own hand.

"Her temper and her talents equally fitted her for government: capable of self-command, and of controlling her own passions, she acquired an unlimited ascendancy over those of her people. She possessed courage without temerity, spirit, resource, and activity in war, with the love of peace and tranquillity: her frugality was exempt from avarice, it was the result rather of her love of independence, than of a passion for accumulation. She never amassed any treasures. Her friendships were uniform and steady, yet she was never governed by her favourites; a criterion of a strong mind: nor did she suffer her partialities (excepting in the case of Leicester, a mistake which she afterwards rectified) to mislead her judgment, or prove injurious to the state. Her choice in her ministers gave proof of her sagacity,

as her constancy in supporting them did of her firmness. If a conduct less rigorous, less imperious, and more indulgent, would have thrown greater lustre over her character, let it be remembered, that some good qualities appear to be incompatible with others; nor let the seductive and corrupting nature of power be left out in the account. Her insincerity was, perhaps, the greatest blot in her character, and the fruitful source of all the vexatious incidents of her reign. Though unacquainted with philosophical toleration, the only method of disarming the turbulence of religious faction, she yet preserved her people by her prudence and good sense, from those theological disputes which desolated the neighbouring nations.

"Beset with enemies both at home and abroad, among the most powerful princes in Europe, the most enterprising and the least scrupulous, the vigour of her administration enabled her to defeat all their purposes; to annoy and plunder them in their own dominions and possessions, and to preserve her own dignity untouched and unimpaired. The wise ministers and brave warriors of her reign, reflect, by their management and exploits, credit on the sovereign, to whose judgment they owed their advancement and support, and over whom they never acquired any improper or undue influence. In her family, in her court, in her kingdom, she remained always mistress and head. While she merited by her real virtues the confidence and esteem of her people, she gained their affections by her insinuation and address. Few monarchs have succeeded to a throne in more difficult circumstances, nor have any ever reigned with more uniform success and prosperity.

"If as a woman, cut off by the peculiarities of her situation from the sympathies of nature, and the charm of equal affections, Elizabeth, at times, suffered under these privations, which even gave to her sensibility additional force and acuteness, the strength of her reason still triumphed over her passions, and the struggle which her victories cost her, served but to display the firmness of her resolution, and the loftiness of her mind.

"As a monarch, even the enemies of Elizabeth will not deny her the appellation of great; but their prejudices, founded on the consideration of her sex, cannot, even by her friends, be disallowed. The force of her mind was, probably, never exerted to guard her against those lesser infirmities, from which the wisest and the strongest are not always exempt. The rivalry of beauty, the desire of admiration, the jealousy of love, and the sallies of anger, which she suffered to display themselves with so little control, sometimes betrayed her into circumstances of degradation, and sometimes led her to detestable crimes. But to guard the heart, on a throne, against the continued operation of

a servile homage and gross adulation, seems to require super-human strength. If, on great occasions, the cultivated understanding of Elizabeth, which early adversity had strengthened and matured, exerted itself to judge and to act, this painful vigilance must necessarily be relaxed, in the common occurrences of familiar life. The romantic spirit of the times, in which a Sidney composed his *Arcadia*, and a Spenser his *Fairy Queen*, threw over the rudeness of the age an air of softness and gaiety, and blended, with the homage of the courtier, the gallantry of the lover. Flattery perpetually assailed the throne, on which a female sovereign was seated, whose ears the truth could not possibly reach. Constant impressions, by the laws of the human mind, will with certainty produce their effect. If Elizabeth, at the age of seventy, gave credit to her courtiers, who for five-and-forty years had repeated the same unvaried strain, and rejected the honest testimony of her mirror, which gradually reflected the depredations of time, it will appear but little extraordinary to the mind accustomed to reflect on its own operations, and to observe the facility with which the persuasions of the imagination triumph over the suggestions of the understanding, while the evidences of the senses are silenced by habitual belief.

"Those who require more softness of manners, great lenity of temper, and more feminine graces, to form the character of a woman, to whom they could attach themselves as a mistress and wife, must be reminded, that these amiable weaknesses, which arise out of a state of subjection and dependence, are utterly incompatible with the situation of an absolute sovereign, and with the exercise of those qualities by which only such a situation can be maintained.

"It will appear from the preceding narrative, that the praises which have by some been bestowed upon Elizabeth, for her regard for the constitution, and tender concern for the liberties of her people, are wholly without foundation. Few princes have exerted with more arbitrary power the royal prerogatives, which had been transmitted to her by her immediate predecessors; yet no censure belongs to her for this conduct, in the principles of which she had been trained, and of the justice of which she was persuaded. What potentate, what man, has voluntarily resigned the power in which those beneath him quietly acquiesced? Elizabeth believed her subjects entitled to no more freedom

than their ancestors had enjoyed, and found them resigned to her arbitrary administration, to which custom had given its sanction. Yet, the popularity which she enjoyed, proves that she abused not the privileges which she claimed. Compared with the reigns of her father and sister, that of Elizabeth might be termed a golden age. Speculation on the subjects of religion and polity, was, in those periods, but in its infancy: in the weakness of the succeeding reigns, it rapidly acquired strength. The mind of man must be loosened from the bondage of superstition, before it will be applied to the important sciences of political economy and moral happiness. The particular exertions of power made by Elizabeth, were but in the ordinary course of administration.

"In the article of her dress, only, Elizabeth affected an expensive magnificence. Her opinion of her beauty, and her passion for admiration, led her to study varieties and richness in her apparel. She appeared almost daily in different habits, and tried every mode of varying their form: Nor would she ever part with her clothes. At her death, three thousand different dresses were found in her wardrobe. Next to her desire of personal admiration, was her vanity of authorship. Learning was the fashion of the times: the ladies of the court, in imitation of the queen, valued themselves on their erudition. Ye Elizabeth was by no means a patroness of letters; Spenser, the finest English writer of the age, was long neglected, and, after the death of his patron, sir Philip Sydney, suffered to perish almost for want.

"The following testimony to the abilities of Elizabeth, was given by her treasurer lord Burleigh: 'No one of her counsellors could tell her what she knew not, and, when her council had said all they could, she could find out a wise counsel beyond theirs; and there never was anie great consultation about her country, at which she was not present to her great profit and prayse.' It is related by Scott, in his '*Philomathologia*,' that a courtier having made suit to this princess for an office belonging to the law, she told him he was unfit for the place. 'That is true,' replied he, 'but I can find a deputy who shall be sufficient.' 'Do so,' answered the queen, 'and then I may bestow it on one of my ladies; for they, by deputation, may execute the office of chancellor, chief-justice, or any other, as well as yourself.'

ART. V. *General Biography; or, Lives, critical and historical, of the most eminent Persons of all Ages, Countries, Conditions, and Professions, arranged according to alphabetical Order.* Composed by JOHN AIKIN, M.D. the Rev. THOMAS MORGAN, Mr. NICHOLSON, and others. Vol. III. 4to. pp. 672. (From Cla. to the end of E.)

BIOGRAPHICAL history, by selecting from the mass of mankind the natural aristocracy of genius and talent, the illustrious names of all those, in



every age, country, and situation, who have raised themselves, their profession, or their native land, beyond the rank which ordinary abilities, and moderate application, may, for the most part, insure—by thus choosing the flower of the human race, possesses an incomparably greater hold on our curiosity and affections, than almost any other literary department. But with this fundamental and essential advantage, are necessarily connected many peculiar difficulties, which must always render the execution of so extensive a plan more or less inadequate to the variety and splendour of its subjects. The want of authentic and satisfactory information, is one of the principal obstacles to the success of the biographer. It seldom happens, that he is able to make any personal enquiries, even concerning the worthies of his own country and his own time; and for all the facts which he relates concerning foreigners, and those who have died more than a generation ago, he must be indebted to other writers, often themselves mere copyists, and either unable or unwilling to exert that discrimination without which biography possesses neither dignity nor usefulness. An important part of the office of a biographer, besides an accurate and dispassionate statement of facts, is to estimate the value of the persons whom he mentions, and assign to each his proper rank, according to the degree in which he has advanced the profession or study to which he has attached himself. Hence it is requisite, that the composer of a biographical history should be, to a certain degree, familiar with the same pursuits as the character that he is recording, and that no single writer, except he possesses an encyclopædian knowledge, can, with any reasonable hope of success, undertake so arduous a task as a work on general biography. But knowledge is not all that is requisite, there remains a still rarer qualification, unhappily not often in conjunction with eminent learning, and yet absolutely indispensable to the biographer: this is impartiality. He must neither think too highly nor too meanly of any of the objects of human pursuit; he must be subject to no national nor anti-patriotic prepossessions; must have no sectarian prejudices, nor catholic antipathies; and must be able to measure the moral and intellectual

worth of every man, both by the rule of right reason and the variable standard which every age, country, and party, takes, the liberty of accommodating to its own stature of civilization and refinement. In addition to all this, must be exerted sound judgment in the selection of names worthy of being remembered, and in assigning the proportion which each ought to bear to the whole.

The talents, the cultivation, the temper, and opportunities for information, which would be required for a perfect history of the chiefs of the human race, never have been, and probably never will be found combined in any individual, or association of individuals, for such a purpose. In our opinion, however, the work before us is a truly honourable, and, upon the whole, a highly successful effort of taste, judgment, and impartiality. The style is easy and perspicuous, never descending to meanness, and, for the most part, proceeding in that even tenor which is the result and reward of long practice, and matured good sense. The progress of the narrative is uninterrupted by the impertinence of useless annotations, and each article is terminated by a list of the authorities that have been consulted in its composition; from which we perceive, that though free use has been made of the labours of Moreri, and other respectable authors, yet the original sources of information have by no means been neglected. All those discussions in which the licentious erudition of Bayle has been so mischievously exerted, are carefully avoided, and nothing will here be found to stimulate or gratify a perverted and depraved curiosity. Sacred things are sacredly respected. A lofty and manly spirit of practical virtue, breathes through the whole, and that man is to be envied, or pitied, who can come from the perusal unedified and uninstructed.

The third volume alone, was published during the last year; we are not allowed, therefore, consistently with our plan, to notice the preceding ones. This includes from CLA to the end of letter E, and contains a multitude of extremely interesting articles. To begin with the most dignified rank, the sovereigns. We find the popes of the name of Clement; among whom Clement XIV. better known by his paternal appellation Ganganelli, furnishes a most



pleasing and interesting life. Cleopatra and the great Constantine, occupy their respective places with much respectability. Our English Edwards are recorded as they deserve, and the heroic Elizabeth is commemorated in a style of more than usual animation. The life of Cromwell, if the plebeian usurper of supreme authority may be ranked by us among the acknowledged sovereigns, is remarkably well drawn up, and is a happy instance of Dr. A.'s judgment and moderation: the whole article is too long to be quoted, but our readers will, we are convinced, be gratified by the following extract.

"He died on September 3, (his victorious day), 1658, aged fifty-nine years and four months. A violent storm, which happened on that day, gave scope to the fancies of superstition and of poetry. A very magnificent funeral was ordered for him at the public expence; and his memory was celebrated by the most elaborate strains of the poets of the time. He died at a period when, according to the opinion of Bishop Burnet, which seems well grounded, 'his life and his arts were exhausted together, so that, if he had survived longer, he would scarce have been able to preserve his power.' The fabric of his greatness was all false and unsound. By an unparalleled course of cunning and deceit, he had got into a situation which those arts could no longer support; and though force might, for some time, have continued to supply the place of legal right and public attachment, that force was becoming daily more formidable to himself. His own children were either republicans or royalists; and perhaps not a person in the nation was a sincere and disinterested well-wisher to his government. He left two sons, Richard, his fugitive successor, and Henry, whom he had made chief governor of Ireland; likewise four daughters, all married. As a husband and a father, and, in general, in the offices of private life, he was commendable. His household was administered with decency and frugality, and he never was enslaved by the love of pleasure; yet he sometimes unbent with his intimates, and gave way to boisterous mirth and conviviality. But as he did nothing which was not suspected of design, it has been supposed, that when he seemed most off his guard, it was for the purpose of rendering others so. He took advice well, and would occasionally converse with great openness and frankness, with those of whose sense and honesty he had a good opinion. He paid a respect to literature, and prevented some of those injuries to learning which fanaticism was disposed to offer. The sincerity of his religion has been questioned; and stories have been

told, which prove that he was capable of sporting with the credulity of the fanatics about him. It seems probable, indeed, that his experience of the folly and hypocrisy of many of the religionists with whom he was connected, had, in some degree, unsettled his principles, and relaxed his seriousness; yet there is reason to believe that his early convictions never entirely lost their effect upon his mind."

Among the warriors and statesmen, we may particularize as especially deserving of perusal, the articles of Lord Clive and Cortez; Devereux Earl of Essex, and Dudley Earl of Leicester, the two favourites of Elizabeth, and Elliot Lord Heathfield, the gallant defender of Gibraltar.

In navigators this volume is peculiarly rich. Cook would be in himself a host, but we find besides Columbus, Dampier, and Drake, not to mention others of inferior note.

The critics, poets, and men of literature, fall under the department of Dr. A. and form some of the most pleasing, because most original articles of the volume. Le Clerc, Congreve, Cowley, Crebillon, Dante, Dryden, and Erasmus, are the most prominent figures. The character of Dryden is thus summed up.

"With respect to private character, Dryden seems to have been of a cold and reserved temper, and, as he himself denominated it, of a saturnine cast. Yet, from Congreve's testimony, he was friendly and humane, easy of access, and prompt to reconciliation after a quarrel. He was backward in personal advances to the great, and rather heavy in conversation. Though his pen was extremely licentious, his manners appear to have been decently regular. He was domestic in his habits, and affectionate towards his family. With a due sense of his own superior merit, he was sensible of his defects, and patient under criticism. That he was capable of the utmost bitterness of party tancout, and shameless in the distribution of venal praise, his writings too abundantly testify. His real sentiments of men and things appear to have been free, and it would be easy to deduce from his works strong expressions of scorn and indignation relative to every species of tyranny exercised over mankind; but these are singularly contrasted by the doctrines of passive submission, civil and religious, which it was his task to support. Few writers have so much delighted in approaching the verge of profaneness, whence it may be fairly inferred, that though religion was an interesting topic of discussion to him, he had very little of its spirit in his

heart. Yet he was not proof against superstition: he was a believer in judicial astrology, and formed predictions from nativities cast by himself.

"The complete examination of literary character belongs rather to critical history than to biography. It has been excellently performed with respect to Dryden by Dr. Johnson in his *Lives of the Poets*: it will here suffice to sketch an outline. Dryden was a man of various and extensive, rather than of deep and accurate learning. He had a propensity to display all that he possessed, whence he abounds in allusions derived from every branch of science and scholastic knowledge then cultivated. But his copiousness of ideas surpassed his judgment and sense of propriety in the use of them; and his erudition is often ridiculous from the mouth which is made to utter it. In translation he is frequently unfaithful to the sense of his author; and, what is perhaps worse, he sometimes deviates widely from his character, and what may be called his *costume*. As a dramatic writer, he has wit, force, and majesty; but not much of nature or propriety. He long supported the practice of writing tragedies in rhyme, and forming them into what he called *Heroic Plays*, the model of which was undoubtedly false and extravagant. Of comedy, he seems to have had no just idea, as may be judged by his depreciating every comic writer in comparison of Johnson. It has already been mentioned, that few of his plays survive; perhaps the Spanish Friar, Don Sebastian, and All for Love, are the only ones. The last of these is regarded as his master-piece, and he has said, that it was the only one which he wrote *for himself*; but it has less true character than Shakespeare's upon the same story. As a general poet, he stands perhaps unrivalled in point of versification; for, though more correctness in the formation of rhyme couplet has since been attained, yet it is generally acknowledged that for fullness and variety of harmony, for the free flow and resistless current of numbers, he has never had an equal. The sense often overflows to a third line with fine effect; and triplets and alexandrines contribute to vary the measure, though these perhaps occur with too much frequency. The poetical character of the diction is not less striking than the harmony of the verse; and more *happineses* of expression are found in Dryden, than perhaps in any other poet. With great splendour, there is also a spirit and familiarity of language, sometimes sinking to coarseness, but often conducing to wonderful strength. There is scarcely any species of poetry in which he has not excelled. Perhaps he was least fitted for the pathetic. He delights in the grand and swelling, which sometimes deviates into bombast, or loses itself in rhapsody.

"His style in prose deserves great praise. It is easy, elegant, and animated, full of variety and energy, and so far idiomatic as to afford perhaps the best specimen of genuine English. He chiefly exercised it in the critical essays prefixed to many of his works. These are performances of extraordinary vigour and comprehension of mind, abounding in just thoughts beautifully elucidated, but written hastily, and without the accuracy which would now be required in similar compositions. They are rather effusions than regular treatises, but bear as strong a stamp of his own peculiar genius, as the most elaborate of his poems. They greatly contributed to the progress of critical discernment and just taste in this country, which was only then beginning to speculate upon such topics. His panegyric dedications exhibit many graces of writing, but the shameless profligacy of their praise must disgust every reader possessed of manly sentiments.

"Dryden's reputation has lost nothing by age, though some of his pieces, once popular, are now perhaps little read, on account of the temporary nature of their subjects. He is still one of the heroes of English poetry, which presents scarcely two or three names of greater celebrity. The present age pardons him as a man, and venerates him as a genius."

Mr. Morgan's signature is affixed to the lives of the Theologians and Philosophers, among which we have perused with great pleasure, those of bishop Compton, archbishop Cranmer, Dr. Doddridge, and the three heathen philosophers, Diogenes, Epictetus, and Epicurus. The latter of these furnishes a long article, of which we shall select a considerable portion.

"In the preceding summary of Epicurus's System of Physics, will be found such a degree of ignorance with respect to the true principles of the *phenomena* of nature, as shews the author to have been very ill qualified to solve the grand problem concerning the origin and formation of the world. It involves in it wild and fanciful hypotheses, which are not only unsupported by natural appearances, but contrary to known and indisputable laws of nature. By attempting to account for all the appearances of nature, even those which respect animated and intelligent beings, upon the simple principles of matter and motion, without introducing the agency of a supreme intelligence, or admitting any other idea of fate, than that of blind necessity inherent in every atom, by which it moves in certain directions; it leaves without explanation those appearances of design which are so manifest in every part of nature, and unavoidably gives rise to the

grossest absurdities. Mr. Bayle observes, that Epicurus revived the system of atoms; and brought it into great repute: but adds, that he spoiled it in not retaining Democritus's doctrine respecting the soul of atoms. To pretend that a collection of inanimate atoms can be a soul, and can emit such images as occasion thoughts, is as confused an hypothesis as Hesiod's chaos. Though his system admits the existence of Gods, yet, as we have already seen, the idea which it gives concerning their natures, is degrading to the proper character of Deity, and cannot be at all explained in congruity with the fundamental principles of philosophy. Epicurus's ethics constitute the least exceptionable part of his system, and, when fairly considered, will be found, for the most part, conformable to reason and nature. The following is a summary of them: The end of living, or the ultimate good, which is to be sought for its own sake, according to the universal opinion of mankind, is happiness; yet men, for the most part, fail in the pursuit of this end, either because they do not form a right idea of the nature of happiness, or because they do not make use of proper means to attain it. Since it is every man's interest to be happy through the whole of life, it is the wisdom of every one to employ philosophy in the search of felicity without delay. The happiness which belongs to man, is that state in which he enjoys as many of the good things, and suffers as few of the evils, incident to human nature, as possible, passing his days in a smooth course of permanent tranquillity. It is impossible that perfect happiness can be possessed without the pleasure that attends freedom from pain, and the enjoyment of the good things of life. Pleasure is in its nature good, as pain is in its nature evil; the one is therefore to be pursued, and the other to be avoided, for its own sake: Pleasure or pain is not only good, or evil in itself, but the measure of what is good or evil in every object of desire or aversion; for the ultimate reason why we pursue one thing and avoid another is, because we expect pleasure from the former, and apprehend pain from the latter. Although all pleasure is essentially good, and all pain essentially evil, it doth not thence necessarily follow, that in every single instance the one ought to be pursued, and the other to be avoided; but reason is to be employed in distinguishing and comparing the nature and degrees of each, that the result may be a wise choice of that which shall appear to be upon the whole good. There are two kinds of pleasure; one consisting in a state of rest, in which both body and mind are undisturbed by any kind of pain, the other arising from an agreeable agitation of the senses, producing a correspondent emotion in the soul. It is upon the former of these that the enjoyment of life chiefly depends. Happiness may, therefore, be said

to consist in bodily ease and mental tranquillity. It is the office of reason to confine the pursuit of pleasure within the limits of nature, in order to the attainment of that happy state, in which the body is free from every kind of pain, and the mind from all perturbation. This state must not, however, be conceived to be perfect in proportion as it is inactive and torpid, but in proportion as all the functions of life are quietly and pleasantly performed. This happy state can only be attained by a prudent care of the body, and a steady government of the mind. The diseases of the body are to be prevented by temperance, or cured by medicine, or rendered tolerable by patience. Against the diseases of the mind, philosophy provides sufficient antidotes. The instruments which it employs for this purpose are the virtues; the root of which, whence all the rest proceed, is prudence. This virtue comprehends the whole art of living discreetly, justly, and honourably, and is, in fact, the same thing with wisdom. It instructs men to free their understandings from the clouds of prejudice; to exercise temperance and fortitude in the government of themselves; and to practise justice towards others. Although pleasure, or happiness, which is the end of living, be superior to virtue, which is only the means, it is every one's interest to practise all the virtues; for in a happy life pleasure can never be separated from virtue. A prudent man, in order to secure his tranquillity, will consult his natural disposition in the choice of his plan of life. Temperance is that discreet regulation of the desires and passions by which we are enabled to enjoy pleasures without suffering any consequent inconvenience. They who maintain such a self-command, as never to be enticed by the prospect of present indulgence to do that which will be productive of evil, obtain the truest pleasure by declining pleasure. Sobriety, as opposed to inebriety and gluttony, is of admirable use in teaching men that nature is satisfied with a little, and enabling them to content themselves with simple and frugal fare. Such a manner of living is conducive to the preservation of health; renders a man alert and active in all the offices of life; affords him an exquisite relish of the occasional varieties of a plentiful board; and prepares him to meet every reverse of fortune without the fear of want. Continence is a branch of temperance, which prevents the diseases, infamy, remorse, and punishment, to which those are exposed who indulge themselves in unlawful amours. Music and poetry, which are often employed as incentives to licentious pleasures, are to be cautiously and sparingly used. Gentleness, as opposed to an irascible temper, greatly contributes to the tranquillity and happiness of life, by preserving the mind from perturbation, and arming it against the assaults of calumny and malice. A wise man, who

puts himself under the government of reason, will be able to receive an injury with calmness, and to treat the person who committed it with lenity. Refractory servants in a family should be chastised, and disorderly members of a state punished, without wrath. Moderation, in the pursuit of honours or riches, is the only security against disappointment and vexation. A wise man, therefore, will prefer the simplicity of rustic life to the magnificence of courts. Future events a wise man will consider as uncertain, and will therefore neither suffer himself to be elated with confident expectation, nor to be depressed by doubt and despair; for both are equally destructive of tranquillity. It will contribute to the enjoyment of life, to consider death as the perfect termination of a happy life, which it becomes us to close like satisfied guests, neither regretting the past, nor anxious for the future. Fortitude, the virtue which enables us to endure pain and to banish fear, is of great use in producing tranquillity. Philosophy instructs us to pay homage to the gods, not through hope or fear, but from veneration of their superior nature. It moreover enables us to conquer the fear of death, by teaching us that it is no proper object of terror; since whilst we are, death is not, and when death arrives, we are not; so that it neither concerns the living nor the dead. The only evils to be apprehended are bodily pain and distress of mind. Bodily pains it becomes a wise man to endure with patience and firmness; because, if it be slight, it may easily be borne; and if it be intense, it cannot last long. Mental distress commonly arises not from nature, but from opinion; a wise man will therefore arm himself against this kind of suffering, by reflecting that the gifts of fortune, the loss of which he may be inclined to deplore, were never his own, but depended upon circumstances which he could not command. If therefore they happen to leave him, he will endeavour as soon as possible to obliterate the remembrance of them, by occupying his mind in pleasant contemplations, and engaging in agreeable avocations. Justice respects man as living in society, and is the common bond, without which no society can exist. This virtue, like the rest, derives its value from its tendency to promote the happiness of life. Not only is it never injurious to the man who practises it, but nourishes in his mind calm reflections and pleasant hopes; whereas it is impossible that the mind in which injustice dwells should not be full of disquietude. Since it is impossible that iniquitous actions should promote the enjoyment of life as much as remorse of conscience, legal penalties, and public disgrace, must increase its troubles, every one who follows the dictates of sound reason will practise the virtues of justice, equity, and fidelity. In society, the necessity of the mutual exercise of justice, in order to the common enjoyment of the gifts of nature, is the ground of those laws by which it is pre-

scribed. Nearly allied to justice are the virtues of beneficence, compassion, gratitude, piety, and friendship. He who confers benefits upon others procures to himself the satisfaction of seeing the stream of plenty spreading round him from the fountain of his beneficence; and at the same time he enjoys the pleasure of being esteemed by others. The exercise of gratitude, filial affection, and reverence for the gods, is necessary, in order to avoid the hatred and contempt of all men. Friendships are constructed for the sake of mutual benefit; but by degrees they ripen into such disinterested attachments, that they are continued without any prospect of advantage. Between friends there is a kind of league that each will love the other as himself. A true friend will partake of the wants and sorrows of his friend as if they were his own: if he be in want, he will relieve him; if he be in prison, he will visit him; if he be sick, he will come to him; nay, situations may occur, in which he would not scruple to die for him. It cannot then be doubted, that friendship is one of the most useful means of procuring a secure, tranquil, and happy life. From the preceding summary of the ethics of Epicurus, it will be readily seen how unjustly his enemies misrepresented his doctrine, when they stated that it offered encouragement to the practice of vice and licentiousness, and how illiberally they perverted his sense of the term *pleasure*, when he taught that it was the ultimate end of living. Whatever errors and absurdities may be fairly attributed to his system, on the whole, it must be acquitted of giving any countenance to immorality. By the notions, however, which it propagated respecting the gods, and their unconcern with the affairs of the world, it certainly contributed, in common with the principles of the atheistic sects, and of others who denied the immortality of the soul, greatly to weaken the motives to virtue. It must be acknowledged also, that his doctrine was very early much abused, and that the greater part of those who pretended to belong to the Epicurean school, reflected disgrace on the sect by their laxity and dissoluteness of manners. This was the case at Athens, and afterwards at Rome, where the sect continued in a depraved state till the decline of the Roman empire. In the *Nouveau Dictionnaire Historique* the reader may find a short account of modern Epicurean schools in France, the members of which were more distinguished by their literary refinement, polished manners, and luxurious indulgence, than their culture of the genuine doctrine of the Greek philosopher."

Copernicus and Descartes are important and well-executed articles, with Mr. Nicholson's signature; and some new and interesting lives of Danes, Swedes, and Germans, occur with the signature J.



**ART. VI.** *Life of Bonaparte, First Consul of France, from his Birth to the Peace of Lunewille. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 426.*

THE preface to this volume impressed us with a favourable opinion of its impartiality. "Every thing," says the writer, "not calculated to give a striking idea of the valour of our troops, and the genius of their chief, is passed lightly over." Presently we are told that the memorable deeds of Bonaparte, his heroic actions, his thoughts, his expressions, replete with meaning, and his striking and sublime replies, all agree with each other, and form a whole which leaves nothing to be wished. This preface is followed by what the author calls a portrait of Bonaparte, whereby we learn that the first consul is of the middle stature, like Alexander; skilled in military stratagems like Hannibal, and equally great in peace as in war like Washington.

"I shall not stop," says the biographer, "to relate the thousand and one tales which have been published of the early years of Bonaparte. Why should we search into the uncertain past, when the present displays a long series of great actions, and the future promises us still more?" Notwithstanding this prudent resolution, so ridiculously expressed, we find tales as absurd as any of the thousand and one. His school-fellows were accustomed to say "Does he not appear born to command?"

"He was at that time employed on a poem, on the liberty of Corsica. He imagined that, while slumbering in one of its numerous caverns, the genius of his country appeared to him in a dream, and, putting a poniard in his hand, called on him for vengeance. This was the opening of the poem, and whenever he added any thing to it, he would go and dig up a short rusty sword, which he called his poniard, send for his friend, and enthusiastically repeat the lines he had just written; after which he returned to bury his dagger."

The first Italian campaign is rapidly narrated. Nothing is given at length but the general's speech. The only curious anecdote is the reply of Bonaparte, when he was questioned why he had granted the emperor terms at such a time; "I was playing at *vingt-et-un*," said he, "and being twenty, I stood."

"On the night ensuing the long and dreadful battle of Arcola, Bonaparte disguised himself in the dress of an inferior offi-

cer, and traversed the camp. In the course of his round, he discovered a centinel leaning on the butt-end of his musket, in a profound sleep. Bonaparte, taking the musket from under him, placed his head gently on the ground, and kept watch for two hours in his stead; at the end of which the regular guard came to relieve him. On awaking, the soldier was astonished at seeing a young officer doing duty for him; but when, looking more attentively, he recognized in this officer the commander in chief, his astonishment was converted into terror. "The general! Bonaparte!" he exclaimed; "I am then undone!" Bonaparte, with the utmost gentleness, replied, "Not so, fellow-soldier; recover yourself; after so much fatigue, a brave man like you may be allowed for a while to sleep; but in future, choose your time better."

This circumstance is altogether improbable, and if true, would prove only an ostentation of clemency; to have waked the centinel, and walked on, would have been enough, but for a general in chief to keep watch two hours, while the guard was sleeping!

The expedition to Egypt is said to be Bonaparte's plan. Not a word of the defeat of the fleet is mentioned, except in the words of the general's dispatch, wherein he told the directory, "it was not till Fortune saw that the continuance of her favours were useless, that she abandoned our fleet to its destiny." The famous dialogue with the mufti, is given at length, "because it will give an idea of the genius of Bonaparte." The conversation is too studied, too much in the manner of dialogue writing to be considered as strictly authentic, yet it deserves some degree of credibility from this republication in a life, or rather a panegyric, of Bonaparte. "There is no other God but God," says the restorer of Catholicism to the mufti; "Mahomet is his prophet, and I am his friend. The divine Koran is the delight of my soul, and the object of my contemplation."

Every thing is related in this volume with indiscriminating rapidity; of course no hint is given of the massacre at Jaffa, and the more atrocious tale of the poisoned soldiers.

No light is thrown upon the retreat from Acre, that being one of the things "not calculated to give a striking idea of the valour of the troops, and the



genius of their chief." After the return of his hero to France, the author pauses, and makes the following very original reflections upon the Egyptian expedition.

"Every thing depends on *thought*; forty thousand arms wait to be put in action by that of one man; few of the chiefs, perhaps only the commander himself, are in the secret; the rest, in anxious expectation, have no conception of the event. Minerva must spring completely armed from the brain.

"The first grand *thought* is to treat with contempt the physical obstacles they have to contend with, on their arrival, from the sea, the winds, the coast, darkness, and the smallness of their force. It is necessary to be sure of a position, and a harbour before they land. They disembark, and take Alexandria, all in one day.

"*Thought* says, that an enemy astonished is half conquered. The next day the army continues its march: the shortest way becomes the best and most certain. *Alexander's army, in a similar extremity, make use of seditious language to the conqueror of the world; but the French march on.* The enemy make head against them; they neither halt nor entrench themselves, but advance to the charge. The enemy's force consists of cavalry, which the French are without; but science and tactics supply the deficiency; the theory of phalanxes, echelons, and oblique orders, is realised and put in practice; the vigorous and repeated charges of a numerous cavalry, are broken by the angles of square battalions, bristled with iron, and surrounded with fire, as the waves of the sea are repelled by the unshaken rock.

"*Thought* says, that an enemy easily dispersed, is as easily rallied, *et in fugâ metuentus*; no delay till after their defeat; they must be sought under the walls of their capital, and driven from them; where the standard of opinion is hoisted, it must be taken. Cairo surrenders on the 20th day; and Egypt is conquered; but her ancient governors are not destroyed; all is not accomplished; there still remains something to do.

"*Thought* says, armies are dispersed by force; the people can only be conquered by laws: the moment of repose will be that of legislation.

"*Thought* recollects, that manners, customs, and religion, are the means of the legislator, and that they are never abused by conquerors without punishment. *Thought* will know how to make use of them, and respect in them the rights of every *thinking* being.

"*Thought*, that always reads the future in the past, says, in fine, the centre of the enemy's force is occupied; but at the extremities it remains are still on foot; all is not done; something more is wanting: Upper Egypt, the ancient tower of Syene, shall be

made free; the Arabs shall return to the deserts, their country; well adapted for people who will acknowledge no home. The other extremity, the Asiatics, shall be driven back to their native soil.

"*Thought*, then, has the right to perambulate on this land, covered with her first monuments, and with her ancient productions; she calls in to her assistance the arts and sciences, and indefatigable observation. The laws revive in their ancient cradle. To conquer man we must make ourselves masters of his thoughts, in order to convince him by reason, instead of subjugating him by odious and servile fear. His efforts to break that necessary yoke must be repressed and kept within bounds, but not punished; for the very errors of the spirit of liberty are excusable; and clemency, after success, is both humane and politic.

"*Thought*, that perceives near and afar off, foresees some menacing preparations, and is convinced, that to await a threat, is to yield to it; that a land newly acquired cannot support the claims of two contending armies; it is necessary to prevent the inundation by turning aside the torrent at its source; the enemy preparing for invasion, are invaded; their towns are taken, their troops are dispersed before they are well assembled, and their armies are defeated, in divisions, before they can unite themselves in a mass.

"*Thought* then examines its projects, and casting a look behind, reviews what remains to be done."

We have quoted this passage as a specimen of what trash passes for eloquence in France.

The sheiks at Cairo told Bonaparte that the koran conferred all knowledge. He asked if it taught how to cast cannon? and all the sheiks present answered yes!

The picture of France at Bonaparte's return is well drawn.

"Nothing was to be found but venality, disorder, and devouring putrefaction in the social body, sinking beneath its afflictions. Invisible legions of spies and informers, pursuing their odious tasks, had become indispensable to a weak administration, steering without compass or guide. Suspicion and fear lurked in every mind; confidence and friendship were totally annihilated; distrust and egotism, contracting and drying up every heart, banished affectionate sentiments and generous passions; and an insurmountable apathy prevailed amongst almost all individuals, as to the interests of the state.

"Every thing was put up at public auction; offices and treasons were become objects of traffic; justice was only a name, patriotism a mask, liberty a phantom, and virtue a deception. Perfidious machinations, and obscure intrigues, in which the vile

passion of cupidity conducted the steps of the legislators, involved every one in perplexity; and the state appeared like a drunken man, staggering without support.

"All the political sects, and every unbridled passion, were busy in speculating on the public misfortunes; and plots and conspiracies were gathering around us; some wished to give us a foreign prince, others would have a dictator, or plunge us into the billows of arbitrary proceedings; assassinations were organised, and the government remained silent; La Vendée was rising again out of her ashes, and Machiavelian artifice fomented in secret interior dissensions. The nation was disgusted and betrayed; the intent of the revolution had failed; the fruits of our labours, sacrifices, and victories, were annihilated; the dregs of factions were in motion in the interior, and disputed with strangers for the tattered remnants of their country.

"The exterior presented a frightful aspect; our conquests were lost in Italy; our armies were discouraged, and became the prey of contractors; an honourable peace could not be made; our legions were fighting in the

name of a republic no longer existing but in name; friendly nations and republics, created by us, were oppressed and despoiled by the very power that ought to have protected them; and the gold and intrigues of kings found their way into the directorial palace, and into our senate."

Some of the anecdotes respecting the battle of Marengo, are completely ludicrous. When Bonaparte heard of the death of Desaix, he is here said to have exclaimed, "Why am I not allowed to weep for him?" And on observing the wounded, he remarked, "It is impossible not to regret being wounded like them, that we may the better partake of their pain." This last sentence is pure nonsense.

This volume concludes with the explosion of the infernal machine. We consider it as a very indifferent compilation, containing not more information than might have been collected in England, from English newspapers.

ART. VII. *Interesting Anecdotes of the heroic Conduct of Women, during the French Revolution.* Translated from the French of M. DU BROCA. 12mo. pp. 220.

BY those who delight to contemplate the dazzling sublimity of generous virtue, in glowing contrast with the blackest horrors of atrocious vice; to view the softer sex, inspired by the calamity of the times, working on the strongest affections of nature, with a courage and energy not their own, this chronicle of memorable deeds will be studied with enthusiasm. Again will it call forth, for the consolation of weeping humanity, the often verified assertion, that periods of distress and commotion are alike the parents of towering heroism, and gigantic crime. To the ardent mind of youth, anecdotes of this class are equally salutary and interesting, and callous, indeed must be that heart which they are incapable of rousing from indifference. In every collection of anecdotes some will be found unworthy of insertion; in the present we could find out many; those, especially, of women, who, inspired by false courage, have accompanied their murdered husbands, by a voluntary death, regardless of their helpless orphans, thus left without a guide or protector; and a few of a romantic cast, which have more the air of fiction than of truth. Several gallineries, and inaccuracies of style, we likewise observe, but on the whole we felt,

little inclined to criticize severely, and cheerfully pardoned partial faults in consideration of the general interest of the work. To stimulate, not to satisfy curiosity, we select the following specimens.

"In one of the western departments, a man, of the name of Le Fort, accused of conspiring against the republic, was seized and committed to prison. His wife, trembling for his fate, used every means that courage and affection could inspire to restore him to liberty, but without success. She then bought, with a sum of money, permission to pay him a single visit in his prison.

"At the appointed hour she appeared before her husband, clothed in two suits of her own apparel. With the prudence of not allowing herself, at so critical a juncture, to give or receive useless demonstrations of tenderness, she hastily took off her upper suit of attire, prevailed on her husband to put them on, and to quit the prison, leaving her in his place.

"The disguise succeeded to her wish, Le Fort escaped, and the stratagem was not discovered till the following day.

"Unhappy wretch," cried one of the enraged committee, "what have you done?" "My duty," she replied; "do thine."

"A prisoner, whose name was Delleglace, was ordered to be conveyed from Lyons to the Conciergerie at Paris. His daughter, who had never quitted him a moment from the time of his arrest, desired permission to

travel with him in the carriage prepared for his journey. This boon she could not obtain; but what obstacles can subdue the strength of filial love? Mademoiselle Delleglace, notwithstanding the weakness of her constitution, and laying aside the timidity natural to her sex, set off on foot with the carriage, which she accompanied in that manner for more than an hundred leagues; she sometimes quitted the side of the carriage, but it was only when she preceded her father, to procure proper nourishment for him in the towns through which they passed, and in the evening of every day, when she ran forward to beg of some charitable person a covering, to administer to her father's wants in the dungeon where he must pass the night.

"The gates of the Conciergerie, which she reached at the same time with her father, now excluded her from his sight. Still the fortitude of this extraordinary woman did

not give way. She had been accustomed to subdue the ferocity of jailors, and she could not be persuaded that she should plead for justice in vain before magistrates. Every morning, for three months, she implored the justice and humanity of some who had influence, and her virtuous perseverance was rewarded with her father's liberation.

"What pen can express the excessive joy of this happy girl, when she carried the tidings to her father? Exulting in her success, she next thought of conducting him back to his home and family. She fell ill in an inn on the road, worn out, no doubt, with the excess of fatigue, during this unparalleled exertion. She had not the good fortune to witness the utmost benefit of her enterprize; she never quitted her bed, but died in her father's arms, still deeming herself happy to have saved his life at the expence of her own."

**ART. VIII.** *The Thespian Dictionary, or Dramatic Biography of the Eighteenth Century, containing Sketches of the Lives, Productions, &c. of all the principal Managers, Dramatists, Composers, Commentators, Actors, and Actresses, of the united Kingdom.* 8vo. Six Portraits.

THE best praise that can be bestowed on such a work as this is, that there is nothing malevolent in the execution; that it is not, like the generality of *Thespiana*, the libellous work of a needy scoundrel. They who feel an interest

in green-room anecdotes, may be gratified by perusing the volume, provided their eyes be strong, or their spectacles good, for it is printed in imitation of a pocket bible.

**ART. IX.** *Public Characters of 1802—1803.* 8vo. pp. 568.

AN impartial publication this cannot be called, for it praises every body; but it is only this indiscriminating praise that can render the biography of living characters sufferable. The great men and little men who figure in these annual volumes, can have no objection to

see their ages stated to the public, and a respectful account given of their birth, parentage, and education. The book is compiled to satisfy vulgar curiosity; and the execution is in general as creditable as the design."

**ART. X.** *A Sermon occasioned by the Death of John Earl of Clare, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and Vice-Chancellor of the University. Delivered in the Chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, on Sunday, the 7th of February, 1802, by the Reverend WILLIAM MAGEE, D.D. senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, and Chaplain to his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant.* Third Edition, revised and corrected. 8vo. pp. 44.

"DETAILS of political conduct," says the preacher, "are not the proper subjects for this place; and, perhaps, in all cases the actions and motives of political men should be viewed from a distance, to reduce them from the exaggerated standard of party feeling, to their true and natural dimensions." But it is impossible to contemplate the character of the celebrated subject of this laboured eulogy, without reference to the conspicuous part which he so recently per-

formed in the political drama. The warmth and animation of this discourse do honour to the feelings of its author, but from beginning to end it is one continued panegyric, and must, therefore, be perused with caution.

Vertue, the engraver, had a pocket-book in his possession of Isaac Oliver, in which the latter had made a memorandum that the queen, his mistress, would not let him give any shade to her features, telling him that shade was an

accident, and not naturally existing in a face. The portraits of Elizabeth are therefore, usually without shadow. But the pencil of history flatters not; who her shadow is an accident to the face of

a woman, or the mind of a man, is immaterial; it is so constant an accompaniment to both, that a portrait of either, in which it is omitted, will be unlike the original.

ART. XI. *Memoirs of John Bacon, Esq. R.A. with Reflections drawn from a Review of his moral and religious Character.* By RICHARD CECIL, A.M. Minister of Saint John's, Bedford Row, &c. 12mo. pp. 118.

THE subject of these memoirs affords but few topics for the pen of the biographer. Mr. Bacon, one of the first sculptors that this country ever produced, was a man modest and unassuming, as well in his profession as in his domestic habits. He could not be insensible to his own superior merit, but he never seems to have courted competition, or to have felt the jealous ardor of rivalry. We have here, therefore, no account of academic squabbles, but merely a plain, unornamented narrative of the rise, progress, and perfection, of Mr. Bacon's celebrity.

The father of Mr. Bacon was a clothworker, in Southwark, where himself was born, November the 24th, 1740. "Providence," says his biographer, "seems to have peculiarly favoured his infancy; for when he was about five years of age he fell into the pit of a soap boiler, and would have perished, if a man who then entered the yard, had not discovered the top of his head, and immediately drawn him out. About the same time he fell before a cart, the wheel of which went over his right hand, and must have crushed it, had it not fallen between two projecting stones."

Mr. Cecil takes this opportunity of enforcing the belief of a *particular* providence: if our next-door neighbour's house is on fire, and the wind blows the flames away from our own, the escape is attributed to the intervention of a particular providence; when the flames communicate to our own, we seldom hear any thing about this doctrine; as if, truly, Providence had not as much concern in the one case as the other!

When very young, Mr. Bacon discovered an inclination for drawing, but not pursuing it, he never made any great proficiency in that art.

"In the year 1755, and at the age of fourteen, Mr. B. was bound apprentice to Mr. Crispe, of Bow-church-yard, where he was employed, among other things, in painting on porcelain. Mr. Crispe had a manufactory of china at Lambeth, to which Mr.

B. occasionally went, and where he assisted. His then occupation, indeed, was but a feeble step towards his future acquirements, as he was chiefly employed in forming shepherds, shepherdesses, and such small ornamental pieces; yet, for a self-taught artist to perform even works like these with taste, and, in less than two years, form (as he did) all the models for the manufactory, was to give an indication for no ordinary powers. But as goodness of heart excels greatness of parts, a proof of his feeling ought here to be recorded: at this early period he principally supported his parents by the produce of his labours, even to the abridging himself of the necessaries of life."

In attending the manufactory at Lambeth, Mr. B. had an opportunity of observing the models of different sculptors, which were sent to a pottery on the same premises to be burnt; from the sight of these models, he first conceived a strong inclination for his future profession. He applied himself to this attainment with the most unremitting diligence, and the numerous premiums bestowed upon him by the Society for the encouragement of Arts, between the years 1763 and 1766 inclusive, attest that his progress was as rapid as his turn for it was sudden and unpremeditated.

It was during Mr. B's apprenticeship that he formed a design of making

"Statues, in artificial stone, which he afterwards perfected. By these exertions he recovered the manufactory at Lambeth, now carried on by Mrs. Coade; and which, before Mr. B. undertook the management of it, had fallen into very low circumstances.

"About the year 1763, Mr. B. first attempted working in marble; and having never seen that operation performed, he was led to invent an instrument for transferring the form of the model to the marble, (technically called *getting out the points*), which instrument has since been used by many other sculptors in England and France. Its advantage, beyond the instruments formerly employed, consists in its certainty and exactness; in its taking a correct measurement in *every direction*; in its occupying so small a compass as not to encumber the workmen; and that it may be transferred either to the model or to the marble, without having a se-

parate instrument for each, as before was the custom.

"At this time Mr. B. lived in the city, where his family connections were, but in the year 1768 he removed to the west end of the town; and it was then (being about twenty-eight years of age) in attending the Royal Academy, instituted that year, that he received his first instructions in his future profession, having never before seen the art of modelling or sculpture regularly performed.

"In the following year, the gold medal for sculpture, the first ever given by that society, was decreed to Mr. B. He became an associate of that body in the year 1770. His reputation was now well established by the exhibition of his statue of Mars; it recommended him to the notice of the present Archbishop of York, who having designed to place a bust of his present majesty in the hall of Christ Church college, Oxford, presented Mr. B. to the king, who was pleased to sit to him for that purpose."

From this time Mr. Bacon's reputation shone with increasing lustre: his works are numerous, and from the public situations in which such works are usually placed, remain exposed to general criticism. At the time of his death Mr. Bacon had under his hand the following monuments, that of Mr. Whitbread, Sir William Jones, the poet Mason, Reverend Joseph Milner, General

Dundas, for Saint Paul's; Captains Harvey and Hutt, for Westminster Abbey, a group for India, containing a colossal statue of Marquis Cornwallis; an equestrian bronze of William III. for Saint James's Square, with some others of less importance.

Mr. Bacon was suddenly attacked with an inflammation in his bowels, on the evening of Sunday, August 4, 1799, and died on the Wednesday following, August 7, in the 59th year of his age, leaving a widow and eight children to lament his loss. By his will he ordered a plain stone, with the following inscription, (after the name and date), to be placed over his grave.

"What I was as an artist,  
Seemed to me of some importance  
While I lived:

B<sup>st</sup>

What I really was as a believer  
In Christ Jesus,  
Is the only thing of importance to me now."

The religion of Bacon was of that complexion which is usually denominated *vital*; he was zealous, but his heart shrunk from intolerance and persecution.

ART. XII. *A Sketch of the Life and Character of Lord Kenyon, late Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench.* 8vo. pp. 40.

IN this meagre memoir we are informed that Lord Kenyon was born at Gedington, in Flintshire, 1733, and that he died at Bath, April 2, 1802.

*Voilà tout!* Surely the active life of the late Lord Chief Justice will employ the pen of some competent biographer?



## CHAPTER X.

## BELLES LETTRES

AND

## MISCELLANIES.

THIS chapter contains the poetry of the last year (except translations from the classics, which have been already noticed in Chap. VI.) the dramatic works, and such miscellaneous publications as cannot with propriety and convenience be placed elsewhere.

Of the poetical productions, none are first rate, and but a few can fairly lay claim to a reputation of longer duration than an almanack. If their composition has not entrenched on the more serious occupations of the authors, if they have remunerated the bookseller for his risk and expence, and if the perusal of them has agreeably filled up a few leisure hours that might have been worse employed, they have been crowned with all the success to which they could reasonably aspire. A higher praise, however, is due to the *Orestes* of Sotheby, and the elegant productions of Mr. Wrangham. The *Metrical Miscellany* also contains several pieces of great interest, which invite to a more intimate acquaintance, and impress themselves strongly on the memory. Mr. Boyd has effected the long and difficult task of translating the *Divina Commedia* of Dante, with spirit and faithfulness. The *Chronicle of Scottish Poetry*, is neither likely nor worthy to be popular, but may be of use to the student and antiquary, as a specimen of the language, and as illustrative of the manners and literature of the Scottish nation. The *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*, is an entertaining and interesting addition to the information already published concerning the feats of courage and enterprise which distinguished the rapacious clans on each side of the borders. Mr. Southey has published a complete edition of the works and letters of Chatterton. And Dr. Aikin has engaged in an enlarged edition of *Johnson's English Poets*, of which the *Spencer* has already made its appearance.

Of the dramatic class there are none worthy of a moment's regard, except two. Mr. Lamb, in his *John Woodvil*, a tragedy, has sounded the very base string of meanness and poverty; and Miss Baillie, in her *Ethwald*, has gloriously retrieved the character of the age, by producing a drama, that, for lofty poetry, sublime sentiment, and true pathos, stands unquestionably at the head of every modern effort of the tragic muse.

The miscellanies form a very discordant list, the articles of which, like the orders composing the *Cryptogamia* class of Linnæus, have no other bond of mutual connexion, than their dissent from all the established chapters of our volume.

ART. I. *Chronicle of Scottish Poetry, from the Thirteenth Century to the Union of the Crowns. To which is added a Glossary.* By J. SIBBALD, 4 Vols. 8vo. about pp. 1700.

THE "Reliques of ancient Poetry," by Doctor Percy; and the "Evergreen," and "Tea-table Miscellany," of Allan Ramsay, were the first publications that excited in the English a general desire to become acquainted with the works of the Scottish poets, and of those north country bards who have celebrated the martial and predatory incursions of the border chieftains. An eager curiosity was thus awakened by the simplicity, the poetical merit, and the pathetic or animating incidents which distinguish many of these pieces. The difficulties and disgusts arising from the peculiar and almost foreign dialect in which they were written, began to be overcome, and the public taste was successively gratified by the judicious selections of Lord Hailes and Mr. Pinkerton, of Headly, Rison, and others. These editors, however, being very properly more scrupulous than their predecessors, have taken no further liberties with the ancient text, than some slight alterations of the spelling, and emendations, either conjectural, or on the authority of manuscripts, where the sense was materially obscured. Hence as authentic registers of the state of literature, in the periods to which they belong, as historical documents of many minute and interesting particulars relative to manners and opinions, the works alluded to are highly valuable, but on this very account have added little to the permanent stock of British poetry.

The harmony of versification, the congruity of expression, the delicacy and tenderness of sentiment, which characterize Doctor Percy's elegant paraphrases, appear to be almost wholly due to the correct taste of the editor; while the originals, as might be expected from the times in which they were written, contain many vigorous, and some beautiful passages, overwhelmed and almost lost among the affectation, the dullness, the grossness, and ruggedness of the rest. It would, therefore, be a real service to literature, if a judicious and readable selection were made from the writings of Dunbar, of Gawin Douglas, and the other immortal names in the list of Scottish poets, which should exhibit their genuine but most pleasing features, and thus tempt an acquaintance with

them, in spite of the unavoidable difficulties of a foreign dialect.

The collections of Lord Hailes and Mr. Pinkerton being out of print, Mr. Sibbald, the editor of the work before us, has incorporated the greatest part of their publications with other materials, procured from various sources, in order "to present a more complete collection of the ancient miscellaneous poetry of Scotland, than has hitherto appeared." These are arranged chronologically, so as to exhibit the progress of the language through a period of more than two hundred and fifty years, from 1341 to 1603. In conformity with our general plan, we shall present our readers with a short analysis of this "Chronicle of Scottish Poetry," and shall terminate the article with a few remarks on the merits and faults of the work.

The chronicle commences with the reign of David II. 1341—1371. Of the poetry of this period there is no specimen, except a selection from the "Adventures of Sir Gawane," supposed by Mr. Sibbald, but in our opinion on very insufficient evidence, to have formed a part of the "Grete gest of Arthur," written by Huchowne. In the succeeding reign of Robert II. 1371—1390, the first work of importance in the language of the Scottish lowlands made its appearance; it is the "Life of Bruce," by John Barbour, lately republished by Mr. Pinkerton. From this Mr. S. has selected the "Speech of King Robert the Bruce, on the Evening before the Battle of Bannockburn." This piece has no pretensions to poetical merit, and it might, perhaps, be objected that the sentiments are not of so highly heroic a cast as the occasion would justify. As a specimen of its language and spirit, we shall quote the following lines.

"Mete thaim with spers hardely,  
And think than on the meikell ill,  
That thai and thairs has done us till,  
And ar in will yeit for to do,  
Giff thai hass mycht to cum tharto.  
And certs me think weill that ye  
Forowt, [without] abaying aucht to be  
Worthy, and off gret wasselags [prowess],  
For we haiff thre gret awantags.  
The fyrst is, that we haiff the rycht;  
And for the rycht ay God will fycht.  
The tothyr is, that thai cummy n ar,

For lypynnyng off [depending on] their  
gret power,

To sek us in our awne land;  
And has broucht her, rycht till our hand,  
Ryches into sa gret quantité,  
That the powerest off you sall be  
Bath ryche, and mychty tharwithall,  
Giff that we wyne, as weill may fall.  
The thred is, that we for our lyvys,  
And for our childe, and for our wywis,  
And for our fredome, and for our land,  
As strenyeit into bataill stand.  
And thai, for thair mycht anerly,  
And for thai lat off us leychtly.  
And for thai wald destroy us all,  
Maiss thaim to fycht: bot yeit may fall  
That thai sall rew thair barganyng."

From 1390 to 1537, including the reigns of Robert III. and James I. together with the intervening regency of the Dukes of Albany, there appeared but few productions of the Scottish muse: the most voluminous was the "Orygnale cronykil" of Scotland, by Andrew Winton, prior of Lochleven, from which the "Legend of Sanct Serf," is selected by Mr. S. Infinitely superior, however, to this in poetical merit, is another of the same period, called the "King's Quhair," a beautiful allegorical poem, composed by James I. during his long captivity in England. The injustice committed by the detention of this prince, was in some degree atoned for by the excellent education which he received; and among other accomplishments it is evident from the "Quhair," that the graces of composition were by no means neglected; in style and thought it bears a great resemblance to the works of his "maisteris dere, Gawere and Chaucere," and exhibits marks of genuine poetic spirit. The garden of Windsor castle, in which he was confined, is the place where the scene of the allegory is laid, and is thus described.

"Now was there maid fast by the towris  
wall

A gardyne faire, and in the corneris set,  
Ane herbere green, with waudis long and  
small,

Railit about, and so with treis set  
Was all the place, and hawthorn begis knet,  
That lyf was non, walkyng there forbye,  
That mycht within scarce any wight aspye.

"So thick the bewis, and the leves grene  
Beschadit all the allyes that there were,  
And myddis every herbere mycht be sene  
The sharp grene suete jeneverie,  
Growing so fair with branches here and there,  
That, as it semyt to a hyf without,  
The bewis spred the herbere all about.

"And on the small grene twistis sat  
The lytil suete nygtingale, and song  
So loud and clete, the ymynis consecrat  
Of luvys use, now soft, now lowd among,  
That all the gardynis and the wallis rong  
Rycht of thaire song."

The two Scottich poets that flourished in the reign of James II. 1437—1460, were Holland and Henryson. The first of these, a partizan of the Douglas family, is chiefly known by his "Houlat," a satyrical poem on the king, first published by Mr. Pinkerton, and republished in this work. It is extremely obscure, and of no value, except as a specimen of the language. The fables of Henryson, on the other hand, are of considerable merit, and though written in a rambling desultory manner, and spun out unnecessarily, contain much natural description, less tainted with extravagance than might be expected. The fable of the "Town and Country Mouse" in particular, though rather too long, is admirably told, and cannot fail to please, even if it provokes a comparison with the versions of Horace and Pope. The subject is thus introduced:

"Esape, myne autour, makis mentioun  
Of twa myssis; and they were sisters deir;  
Off quohom the elder dwelt in borrowstoun;  
The younger wend up-on-land, weil neir  
Rycht solitair; quhyle under busk and breir,  
Quhyle in the corn, in eicher menys schacht,  
As outlawis dois that levis on ylin wacht.

"The rurall mouss into the winter tyde  
Had hungar, cauld, and tholit grit distress;  
The tothir mouss that in the burgh can byde,  
Was gilt brother, and made ane free burgess.  
Tol-free alsua, but custom, mair or less,  
And freedom had to ga quhair eir sche list  
Among the cheiss and meill, in ark and kist."

As the whole fable is too long for quotation, we omit the visit of the "Burgess" to her sister, her reception, her homely though welcome feast, and all the other transactions, till the "twa sisters" arrive at the home of the "Town Mouse."

"Thair herboury was tane,  
Intill a spence, wher vittel was plenty,  
Baith cheis and butter on lang skelfs richt  
hie,  
With fish and flesh enough, baith fresh and  
salt,  
And pokkis full of grots, baith meil and  
malt.

"After, quhen they disposit wer to dyne,  
Withouthen grace they wush and went to  
peit,

On every dish that cuikmen can divyne,  
Mutton and beef strikin out in telzies grit;  
Ane lordis fair thus can they counterfitt,  
Except ane thing, they drank the watter cleir  
Insteid of wine, but yet they made gude  
cheir.

“ With blyth upcast and merry countenance,  
The elder sister then speird at her gest,  
Gif that scho thocht be reson differance  
Betwixt that chalmer and her sary nest.  
Yea dame, quoth scho; but how lang will  
this lest?

For evirmair I wate, and langer to.  
Gif that be trew, ye ar at eise, quoth scho.

“ To eik the cheir, in plenty furth scho  
brocht,  
A plate of grottis, and a dish of meil,  
A threfe of caiks, I trow scho spairt them  
nocht,

Habundantie about her for to deill;  
Furmage full fyn scho brocht insteid of  
geil,

A quhyte candle out of a coffer staw,  
Insteid of spyce, to creish thair teith with a.

“ Thus made they mirry, quhyte they  
nicht nae mair,

And hail *gyle*! hail! they cryt up on hie;  
But after joy asfentymes comes cair,  
And trouble after grit prosperitie:

Thus as they sat in all their iolitic,  
The spensar came with keis in his hand,  
Opent the dore, and them at dinner fand.”

The spensar, however, does not observe them, and after the little rustic has recovered from her alarm, and the spensar has departed, they again go to their repast.

“ But skantly had they drunken anes or  
twice,

Quhen in came Gib Hunter, our joly cat,  
And bad God-speid. The burges up than  
gat,

And till her hole scho fled as fyre of flint;  
Badrans the uther be the back has hint.

“ Frae fute to fute she kest her to and frae,  
Quhyte up, quhyte down, als cant as ony kid;  
Quhyte wald she let her ryn under the strae,  
Quhyte wald she wink and played with her,  
buk-hid:

Thus to the silly mous grit harm she did;  
Quhyte at the last, throw fair fortune and  
hap,

Betwixt the dressour and the wall scho crap.

“ Syne up in haste behind the pannaling,  
Sae hie scho clam, that Gilbert might not  
get her,

And be the cluks crafstylie can hing,  
Till he was gane, her cheir was all the better.  
Syne down scho lap, quhen there was nane  
to let her,

Then on the burges mous loud couth she  
cry,

Fairwail sister, heir I thy feist defy.”

“ Wer I into the place that I cum frae,  
For weil nor wae I sould neir cum again.  
With that scho tuke her lief, and furth can  
gae,

Quhyte throw the corn, quhyte throw the  
plain,

Quhen scho was furth and frie, sche was  
rycht fain,

And merrylie linkit unto the mure,  
I cannot tell how afterwart scho fure.

“ But I hard syne she passit to her den,  
As warm as wow, suppose it was not grit,  
Full beinly stuffit was baith butt and ben,  
With peis, and nuts, and beins, and ry and  
quheir,

When eir scho lykt scho had eneuch of meit,  
In quito and eise, withouten dreid,  
But till her sister's feist nae mair she yied.”

We cannot resist quoting a stanza of  
the “Moralitas,” for its elegant simplicity.

“ Blissit be symple lyfe, withoutin dreid,  
Blissit be sober feist in quieté;

Quha hes enuche, of no moir hes he neid,  
Thocht it be littill into quanteté.

Grit habowndance, and blind prosperité,  
Of tynnis maks ane evill conclusioun;  
The suetest lyfe, thairfoir, in this cuntré,  
Is of sicknes, with small possessioun.”

Mr. S. adopting the opinion of Lord Hailes, has also inserted in this period the old poem “Pebelis to the Play,” which is ascribed by Percy, Pinkerton, and Ritson, to James I.; also two anonymous pieces, the one entitled “Sir Penny, or the Power of Money,” and the other “How a Merchant did his Wife betray.” With regard, however, to the former of these, we are of opinion with Warton, (who has inserted it in his “History of English Poetry,”) that it was composed south of the Tweed: and the latter poem is a curious instance of the licence which Mr. Sibbald assumes, in attributing to Scottish authors pieces that are much more probably of English composition. “This poem,” says the editor, “was published by Mr. Ritson, in his ancient popular poetry, 1791, from a manuscript in the *public library at Cambridge*, (written apparently about the reign of Edward IV.) and from the language and orthography, pronounced to be of Scottish, or at least of north country extraction. This I consider as a sufficient authority for assigning to it a place in this collection of Scottish poetry. *But as the orthography may have suffered some alteration in the hands of the English compiler of the manu-*

*script, I have here ventured, as in the preceding article, to use the Quh instead of Wh," &c.*

The next period, the reign of James III. 1460—1488, presents us with the "Testament of Faire Cresseid," the "Bludy Serk," and other pieces, dubiously attributed to Robert Henryson, which having the same general merits and defects of his fables, need not be further noticed.

The succeeding period from 1488 to 1513, is the brightest æra of Scottish poesy. Civilization and refinement had made considerable progress in the country, and the minds of men had not yet begun to be disturbed by theological differences. The muse, though faintly heard amidst the storms of war, exerted her voice with peculiar vigour, during the short and smiling intervals of the human tempest, but became almost wholly torpid in the dreary polar right of intolerant fanaticism. The reign of James IV. was illustrated by William Dunbar and Gawin Douglas, two of the greatest poets that Scotland has produced, the one illustrious for the "Golden Terge," the other for his translation of Virgil's *Æneid*. Mr. S. has made a large selection from the works of Dunbar, so as to include all his first rate pieces, and several others that might have been as well omitted. The "Golden Terge," is allegorical in its subject, representing the poet protected by the golden shield of reason, from various assaults and temptations, but at length "woundit till the deth," by Lady Bewty. The plan and contrivance of the poem, is not of superlative merit, but for glowing and rich description is entitled to high praise. It commences with a favourite subject among the Scottish poets, a description of a May morning, which we shall select as a specimen.

"Or Phœbus wes in purpur cape revest;  
Upraise the lark, the hevenis menstral fyne  
In May intill a morrow mirthfullest.

"Full angelyk thir birdis sang thair houris  
Within thair courtyngeis grene, into thair  
bouris,

Apperrellit quhite and reid, with blumys  
sweet;

Ennamelit wes the feild with all cullouris,  
The perlie droppis schuk in silver schouris;  
Quhyle all in balme did branche and levis  
fleit.

To pairt fra Phœbus did Aurora greit;  
Her cristall teiris I saw hing on the flouris,  
Quhilk he for lufe all drank up with his heit.

"For mirth of May, with skippis and  
with hoppis,

The birdis sang upon the tendir croppis,  
With curious note, as Venus chapel-clarks.  
The rosie yung, new spreiding of their knop-

pis,  
Were powderit bricht with hevinly berial  
droppis,

Throw bemis rede, burning as ruby sparkis;  
The skyis rang for schoutyng of the larkis,  
The purpoure hevin or scaillit in silver sloppis,  
Owregilt the treis, branchis, lef, and barkis."

Dunbar was intimate at court, and many of his smaller poems exhibit curious pictures of the fashionable manners of the time; evil communications, however, corrupt good manners, and the bard occasionally is guilty of more than poetic licence.

Gawin Douglas is a writer of a more sober cast. Besides his translation of the *Æneid* of Virgil, he was the author of the "Palice of Honour," some smaller poems, and of sundry other pieces now lost. His style is by no means so pure, nor is his verse so harmonious, as Dunbar's; his "Palice of Honour" is a tedious allegory, abounding more with mythology than with poetry; but his Virgil is respectably executed. To each of the twelve books is prefixed an original prologue, the seventh and twelfth of which being descriptions of winter and a May morning, have been judiciously selected by Mr. Sibbald: the following winter scene affords, perhaps, the best specimen of the descriptive powers of Douglas, in which his characteristic harshness is in some degree excused by the subject.

"Rany ORION with his stormy face  
Bywavit oft the Schipman by hys race:

Frawart SATURNE chil of complexion,  
Throw quhais aspect dath and infectioun

Bene causit oft, and mortal pestilence,  
Went progressive the greis of his ascence:

And lusty HEBE, JUNOIS dochter gay,  
Stude spulyete of hir office and array.

The sole yswopite in to watur wak,  
The firmament ourecast with cludis blak:

The ground fadit, and fauch wox al the  
feildis,

Mountane toppis slekit with snaw over  
heilidis:

On raggit rolkis of hard harsk quhyn stane,  
With trosyn frontis cald clynty clewis schane;

Bewty was loist, and harrand schew the  
landis,

With frostis hare oucrfet the feildis standis.

"Thik drumly skuggis dirkinnet so the  
hevin,

Dym skyis oft furth warpit fereful levin,



Flaggis of fyre, and mony felloun flaw,  
Scharp soppis of sleit, and of the snyppand  
snaw:

The dolly dichis war al donk and wate,  
The law valis flodderit all wyth spate,  
The plane stretis and every hie way  
Full of fluschis, dubbis, myre and clay;  
Laggerit levis wallowit fernis schew  
Broun muris kythit thare wissinyt mossy  
hew;

Bank, bray and boddum blanschit wox and  
bare;

For gowll weddir growit beistis hare.  
The wynd maid waif the rede wede on the  
dyk,

Bedowin in donkis depe was every sike:  
Ouer craggis and the frontis of rochys sere  
Hang grete yse—schokkilis lang as ony  
spere:

The grund slade barrane, widderit, dosk and  
gray,

Herbis, flowris, and gerssis wallowit away:  
Woddis, forestis with naket bewis blout,  
Stude stripit of thare wede in every hout:  
Sa bustouslie BOREAS his bugill blew,  
The dere full derne down in the dailis drew:  
Small birdis flok and throwilk ronnyis thrang,  
In chirmynge, and with cheping changit  
thare sang,

Sekand hidlis and hirnyis thame to hyde  
Fra ferefull thuddis of the tempestuous tyde:  
The wattr lynnys rowtis, and every lynd  
Quhislit and brayit of the souchand wynd:  
Pure lauboraris and byssy husband men  
Went weet and wery draglit in the fen."

The whole of the second volume of this work is occupied by poetry of the reign of James V. 1530—1542. It commences with several small pieces, written by Dunbar, in the decline of life, when newer and younger favourites were superseding him at court. Their character is gravity and querulousness, yet not without occasional flashes of that genius which had formerly distinguished him. To these succeed a few short pieces by Stewart and Bellenden, which contain nothing worthy of notice.

Sir David Lindsay is the principal poet, or rather verse-writer, of this reign, and as his works are now become scarce, Mr. S. has been at the very unnecessary trouble of reprinting them entire in this collection. Lindsay was a violent partizan of John Knox, and the general subjects of his writings are religious controversy, and satires against the clergy, the court, the government, and female dress. As a short specimen of his style and manner, we shall quote the following lines from his long, dull poem "On the Four Monarchies."

"Sen Peter and Paull vaine glorie refusit,

With Popis, quhy suld sic glorie be usit?  
Peter, Andrew, Johne, James, and Paull,  
And Christis true discipulis all,  
By Goddis word thair faith defendit;  
To burn and scald thay neuer pretendit.  
The pope defendis his traditioun  
By flammond fyre without remissioun.  
Howbeit men break the law divyne,  
Thay are nocht put to so great pyne,  
For huredome, nor idolatrie,  
For incest, nor adulterie,  
Or quhen young virginis are deflourit,  
For sic things men are nocht abhorrit.  
But quho that eatis flesche into Lent,  
Are terribly put to torment.  
And gif ane priest happen to marrie,  
Thay do him baneis, curse and warie,  
Thoch it be nocht aganis the law  
Of God, as men may clearly knaw."

From this time, to the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, (which is the boundary of the work before us), we meet with few poems capable of interesting the generality of readers south of Tweed. The Earl of Glencairn wrote verses in favour of the congregation, and Sir R. Maitland, in return, thundered forth his satires against disloyalty and heresy. Scott, Claperton, and Semple, published amatory poems, many of which, inserted in this "Chronicle," ought for decorum's sake to have been omitted; and Wedderburne wrote "Gude and Godly Ballats," in which not only the measures but even the burthens of some of the most popular songs were retained. As an instance of the singular fanaticism of the times, we shall quote a few verses from one of the ballads.

"The hunt is up, the hunt is up,  
And now it is almost day,  
And he that's in bed with another  
mans wyfe,  
It's time to get away."

"With huntis up, with huntis up,  
It is now perfit day,  
Jesus our king is gane in hunting  
Quha lykes to speid they may.

"Ane cursit fox lay hid in rox  
This lang and many a day  
Devouring scheip; quhyle he nicht creip  
Nane nicht him schape away.

"The hunter is Christ, that huntis in  
haste,  
The houndis are Peter and Paul,  
The Paip is the fox, Rome is the rox,  
That rubbis us on the gall."

The concluding poems of this work are selected from the "Poetical Exercises" of James VI.; of these the prin-

cipal one, that is, the longest, is "An metaphorical invention of a Tragedie called Phœnix." It begins with an acrostic, and the end is worthy of the beginning.

The fourth volume is occupied by an introductory dissertation on the origin and meaning of the terms Picts, Caledonians, and Scots; and by a glossary of ancient Scottish words. From the care taken in the compilation of this last, the editor informs us, that "the glossary now offered to the public, has, indeed, some claim to be considered as a dictionary of the ancient language of Scotland." We have cursorily looked it over, and think that we have observed in it many errors; and with regard to its comprehensiveness, it will be sufficient to remark, that in the first sixteen lines of the quotation above, from Gawin Douglas's description of winter, selected

at hazard for this trial, the following words are either wholly omitted, or not properly explained, in the glossary. viz. greis, sole, quhynstane.

The value of this "Chronicle of Scottish Poetry," will probably be very differently estimated by different persons. The national antiquary may regard it as containing many rare and curious representations of the state of Scottish literature, of domestic manners, and religious sentiments, but it is not calculated to be popular among English readers. The perpetual recurrence of formal, dull allegory, of unadorned common place morality, and of theological and political invective, together with the indecent grossness of many of the lighter pieces, greatly counterbalance the amusement and instruction which this book, even upon the most liberal computation, is able to afford.

ART. II. *Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border: consisting of historical and romantic Ballads, collected in the southern Counties of Scotland; with a few of modern Date founded upon local Tradition. Edited by WALTER SCOT. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 400 in each Vol.*

THAT natural and eager curiosity which prompts us to search out the records of our forefathers; to pry with unwearied assiduity into every document capable of throwing light on their history, their opinions, their manners, and their customs; joined to that love of novelty, and of contrast, which, in an age of the highest refinement of cultivation, lends an inexpressible charm to the rude simplicity of early times, has always insured to publications like the present a large portion of general interest.

At the same time, the antiquarian researches necessary for the explanation of the obsolete phrases and forgotten allusions of old writers, embracing, as they frequently must, the most minute details of circumstances, to which nothing but their antiquity can give importance, fatigue the indolent and volatile reader, while they disgust the fastidious. The analysis that we are about to give, joined to the copious extracts in which we shall indulge ourselves, will abundantly prove the work before us to be one of the most complete in design, and elaborate in execution, ever published on a similar subject. The introduction presents us with a clear and animated view of border history from the

accession of the Stuart family to the Scottish throne, to the union of the two British kingdoms under James VI. The following account of the surprise of the parliament at Stirling, affords some lively traits of the fearless and rapacious clans who, during the turbulent minority of James VI. embracing the cause of his captive mother, struck terror into the bosoms of his boldest adherents:

"The Earl of LENNOX, who had succeeded MURRAY in the regency, held a parliament at Stirling, in 1571. The young king was exhibited to the great council of his nation. He had been tutored to repeat a set speech composed for the occasion; but, observing that the roof of the building was a little decayed, he interrupted his recitation, and exclaimed, with childish levity, "that there was a hole in the parliament;" words which, in these days, were held to presage the deadly breach shortly to be made in that body by the death of him in whose name it was convoked.

"Amid the most undisturbed security and confidence, the lords who composed this parliament were aroused at day-break, by the shouts of their enemies in the heart of the town—*God and the Queen!* resounded from every quarter, and, in a few minutes, the regent, with the astonished nobles of his party, were prisoners to a band of 200 border cavalry, led by SCOT of Buccleugh, and to the Lord CLAUD HAMILTON, at the head of

300 infantry. These enterprising chiefs, by a rapid and well concerted manœuvre, had reached Stirling in a night's march from Edinburgh, and, without so much as being bayed by a watch-dog, had seized the principal street of the town. The fortunate obstinacy of MORTON saved his party. Stubborn and undaunted, he defended his house till the assailants set it in flames, and then yielded with reluctance to his kinsman BUCCLEUGH. But the time which he had gained effectually served his cause. The borderers had dispersed to plunder the stables of the nobility; the infantry thronged tumultuously together on the main street, when the Earl of Mar, issuing from the castle, placed one or two small pieces of ordnance in his own half-built house,\* which commands the market-place. Hardly had the artillery begun to scour the street, when the assailants, surprised in their turn, fled with precipitation. Their alarm was increased by the townsmen thronging to arms. Those who had been so lately triumphant, were now, in many instances, asking the protection of their own prisoners. In all probability, not a man would have escaped death, or captivity, but for the characteristic rapacity of BUCCLEUGH's marauders, who, having seized and carried off all the horses in the town, left the victors no means of following the chase. The regent was slain by an officer named CAULDER, in order to prevent his being rescued. SPENS, of Ormeston, to whom he had surrendered, lost his life in a generous attempt to protect him. Hardly does our history present another enterprise, so well planned, so happily commenced, and so strangely disconcerted. To the licence of the marchmen the failure was attributed; but the same cause ensured a safe retreat."

The final subjugation of the borderers is thus narrated :

"The accession of JAMES to the English crown converted the extremity into the center of his kingdom.

"The east marches of Scotland were, at this momentous period, in a state of comparative civilization. The rich soils of Berwickshire soon invited the inhabitants to the arts of agriculture. Even in the days of LESLEY, the nobles and barons of the Merse differed in manners from the other borderers, administered justice with regularity, and abstained from plunder and depredation. *Leslæi, de moribus Scotorum*, p. 7. But on the middle and western marches, the inhabitants were unrestrained moss-troopers, and cattle drivers, knowing no measure of law, says CAMDEN, but the length of their swords. The sterility of the mountainous country, which they inhabited, offered little encour-

agement to industry; and, for the long series of centuries which we have hastily reviewed, the hands of rapine were never there folded in inactivity, nor the sword of violence returned to the scabbard. Various proclamations were in vain issued, for interdicting the use of horses and arms upon the west border of England and Scotland.

"Proclamation shall be made, that all inhabiting within Tynedale and Riddesdale, in Northumberland, Bewcastledale, Willgavey, the north part of the Gilsland, Eske, and Leven, in Cumberland; east and west Tivdale, Liddlesdale, Eskdale, Ewsdale, and Annesdale, in Scotland; (saving noblemen and gentlemen unsuspected of felony and theft, and not being of broken clans, and their household servants, dwelling within those several places, before recited), shall put away all armour and weapons, as well offensive as defensive, as jacks, spears, lances, swords, daggers, steel caps, hack-buts, pistols, plate sleeves, and such like; and shall not keep any horse, gelding, or mare, above the value of fifty shillings sterling, or thirty pounds Scots, upon like pain of imprisonment."

*Proceedings of the Border Commissioners, 1605. — Introduction to History of Cumberland, p. 127.*

"The evil was found to require the radical cure of extirpation. BUCCLEUGH collected under his banners the most desperate of the border warriors, out of whom he formed a legion, for the service of the States of Holland, who had as much reason to rejoice on their arrival upon the continent, as Britain to congratulate herself upon their departure. It may be presumed, that few of this corps ever returned to their native country. The clan of GRAME, a hardy and ferocious sept of freebooters, inhabiting chiefly the Debateable Land, by a very summary exertion of authority was transported to Ireland, and their return prohibited under pain of death. Against other offenders, measures, equally arbitrary, were without hesitation pursued. Numbers of border riders were executed, without even the formality of a trial; and it is even said, that, in mockery of justice, assizes were held upon them after they had suffered. For these acts of tyranny, see *Johnston*, p. 374, 414, 39, 93. The memory of DUNBAR's legal proceedings at Jedburgh, are preserved in the proverbial phrase, *Jed-dart Justice*, which signifies trial after execution. By this rigour, though sternly and unconscientiously exercised, the border marauders were, in the course of years, either reclaimed or exterminated; though nearly a century elapsed ere their manners were altogether assimilated to those of their countrymen."

\* This building still remains in the unfinished state which it then presented.

To the historical sketch, which here concludes, some anecdotes and remarks are annexed illustrative of the manners and customs of the people. Of their morality, which is the first particular noticed, the following specimens will give a competent idea:

" Their morality was of a singular kind. The rapine, by which they subsisted, they accounted lawful and honourable. Ever liable to lose their whole substance, by an incursion of the English on a sudden breach of truce, they cared little to waste their time in cultivating crops to be reaped by their foes. Their cattle was, therefore, their chief property; and these were nightly exposed to the southern borderers, as rapacious and active as themselves. Hence, robbery assumed the appearance of fair reprisal. The fatal privilege of pursuing the marauders into their own country, for recovery of stolen goods, led to continual skirmishes. The warden also, when redress was not instantly granted by the opposite officer, for depredations sustained by his district, was entitled to retaliate upon England by a *Warden Raid*. In such cases, the moss-troopers, who crowded to his standard, found themselves pursuing their craft under legal authority, and became the favourites and followers of the military magistrate, whose duty it was to have checked and suppressed them. See the curious history of *Geordie Bourne*, App. No. 1. Equally unable and unwilling to make nice distinctions, they were not to be convinced that what was to-day fair booty, was to-morrow a subject of theft. National animosity usually gave an additional stimulus to their rapacity, although it must be owned that their depredations extended also to the more cultivated parts of their own country.

" The inroads of the marchers, when stimulated only by the desire of plunder, were never marked with cruelty, and seldom even with bloodshed, unless in the case of opposition. They held, that property was common to all who stood in want of it; but they abhorred and avoided the crime of unnecessary homicide.—*Lesley*, p. 63. This was, perhaps, partly owing to the habits of intimacy betwixt the borderers of both kingdoms, notwithstanding their mutual hostility, and reciprocal depredations. A natural intercourse took place between the English and Scottish marchers, at border meetings, and during the short intervals of peace. They met frequently at parties of the chace and foot-ball; and it required many and strict regulations, on both sides, to prevent them from forming intermarriages, and from cultivating too close a degree of intimacy. *Scottish Acts*, 1587, c. 105; *Wharton's Regulations*, 6th Edward VI. The custom, also, of paying black mail, or protection-rent, introduced a connection between the

countries; for a Scottish borderer, taking black mail from an English inhabitant, was not only himself bound to abstain from injuring such person, but also to maintain his quarrel, and recover his property if carried off by others. Hence, a union arose betwixt the parties, founded upon mutual interest, which counteracted in many instances the effects of national prejudice.

" This humanity and moderation was, on certain occasions, entirely laid aside by the borderers. In the case of deadly feud, either against an Englishman, or against any neighbouring tribe, the whole force of the offended clan was bent to avenge the death of any of their numbers. Their vengeance not only vented itself upon the homicide and his family, but upon all his kindred, on his whole tribe; on every one, in fine, whose death or ruin could affect him with regret.—*Lesley*, p. 63; *Border Laws passim*; *Scottish Acts*, 1594, c. 231. The reader will find, in the following collection, many allusions to this infernal custom, which always overcame the marcher's general reluctance to shed human blood, and rendered him remorselessly savage.

" For fidelity to their word, *LESLEY* ascribes high praise to the inhabitants of the Scottish frontier. When an instance happened to the contrary, the injured person, at the first border meeting, rode through the field, displaying a glove (the pledge of faith) upon the point of his lance, and proclaiming the perfidy of the person who had broken his word. So great was the indignation of the assembly against the perjured criminal, that he was often slain by his own clan, to wipe out the disgrace he had brought on them. In the same spirit of confidence, it was not unusual to behold the victors, after an engagement, dismiss their prisoners upon parole, who never failed either to transmit the stipulated ransom, or to surrender themselves to bondage, if unable to do so. But the virtues of a barbarous people, being founded, not upon moral principle, but upon the dreams of supersition, or the capricious dictates of ancient custom, can seldom be uniformly relied on. We must not, therefore, be surprised to find these very men, so true to their word in general, using, upon other occasions, various resources of cunning and chicanery, against which the border laws were in vain directed."

Their habitations, dress, arms, and manner of combat, are next described. A short passage on religion follows, of which they had very little; and a long one on superstition, of which they had a great deal. A belief in spells, witches, ghosts, and evil spirits, was universal; and under the latter head these tales of horror are told:

"One of the most noted apparitions is supposed to haunt Spedlin's castle, near Lochmaben, the ancient baronial residence of the JARDINES of Applegarth. It is said, that in exercise of his territorial jurisdiction, one of the ancient lairds had imprisoned, in the *Massy More*, or dungeon of the castle, a person named PORTEOUS. Being called suddenly to Edinburgh, the laird discovered, as he entered the west port, that he had brought along with him the key of the dungeon. Struck with the utmost horror, he sent back his servant to relieve the prisoner—but it was too late. The wretched being was found lying upon the steps descending from the door of the vault, starved to death. In the agonies of hunger, he had gnawed the flesh from one of his arms. That his spectre should haunt the castle, was a natural consequence of such a tragedy. Indeed its visits became so frequent, that a clergyman of eminence was employed to exercise it. After a contest of twenty-four hours, the man of art prevailed so far as to confine the goblin to the *Massy More* of the castle, where its shrieks and cries are still heard. A part, at least, of the spell, depends upon the preservation of the ancient black-letter bible employed by the exorcist. It was some years ago thought necessary to have this bible re-bound; but, as soon as it was removed from the castle, the spectre commenced his nocturnal orgies, with tenfold noise; and it is verily believed that he would have burst from his confinement, had not the sacred volume been speedily replaced.

"A mass JOHN SCOTT, minister of Peebles, is reported to have been the last renowned exorciser, and to have lost his life in a contest with an obstinate spirit. This was owing to the conceited rashness of a young clergyman, who commenced the ceremony of laying the ghost, before the arrival of mass JOHN. It is the nature, it seems, of disembodied spirits, as well as embodied, to increase in strength and presumption, in proportion to the advantages which they may gain over the opponent. The young clergyman losing courage, the horrors of the scene were increased to such a degree, that, as mass JOHN approached the house in which it passed, he beheld the slates and tiles flying from the roof as if dispersed by a whirlwind. At his entry, he perceived all the wax-tapers (the most essential instruments of conjuration) extinguished, except one, which already burned blue in the socket.—The arrival of the experienced sage changed the scene: he brought the spirit to reason; but, unfortunately, while addressing a word of advice or censure to his rash brother, he permitted the ghost to obtain the last word; a circumstance which, in all colloquies of this nature, is strictly to be guarded against. This fatal oversight occasioned his falling into a lingering disorder, of which he never recovered."

"The creed of the borderers likewise admitted the existence of various orders of subordinate spirits. Brownie, a friendly domestic who employed himself in performing a thousand menial services for the family to whom he was attached; and Shellycoat, a *bogle*, or goblin inhabiting the waters, the freakish puck of the Scotch, are particularly mentioned; a long dissertation on fairies occurs afterwards; for which reason they are barely named in this place. The domestic economy of the border chiefs is next detailed in an entertaining manner."

"We may form some idea of the style of life maintained by the border warriors, from the anecdotes, handed down by tradition, concerning WALTER SCOTT, of Harden, who flourished towards the middle of the sixteenth century. This ancient laird was a renowned freebooter, and used to ride with a numerous band of followers. The spoil, which they carried off from England, or from their neighbours, was concealed in a deep and impervious glen, on the brink of which the old tower of Harden was situated. From thence the cattle were brought out, one by one, as they were wanted, to supply the rude and plentiful table of the laird. When the last bullock was killed and devoured, it was the lady's custom to place on the table a dish, which, on being uncovered, was found to contain a pair of clean spurs; a hint to the *riders* that they must shift for their next meal. Upon one occasion, when the village herd was driving out the cattle to pasture, the old laird heard him call loudly to drive out HARDEN'S cow. 'HARDEN'S cow?' echoed the affronted chief. 'Is it come to that pass? By my faith they shall sune say, HARDEN'S kye' (cows). Accordingly, he sounded his bugle, mounted his horse, set out with his followers, and returned next day with 'a bow of kye, and a *hasen'd* (bridled) bull.' On his return with this gallant prey, he passed a very large hay-stack. It occurred to the provident laird, that this would be extremely convenient to fodder his new stock of cattle; but as no means of transporting it occurred, he was fain to take leave of it with this apostrophe, now proverbial: 'By my soul, had ye but four feet, ye should not stand long there.' The same mode of house-keeping characterized most border families on both sides. A MS. quoted, in *History of Cumberland*, p. 466, concerning the GRAMES of Netherby, and others of that clan, runs thus: 'They were all stark moss-troopers and arant thieves: both to England and Scotland outlawed: yet sometimes connived at, because they gave intelligence forth of Scotland, and would raise 400 horse at any time, upon a raid of the English into Scotland.'



A saying is recorded of a mother to her son (which is now become proverbial) '*Ride Rouly (Rowland); Hough's i' the pot;*' that is, the last piece of beef was in the pot, and therefore it was high time for him to go and fetch more.—To such men might with justice be applied the poet's description of the Cretan warrior; translated by my friend, Mr. LEYDEN:

'My sword, my spear, my shaggy shield,  
With these I till, with these I sow;  
With these I reap my harvest field,  
The only wealth the gods bestow.  
With these I plant the purple vine,  
With these I press the luscious wine.

My sword, my spear, my shaggy shield,  
They make me lord of all below;  
For he who dreads the lance to wield,  
Before my shaggy shield must bow.  
His lands, his vineyards, must resign;  
And all that cowards have is mine.'

*Hydrias (ap. Athenæum.)*"

The use of fermented liquors appears to have been sparing among them; "it is therefore natural to suppose," says Mr. Scot, "that the tales of tradition, the song, with the pipe or harp of the minstrel, were the sole resources against ennui during the short intervals of repose from military adventure;" and this brings our editor to "the more immediate subject," of his publication. From the manners of a country, and its circumstances, moral and political; the style of its popular poems, may, as he observes, be easily deduced; and this consideration, joined to his promise of a fuller history of border poetry in the introduction to his intended third volume, induces us to pass lightly over this part, and hasten to bring the ballads to speak for themselves, only premising a few words on the sources whence they have been derived, and some other particulars. Authentic family MSS. and transcripts from the recitations of the old inhabitants of the border, of such pieces as have been handed down by oral tradition alone, furnished the larger part of the volumes: original poems of modern date afforded another portion, and the rest was compiled from various printed collections; but each ballad has received an additional value either from the insertion of new stanzas added from other written copies or recitations, or from curious notes and illustrative dissertations; for which we are indebted to the legal, historical, and an-

tiquarian researches of the learned and industrious editor, who appears to have preserved to us every fact relative to the Scottish borders capable of affording either amusement or instruction; facts which, without his patriotic efforts, would soon have been irrecoverably lost in the lapse of years to the gulf of oblivion. Antiquated modes of spelling have been employed with judicious moderation, and the meanings of some provincialisms have been given at the bottom of the page; but for the rest he refers us to the glossary of the last edition of Currie's Burns, which, notwithstanding the great popularity of that delightful work, we cannot entirely approve, as it is not to be expected that every reader should have it at hand. From the historical ballads to which the first of these volumes is devoted, we have culled a favourable sample. It is written in that simple and inartificial style, characteristic of a rude and martial people, unsophisticated by scholastic pedantry, unadorned by classic elegance. Refinement of sentiment it has none to boast, though it is not destitute of the touching expression of natural affection. It derives its chief merit from the story, not the manner of telling, which is diffuse, and abounding in repetitions, though occasionally nervous and pathetic. The verse is, on the whole, spirited and harmonious, but sometimes irregular; and these remarks, with few variations, are applicable to all the ballads of the first volume.

"JOHNIE ARMSTRONG, of Gilnockie, the hero of the following ballad, is a noted personage both in history and tradition. He was, it would seem from the ballad, a brother of the Laird of Mangerton, chief of the name. His place of residence (now a roofless tower) was at the Hollows, a few miles from Langholm, where its ruins still serve to adorn a scene, which in natural beauty has few equals in Scotland. At the head of a desperate band of freebooters, this ARMSTRONG is said to have spread the terror of his name almost as far as Newcastle, and to have levied *Black Mail*, or *Protection* and *Forbearance Money*, for many miles around. JAMES V. of whom it was long remembered by his grateful people, that he made the '*Rush-bush keep the cow*,' about 1590, undertook an expedition through the border counties, to suppress the turbulent spirit of the march men. But, before setting out upon this journey, he took the precaution of imprisoning the different border chieftains,

who were the chief protectors of the marauders.

"The Earl of BOTHWELL was forfeited, and confined in Edinburgh Castle. The Lords of HOME and MAXWELL, the Laids of BUCCLEUCH, FAIRNIEHURST, and JOHNSTON, with many others, were also committed to ward. COCKBURN, of Henderland, and ADAM SCOTT, of Tushielaw, called the King of the Border, were publicly executed.—*Lesley*, p. 430. The king then marched rapidly forward, at the head of a flying army of 10,000 men, through Etrick Forest, and Ewsdale. The evil genius of our JOHNIE ARMSTRONG, or, as others say, the private advice of some courtiers, prompted him to present himself before JAMES, at the head of thirty-six horse, arrayed in all the pomp of border chivalry. PITSCOTTIE uses nearly the words of the ballad, in describing the splendour of his equipment, and his high expectations of favour from the king. 'But JAMES, looking upon him sternly, said to his attendants, What wants that knave that a king should have? and ordered him and his followers to instant execution.'—'But JOHN ARMSTRONG,' continues this minute historian, 'made great offers to the king. That he should sustain himself, with forty gentlemen, ever ready at his service, on their own cost, without wronging any Scottishman: secondly, that there was not a subject in England, duke, earl, or baron, but, within a certain day, he should bring him to his majesty, either quick or dead. At length he seeing no hope of favour, said very proudly, it is folly to seek grace at a graceless face; but, said he, had I known this, I should have lived upon the borders in despite of King Harry and you both; for I know King Harry would *downweigh my best horse with gold*, to know that I were condemned to die this day.' *Pitcottie's History*, p. 145. Johnie, with all his retinue, was accordingly hanged upon growing trees, at a place called Carlenrig Chapel, about ten miles above Hawick, on the high road to Langholm. The country people believe that, to manifest the injustice of the execution, the trees withered away. ARMSTRONG and his followers were buried in a deserted church-yard, where their graves are still shewn.

"As this border hero was a person of great note in his way, he is frequently alluded to by the writers of the time. Sir DAVID LINDSAY, of the Mount, in the curious play published by Mr. PINKERTON, from the Bannatyne MS. introduces a pardoner, or knavish dealer in reliques, who produces among his holy rarities—

'—The cordis, baith grit and lang,  
Quhilt hangit Johnie Armstrang,

Of gude hempt, soft and sound.  
Gude haly pepill, I stand forð,  
Wha' evir beis hangit in this cord,  
Neidis nevir to be drowned!

*Pinkerton's Scottish Poems*, vol. ii. p. 69.

"In *The Complaint of Scotland*, JOHN ERMISTRANGIS'S DANCE, mentioned as a popular tune, has probably some reference to our hero.

"The common people of the high parts of Tiviotdale, Liddesdale, and the country adjacent, hold the memory of JOHNIE ARMSTRONG in very high respect. They affirm also, that one of his attendants broke through the king's guard, and carried to Gilnockie Tower the news of the bloody catastrophe.

"This song was first published by ALLAN RAMSAY in his *Evergreen*, who says he copied it from the mouth of a gentleman, called ARMSTRONG, who was in the sixth generation from this John. The reciter assured him, that this was the genuine old ballad, the common one false. By the common one, RAMSAY means an English ballad upon the same subject, but differing in various particulars, which is published in Mr. RITSON'S *English Songs*, vol. 2. It is fortunate for the admirers of the old ballad, that it did not fall into RAMSAY'S hands when he was equipping, with new sets of words, the old Scottish tunes in his *Tea-table Miscellany*. Since his time it has been often reprinted.

'JOHNIE ARMSTRANG.

Sum speikis of lords, sum speikis of lairds,  
And sick lyke men of his degrie:  
Of a gentleman I sing a sang,  
Sum time called Laird of Gilnockie.

The King he wrytes a luvng letter,  
With his ain hand sae tenderly,  
And he hath sent it to Johnie Armstrang,  
To cum and speik with him speidily.

The Eliots and Armstrangs did convene,  
They were a gallant cumpanie—  
'We'll ride and neit our lawfu King,  
And bring him safe to Gilnockie.'

'Make kinnen\* and capon ready then,  
And venison in great plentie,  
We'll welcome here our royal King,  
I hope he'll dine at Gilnockie!'

They ran their horse on the Langhorne howm,  
And brak their speirs wi' mickle main;  
The ladies lukit frae their loft windows—  
'God bring our men weel back agen!'

When Johnie came before the King,  
Wi' a' his men sae brave to see,  
The King he movit his bonnet to him,  
He ween'd he was a King as well as he.

\* Kinnen—Rabbits.

\* May I find grace, my sovereign Liege,  
Grace for my loyal men and me?  
For my name it is Johnie Armstrong,  
And subject of your's, my Liege,' said he.

' Away, away, thou traitor strang!  
Out of my sight sune may'st thou be!  
I grantit never a traitor's life,  
And now I'll not begin wi' thee.'—

' Grant me my life, my Liege, my King!  
And a bonny gift I'll gie to thee—  
Full four and twenty milk-white steids,  
Were a' foaled in a year to me.

' I'll gie thee a' these milk-white steids,  
That prance and nicker\* at a speir;  
And as mickle gude English gilt,†  
As four of their braid backs dow‡ bear.'—

' Away, away, thou traitor strang!  
Out of my sight soon may'st thou be!  
I grantit never a traitor's life,  
And now I'll not begin wi' thee!'

' Grant me my life, my Liege, my King!  
And a bonny gift I'll gie to thee—  
Gude four and twenty ganging§ mills,  
That gang thro' a' the year to me.

These four and twenty mills complete,  
Shall gang for thee thro' a' the yeir;  
And as meikle of gude reid wheat,  
As a' thair happers down to bear.'—

' Away, away, thou traitor strang!  
Out of my sight sune may'st thou be!  
I grantit never a traitor's life,  
And now I'll not begin wi' thee.'—

' Grant me my life, my Liege, my King!  
And a great gift I'll gie to thee—  
Bauld four and twenty sister's sons,  
Shall for thee ficht, tho' all should flee!'

' Away, away, thou traitor strang!  
Out of my sight sune may'st thou be!  
I grantit never a traitor's life,  
And now I'll not begin wi' thee.'—

' Grant me my life, my Liege, my King!  
And a brave gift I'll gie to thee—  
All between heir and Newcastle town,  
Shall pay their yearly rent to thee.'—

' Away, away, thou traitor strang!  
Out of my sight sune may'st thou be!  
I grantit never a traitor's life,  
And now I'll not begin wi' thee.'—

' Ye leid, || ye leid, now King,' he says,  
Altho' a King and Prince ye be!  
For I've luv'd naething in my life,  
I weel dare say it, but honesty—

' Save a fat horse, and a fair woman,  
Twa bonny dogs to kill a deir;  
But England suld have found me meal and  
mault,  
Gif I had liv'd this hundred year!

' Sche suld have found me meil and mault,  
And beif and mutton in all plentie;  
But never a Scot's wyfe could have said,  
That e'er I skaithed her a pure flee.

' To seik het water beneith cauld ice,  
Surely it is a greit folie—  
I have asked grace at a graceless face,  
But there is nane for my men and rae!

' But, had I kenn'd ere I cam frae hame,  
How thou unkind wadst been to me!  
I wad have keepit the border side,  
In spite of all thy force and thee.

' Wist England's King that I was ta'en,  
O gin a blythe man he wad be!  
For anes I slew his sister's son,  
And on his breist bane brake a trie.'—

John wore a girdle about his middle,  
Imbroidered ower wi' burning gold;  
Bespangled wi' the same metal,  
Maist beautiful was to behold.

There hang nine targats¶ at Johnie's hat,  
And ilk ane worth three hundred pound—  
' What wants that knave that a King suld  
have,  
But the sword of honour, and the crown?

' O whair gat thou these targats, Johnie,  
That blink\*\* sae brawly abune thy brie?'

' I gat them in the field fetching,  
Where, cruel King, thou durst not be.

' Had I my horse, and harness gude,  
And riding as I wont to be,  
It suld have been tald this hundred yeir,  
The meeting of my King and me!

' God be with thee, Kirsty, †† my brother,  
Lang live thou Laird of Mangertoun;  
Lang may'st thou live on the border syde,  
Ere thou see thy brother ride up and down!

' And God be with thee, Kirsty, my son!  
Where thou sits on thy nurse's knee;  
But an thou live this hundred yeir,  
Thy father's better thou'lt never be.

' Farewell! my bonny Gilnock-hall,  
Where on Eske-side thou standest stout!  
Gif I had lived but seven years mair,  
I wad hae gilt thee round about.'

John murdered was at Carlinrigg,  
And all his gallant companie;  
But Scotland's heart was near sae wae,  
To see sae mony brave men die—

Because they saved their country deir,  
Frae Englishmen! Nane were sae bauld,  
Whyle Johnie lived on the border syde,  
Nane of them durst cum near his hauld.'

\* Nicker—Neigh.

† Gilt—Gold.

‡ Dow—Able to.

§ Ganging—Going.

|| Leid—Lye. ¶ Targats—Tasse's. \*\* Blink sae brawly—Glance so bravely. †† Christopher.

With the second volume we enter on the class of romantic ballads, founded either on stories of the marvellous, and evidently fabulous kind, or at least on such as rest only on very vague and doubtful tradition. The most beautiful of these, and that which appears most likely to be built on a basis of truth, we shall select, with the note appended by a master hand.

### "ANNAN WATER.

NEVER BEFORE PUBLISHED.

"The following verses are the original words of the tune of *"Allan Water,"* by which name the song is mentioned in RAMSAY'S *Tea Table Miscellany*. The ballad is given from tradition; and it is said, that a bridge, over the Annan, was built in consequence of the melancholy catastrophe which it narrates. By the *Gatehope Slack*, is perhaps meant the *Gate-slack*, a pass in Annandale. The Annan, and the Frith of Solway, into which it falls, are the frequent scenes of tragical accidents. The editor trusts he will be pardoned for inserting the following awfully impressive account of such an event, contained in a letter from DR. CURRIE, of Liverpool, by whose correspondence, while in the course of preparing these volumes for the press, he has been alike honoured and instructed. After stating that he had some recollection of the ballad which follows, the biographer of BURNS proceeds thus: 'I once in my early days heard (for it was night, and I could not see) a traveller drowning; not in the Annan itself, but in the Frith of Solway, close by the mouth of that river. The influx of the tide had unhorsed him in the night, as he was passing the sands from Cumberland. The west wind blew a tempest, and, according to the common expression, brought in the water *three foot a breast*. The traveller got upon a standing net a little way from the shore. There he lashed himself to the post, shouting for half an hour for assistance—till the tide rose over his head! In the darkness of night, and amid the pauses of the hurricane, his voice, heard at intervals, was exquisitely mournful. No one could go to his assistance—no one knew where he was—the sound seemed to proceed from the spirit of the waters. But morning rose—the tide had ebbed—and the poor traveller was found lashed to the pole of the net, and bleaching in the wind.'

### ANNAN WATER.

"—Annan water's wading deep,  
And my love Annie's wondrous bonnie;  
And I am laith she shuld weel her feet,  
Because I love her best of ony.

'Gar saddle me the bonny black;  
Gar saddle sune, and make him ready,  
For I will down the Gatehope-Slack,  
And all to see my bonny ladye.'—

He has loup'en on the bonny black,  
He stirr'd him wi' the spur right sairly,  
But, or he wan the Gatehope-Slack,  
I think the steed was wae and weary.

He has loup'en on the bonnie gray,  
He rade the right gate and the ready:  
I trow he would neither stint nor stay,  
For he was seeking his bonnie ladye.

The gray was a mare, and a right good mare;  
But when she wan the Annan Water,  
She could na hae ridden a furlong mair,  
Had a thousand merks been wadd'd\* at her.

The side was stey, and the bottom deep,  
Frae bank to brae the water pouring;  
And the bonnie gray mare did sweat for fear,  
For she heard the water kelpy roaring.

O he has pou'd off his dapperpy† coat,  
The silver buttons glanced bonny;  
The waistcoat bursted off his breast,  
He was sae full of melancholy.

—'O wae betide the frush‡ saugh wand!  
And wae betide the bush of briar!  
It brake into my true love's hand,  
When his strength did fail, and his limbs did tire.

'And wae betide ye, Annan Water!  
This night that ye are a drumlie river;  
For over thee I'll build a bridge,  
That ye never more true love may sever.'

The generality of these pieces, though not absolutely destitute of poetic merit, struck us as far less interesting than those founded on history; and this for two reasons: first, because "tales of wonder," when stripped of that garb of mysterious horror which invests them to the mind of credulous ignorance in dignity not their own, appear with a kind of bald absurdity, which soon renders them extremely tedious; and secondly, because we find in them nothing exclusively characteristic of the age and country in which they were written, since fictions of a similar kind exercised the superstitious faith of the whole of doting Europe, throughout ages of mental darkness. These remarks do not entirely apply to the stories of romantic loves and wild adventure occasionally intermixed, which are unnatural without being supernatural; nor to the genuine Caledonian tale of Tamlane, prefaced

\* Waddled—Wagered.

† Quære—Cap-a-pee?

‡ Frush—Fresh.

by the laborious dissertation on fairies, of which we are about to speak. Our learned editor has wandered from northern Lapland to eastern Persia, to detect the birth-place of the elfine race, which he has traced, with much ingenious industry, through all its spreading branches and varying appellations, down to modern days. Numerous wild stories are narrated, and fanciful superstitions explained, in the course of his design, on which the imagination of a Southey might revel with delight: but when the bloody triumphs of presbyterian zeal over pretended witchcraft come to be unfolded in their native horrors, philosophy frowns over the disgraceful record of infernal cruelty and human folly; and revolting nature would "drop a tear, and blot it out for ever." The mortifying truth, that superstition is immortal, here glares upon the mind with full demonstration; but while we lament the ignorance that has handed down the dreams of folly from generation to generation of unlettered rustics, it is with

some mixture of indignation that we observe learning and genius employed in the thankless task of embalming, with their precious stores, what would be better committed to dust and corruption. The ballad of "Thomas the Rhymer," gives occasion to some curious observations on prophecy, interesting to the historian and the philosopher, for whom, and whom alone, the antiquarian ought to labour. The modern imitations of the ancient ballad, with which the volume concludes, and some of which are the editor's own, far excel the originals, as is usually the case; but we confess we should have wished, that the historical, rather than the romantic ballad, had been the prototype.

Mr. Scot's prose style is correct and lively, though somewhat tinged, perhaps, with legal and scholastic peculiarities. On the whole, we sincerely congratulate him on a work so honourable to his taste and erudition, and await with impatience his promised third volume.

**ART III.** *The Bardic Museum of Primitive British Literature, and other admirable Rarities; forming the second Volume of the musical, poetical, and historical Relics of the Welsh Bards: drawn from authentic Documents of remote Antiquity; (with great Pains now rescued from Oblivion,) and never before published: containing the Bardic Triads; historic Odes; Eulogies; Songs; Elegies; Memorials of the Tombs of the Warriors; of King Arthur and his Knights; Regalias; the Wonders of Wales, &c. with English Translations and historic Illustrations. Likewise the ancient War Tunes of the Bards: viz. the Tribanau; Erdiganau; Blodau; Galardmau; Hoffedau; Tlysau; Mwyneddau; Hymns; Pastorals; Jigs; and Delights; to these national Melodies are added new Bases; with Variations, for the Harp, or Harpsichord; Violin, or Flute; (Dedicated by Permission to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.)* By EDWARD JONES, Bard to the Prince.

THE reader will probably be disappointed to find, after the above pompous title-page, that his curiosity is only to be gratified with a thin folio volume, containing eighty folio pages of letter-press and fifty-two pages of music, price one pound five shillings; and he will be a little surprized on recognizing many of the articles, among those "never before published," from having seen them in former publications. It will also be felt as a cause of regret, that in a work which professes to give the ancient documents of the Welsh, concerning their institution of poetry and music, there should have been incongruously jumbled together all the silly tales of the writers of romance with the venerable remains of national history, without the least discrimination. The subject cer-

tainly deserved to be differently treated; and we expected it from one who announces himself as a native of the principality; but we perhaps looked for too much; and, that we ought not to shew any signs of disapprobation for his stepping beyond his profession, when he has acquitted himself so well as the indefatigable collector of the music of the ancient Britons.

The author attempts, in the introduction, to bring the reader acquainted with the mysteries of druidism, which he divides into the three orders of bards, ovates, and druids; and in so doing he falls into some contradictions, in endeavouring to make the druidical the principal order; at the same time he informs us, that the bards "were the fathers of sciences; the national instructors, mu-



sicians, legislators, priests, prophets, and princes." And in the next paragraph he says, that "the bards were afterwards a branch of the druidical institution in Britain, and in ancient Gaul;" and in a note, "The bards are justly esteemed the most ancient order of people in Britain, and these were before the druids, although in time the latter got the upper hand of the others in great esteem." Again, in treating of the peculiar functions of the three orders, they are made to invade the provinces of each other; for the bards are represented as "the national preceptors, poets, and musicians: the oviates composed and performed sacred and prophetic hymns, and were also natural philosophers, astronomers, and magicians: the druids were the priests, moral philosophers, and physiologists."

In the next place, the author proceeds with stating, as others have often detailed before, all the notices given of the druids by ancient writers, but without throwing any new light upon the subject. And here we cannot help noticing as remarkable, that he seems to have been ignorant of one or two books, which would have assisted him most materially; these are, *Pœms lyric and pastoral*, in two volumes octavo, by Edward Williams; and the *Heroic Elegies of Llywarch Hen*, in one volume octavo, by William Owen. The former work, in particular, gives a most interesting and curious account of the bardic system, as it is therein called, because the bards were the principal order of the three; and the particular functions of each are very distinctly marked out; and in addition to which we obtain a clear view of the economy of the system and a picture of a most beautiful and sublime theology, in its doctrine of transmigration.

But, to proceed with our author to the period when the bards were deprived of their sacerdotal character, he becomes a little more interesting. The extracts given from the ancient laws of Wales are valuable and curious; as from them we learn what were then the precise functions of the bards, whom we still find to possess a considerable degree of political importance in the state.

"The *Bardd Teulu*, or bard of the palace, was, in rank, the eighth officer of the king's household; he was also one of the royal guests,

and sat at his table, next to the heir apparent. On his appointment, the bard received a harp from the king, and a golden ring from the queen: (he obtained that pre-eminence by his superior merit in the science of music and poetry, at the British Olympics) the king found him his woollen apparel, and a horse; and the queen found him linen apparel. His lodging was in the house of the heir apparent, who was the controller of the household; and on the three great festivals in the year, it was the office of that prince to deliver the harp into the hands of the bard, when he was going to perform; and for which service, he was entitled to a song (or a tune) from the bard, whenever he chose. When the royal family desired a song in the great hall, the chaired Bard was to sing first, a hymn in praise of God, and another in honour of the king, and of the most worthy of his ancestors, and their exploits. When those were over, the bard of the palace was to sing next, upon some other subject, in the lower part of the hall. And, if the queen desired to have music, after she retired from the table to her apartment, he was then to perform three tender and eloquent songs, or pathetic tunes, different from those which he had played in the hall. The bard accompanied the army when they marched on a warlike expedition, into an enemy's country; and when they were preparing for battle, he recited and performed to them the animating song, called *Unbeniaeth Prydain*, or the monarchy of Britain; (which probably was to remind them of their ancient right, in praise of their brave ancestors, and to inspire them with heroism,) and for which service he was rewarded with one of the most valuable things of the plunder. If he went with other bards, upon a musical peregrination, he was entitled to a double portion for his share. He held his land free. If the bard desired any favour of the king, he was to perform to him one of his own compositions; if of a nobleman, he was to perform to him three; and if of a plebeian, he was to set him to sleep. Whoever slightly injured the bard, was fined six cows, and a hundred and twenty pence: and whoever slew a bard, was fined a hundred and twenty six cows."

The author's propensity for giving his notes upon every occasion is of course not repressed on the above passage. Among others, we are treated with a genuine threatening letter from the all-conquering king Arthur to the senate of Rome, in good old English too; and thus introduced:

"The following curious relique of our honoured British hero, the father of chivalry, I think worthy of a place here; he was the son of Igren, dutchess of Cornwall, by her

husband Uther Pendragon, king of Britain, a descendant of Constantine : this is a letter from the said king Arthur, (who was crowned king of Britain, about A. D. 516) to the senate of Rome, in which he claimed his descent as follows: 'Understand among you of Rome, that I am king Arthur of Britain, and freely it hold, and shall hold; and at Rome hastily will I be : not to give you truage, but to have truage of you; for Constantine that was Helen's son, and other of mine ancestors, conquered Rome, and therefore were emperors; and that they had and held; I shall have yours, Goddis grace.'

In the continuation of the same note, we find, while there are many people who scarcely allow the existence of this same Arthur, that Mr. Jones is able, by the aid of some very profound heralds; to give us even his armorial bearings; not however without some slight disagreement as to particulars: for one says that he bore for his arms, "*our Lady standing by the cross*;" but another tells us that he bore "*Vert, a cross or in the first quarter, a Madona and child in the second.*"

"The *Pencerdd*, head of song, or chaired-bard, was one who had achieved his pre-eminence in a musical and poetical contest, in an *Eisteddfod* or session of the bards, which was held triennially in the royal palace; (or in the hall of the lord;) this solemnity was decided by the venerable judge of the palace; and as a reward, he received from the victorious bard a bugle-horn, a gold-ring, and a cushion for his chair of dignity. But if the judge pronounced an unjust sentence, and the accusation was proved; he was then forever deprived of his office, and condemned to lose his tongue; or to pay a considerable ransom for that member. This chaired-bard, according to king Howel's laws, was the bard of a district, or county, and chief president of music and poetry within that precinct; and in him was vested the controul of all the other bards within that jurisdiction: he was also a teacher, and at stated periods he prepared the undergraduates to take their degrees; which were ratified by the sessions of the bards every third year; and he also regulated and assigned to each of the bards their *Clera* circuits within his district. This *Pencerdd Gwlad*, or head bard of the district, had his lands free; his perquisites arose from his scholars, and he was also entitled to a fee from every bride, and the *Amobr*, or marriage fine of the daughters of all the inferior bards within his district. He was not numbered among the regular officers of the palace; but whenever he attended the king, he sat in the tenth place in the royal hall, next to the judge of the palace. His privilege of protection lasted from the beginning

of his first song in the hall of the palace to the conclusion of the last.

"Every *Pencerdd*, or chief bard, that the lord assigned privileges to, he was to find with musical instruments; such as, a *harp* to one; a *crwth* to another; and *pipes* to the third; and when the bards died, those instruments were to revert to the lord."

We have introduced the foregoing passages as examples of the general character of the introductory part of the work, which contains some valuable information, but foiled by puerile nonsense, which it is a pity that the writer had not a little discrimination to reject.

Having given a very short sketch of the ancient bards and the different classes into which they were successively divided at various times, Mr. Jones endeavours to derive from them, and with some probability, the different degrees of heralds, the offices of poet-laureat, master of the band, and the jesters at the English court. He then proceeds to fulfil a task, on account of which we feel the more interested, and expect satisfaction from its being within the sphere of his own profession: let us attend to him.

"Something now remains to be said respecting the national music of the aboriginal Britons, or Welsh, which has been transmitted down to us by tradition from time immemorial, and is still the favourite amusement of the natives. Some few of these tunes have been taken from manuscripts; but all the original Welsh poems are transcribed and translated from ancient manuscripts. (He should have added, by various hands, for many of them we have seen before elsewhere.) The following tunes, songs, poems, and history, are the result of some years research and labour, collected, and adjusted at intervals. The greatest part of these melodies I have committed to writing from hearing them sung by the old people, and from their being played by the most venerable harpers in North Wales; and it is very fortunate that I did so, because most of them are since dead. Being a native of Merionydd, where our national customs are best retained, and where I generally used to pass my summers; being also well acquainted with most of the popular Welsh airs, from my infancy, from having been brought up in the musical profession, and having always had a predilection for native customs; I may, perhaps, have the advantage of my cotemporaries on this subject, or at least I hope I shall be found adequate to the task which I have undertaken, in rescuing some of the bardic lore from being irretrievably lost."

"I have given these native melodies as genuine as possible; and have added new basses and composed variations to several of them: those tunes to which I have given variations, are arranged two or three together, in the same key, so that they may be played to follow each other, as little lessons.

"These old airs differ much in structure from the modern music, and I found it very difficult to adapt regular basses to them, according to the strict rules of counterpoint, as their fundamental harmonies are often ambiguous, and even the keys are sometimes but obscurely indicated by the wild modulation. However, as melody is the soul of music, and harmony a secondary consideration, or an assistant, I have generally preferred steering by the original melody, and to aid it with a characteristic harmony, in its own native manner, and the convenience of the harp, in preference to that of a complicated modern bass, too regularly managed: because that uneven transition and abrupt simplicity, seem best calculated to convey their original bold character."

Here the author returns to pay another visit to the bards, for he is fond of rambling; but again he resumes the harp to give us some specimen of the Cambrian lays, which are as various in their characters, as the passions which rise in the human breast.

"The most solemn song, *Cyweddolïaythau*, or hymns, were originally appropriated sacred ceremonies.

"The *Galdonau*, and *Marwnadau*, or lamentations and dirges, were performed at the funeral solemnities of the dead; and such elegies are still sung in Wales, at the *Wyllos*, bewailing-night or condoling-night, which precedes the burial: all the neighbours usually attend at the house of the deceased, and the minister, or, in his absence, the clerk of the parish, comes and prays over the dead, and psalms are sung suitable to the mournful occasion; his monody is also composed for the purpose, and sung or recited by the poet; which usually comprehends the most remarkable incidents of his life; serving to commemorate him to posterity; and it is afterwards committed to writing, in the family record."

Others are enumerated; as those that incite to martial deeds; the cheerful; the sentimental; the pathetic; the descriptive; the imitative; and the sprightly. But tunes in the highest esteem, and therefore the most common, among the Welsh, are those in the minor key; "being soothing, and expressive of a kind of placid content;" and adds Mr. Jones:

"The dignity of style, the originality, the simplicity, and the variety displayed in several of these melodies, are perhaps superior to those of any other national airs, when we consider the early times in which many of them were composed."

This concluding remark of the introduction, we conceive to be just, with certain limitations. Compared with the national music of Ireland and Scotland, it discovers an affinity of character, like the language of those people, bespeaking the same original. By including Scotland, we only mean here the music of the Highlands, of which we have yet not had any good account, as distinct from the style properly belonging to the natives of the Lowlands. Compared with the Irish, the music of Wales abounds more in the plaintive, and with more intricate modulations; but the former has a higher degree of melody; and is on that account more attractive to the ears of a stranger.

Here we cannot refrain from making the observation, that we, the people of England, have no national music, derived from our early ancestors. Even to this day many districts of England are still almost strangers to the voice of melody, notwithstanding that we have lately begun to deal largely in the importation of it from every country. The music of the Saxons, who settled in England, perished amid the storms of war; while that of the invaded natives was extinguished in their bondage, or was carried to the mountains of Wales, and other extremities, by the fugitive Britons. But in Scotland the tempest was less violent, there the Saxons settled by gradual encroachments: and there we are to look for the native melody of our ancestors, identified probably in the present Scotch music of the Lowlands; or otherwise, from their mixing with the original inhabitants, we have the Celtic style modulated to please a Gothic ear.

We come now to notice the principal documents given to illustrate the poetry and music of the Ancient Britons, beginning with the Bardic Triads.

The relics, composing the first section, are greatly out of harmony with all the others that we have seen, and are incongruous and futile in themselves, so that it may be suspected, that the collector has been the dupe of his own credulity; and that, as in other numerous instances, abounding in his notes, his

want of discrimination has led him to blend modern whims with the venerable triads that follow in the next section. Indeed, on a closer examination, we discover the former to be a farcical paraphrase upon other triads, evidently to laugh at the poor harpers: we subjoin one or two as examples.

"Three men are of equal rank: a king; a harper; and a bard.

"The three principal men of the palace: the performer of the harp; the bishop; and the bard.

"The three judges of a country: the harp bard of the king; the king's father's bard; and the herald of the palace."

"The three imperial performers on the harp of the island of Britain; king Arthur; Gwylwyd with powerful-grasp; and Crella, bard of the harp to prince Griffith ab Cynan."

The character of Gwylwyd of powerful-grasp, is happily illustrated in a note, by which we find, that he "was master of the ceremonies in king Arthur's palace." A most happy choice, without meaning any disparagement to Sir Clement Cottrell: who so fit to take a lady delicately by the hand as this "porter of mighty grasp, who used to lift with one hand the pot off the fire, having in it the carcases of seven oxen!"

The few triads given in the second section, are extremely curious. We give triad 58 as a specimen.

"The three primitive institutional bards of the island of Britain, Plennydd, Alawn, and Gwron: and they were those who introduced the privileges and customs, which regulate the bards and bardism: and therefore are called the three primeval bards: yet there were bards and bardism prior to them, though they were not under any liberal distinction; nor had they either privileges or customs, except what was obtained through civility and courtesy, under the protection of the government and the nation, before the time of these three. Some say that they lived in the time of Prydain, the son of Aedd the Great; and others say, they flourished in the time of Dyfnwal Moel Mud his son, and who, in some of the old manuscripts, is called Dyfnfarth ab Prydain."

To some of these documents are added various notes, intended as illustrations no doubt; but some of them must have been surely written when all the powers of ratiocination were asleep. Hu, the mighty, the tutelary divinity of the Cimbri, in one of those notes is identified with "Hierocles, the gram-

marian, who has given a treatise of the empire of Constantinople." "But," says the author in the next sentence, "the above Hu, or Hierocles, mentioned in the text, possibly was the philosopher, and author of the commentaries on the golden verses of Pythagoras; a treatise on Providence and Fate, &c who flourished about A. D. 480."

So that the founder of druidism in Britain, was a Grecian philosopher in the fifth century of our æra; and all because the first syllable of his name happened to have been similar in sound to the name of the British sage. A little further on, in the same notable note, we find, that "there is an island in the Ebudes or Hebrides, which had been eminent for its sanctity, from the earliest times, called Hy (Hu) or Iona; and probably had its name from the above Hu, who, perhaps, was lord thereof." Here we have extraordinary probabilities, that Hu, the founder of druidism, probably 500 years before Christ, was Hierocles a Grecian, as many years after; and probably was lord of Iona.

The memorials of the tombs of the warriors' are interesting documents; which are in general triplet verses, and the following is the translation of one of them.

"After wounds and bloody tumults;  
And after arraying the squadrons of white  
steeds:

This is the grave of Cynddylan!"

The four pieces by Taliesin, which follow, with literal translations, are venerable on account of their antiquity, and contain some poetical passages: as when the bard

"Saw the warriors of dread appearance,  
rushing together to the shout of war. I saw the ground covered with blood, from the conflict of the men of swords: they tinged with blue the wings of the morning, when they poured forth their ashen messengers of pain."

The section which Mr. Jones calls the "History of Arthur," is all romance: and he seems not qualified to make it otherwise; it still remains therefore to be the effort of a more discriminating mind.

In the next place, follows a specimen of the Mabinogi, or juvenile adventures of being a part of the very entertaining story of Pwyll. This we have seen before in a work, called the Cambrian, from whence it must have been extracted,

though the collector does not tell us so. He generally appears remiss in this respect; except when he refers his readers to his first volume of the *Relicks of the Bards*; and except when ancient authors can be cited, for a pompous display of learning.

From page 36 to page 60, are given translations of various miscellaneous compositions, generally by the poets of the middle ages; and which are well deserving of the attention of those who wish to become acquainted with the character and manners of the ancient Welsh.

We now come to the music, which takes up 52 pages, and contains 63 different pieces, or tunes.

It must be considered as a desideratum in the learned world, among the fruits of our researches into the history of any people, that a complete collection of their national airs should be made. In this point of view Mr. Jones's present publication and his former one united, are of great value. He has certainly shewn a commendable perseverance in obtaining such a variety of tunes; indeed, it is to be presumed that he can have not left many unpublished. There are a few very pretty ones in Parry's book, which it is a pity that Mr. Jones has not included in his volumes; as their insertion would have lent an additional feature to the character of Welsh music. At the same time it may be remarked, that it is upon the whole injudicious to adopt indis-

criminate every tune that comes to hand, even in a general collection of national music, and such may the present and former volumes of Mr. Jones be considered to be, as many must have been the production of persons very deficient in the principles of composition; and such must therefore rather injure than increase the good opinion of the public, as to the general character of the whole. But as a complete collection was the intention, the contents of it are very various in merit; a few pieces being very good, and strongly marked with a national character; many indifferent, and some unpleasant to an English ear.

In the introduction, Mr. Jones notices difficulties, which he had to encounter, particularly in adapting basses to the different pieces; and for that reason, we must make allowance for many ambiguities in this part of the performance, which appear more defective on the piano forte than on the harp. This observation applies more particularly to the variations, and many of these are given, as we think, unnecessarily, which are very unpleasant on the former instrument.

With regard to the manner in which the editor has acquitted himself in the task of preparing the music of his native country, there does not appear much to blame; but, on the contrary, he is entitled to our praise for his taste and propriety of execution.

ART. IV. *Oberon, a Mask; and Orestes, a Tragedy.* By W. SOTHEY. 12mo.

MR. SOTHEY, the spirited and elegant translator of Wieland's exquisitely beautiful, though wildly romantic poem of *Oberon*, has presented us, in the first of these pieces, with some of the principal incidents of the same story, woven, with a few requisite alterations, into a mask of five acts. The dedication informs us, that it is not at present intended for representation, for which indeed we cannot think these fairy tales much adapted, though, at the same time we are surprised that Mr. S. should have taken the trouble to dramatize his former work, without having this purpose in view. Many of the most touching descriptive passages of the poem, and all the events, we believe, of its second volume, have unavoidably been omitted; and the remaining narrative

parts have lost much of their former charms, from the substitution of loose blank verse to the artful and finely cadenced stanza of the translation. Some of the fairy songs are extremely harmonious and beautiful, and support our previous opinion of Mr. S's poetical powers; but, on the whole, this drama can have few attractions for those who have already admired the poem; and a person judging of Mr. S's literary talents from this performance alone, would probably entertain sentiments derogatory from his real merit. Justice requires us to confess, that the objections of decorum, urged with some reason against the poem, do not apply to the drama. We select one of the fairy songs.



ARIEL

Viewless minstrel! touch the lute,  
Tun'd to my cadence soft and slow;  
Chain each rude wind! all sounds be mute,  
Save those that solace woe.

Save those that from the Æolian lyre,  
To whispers of a sylph reply,  
And vibrate o'er the enchanted wire  
Faint murmurs of a melody.

Or those that wind thro' wreathed shell  
At summer-tide when sea-maids float,  
And on the spring-flood's moon-light swell,  
Night-ditties chant, that, note by note,  
Charm'd echo from her coral cave,  
Breathes o'er the bosom of the wave.

Of the second drama in this volume it gives us pleasure to speak more favourably. To have become so frequently the subject of dramatic representation, in distant ages and various countries, is no mean proof of the strong interest

which the story of Orestes is calculated to awaken. To have handled this story without calling forth degrading comparison, is no weak evidence of the talents of Mr. Sotheby. We cannot give unqualified praise, however, to the conduct of the plot, which is somewhat overcharged with prodigies and celestial warnings; some deviations from the story too, and refinement in the sentiment, savour more of the intricacy of the English drama, than the severe simplicity of the Greek,—of the polished humanity of modern, rather than the unsubdued ferocity of ancient manners. The characters are clearly drawn and well sustained; that of Electra is peculiarly striking; the verse is, on the whole, correct and well sounding; the language forcible and pure, without being highly poetical.

ART. V. *Pleasures of Solitude, with other Poems.* By P. L. COURTIER. 8vo. pp. 144. Three Vignettes.

THIS volume has so far succeeded as to have reached a second edition. The subject is prepossessing; and if the author's genius seldom rises above the temperate point, it seldom falls below it. The character that would fit this poem, would fit fifty other such; it will be better appreciated from a specimen.

See, at such time, O see! by frenzy sped,  
The melancholy man yon summit gain,  
To the bleak tempest bare his burning head  
Then, like that tempest, scowl upon the plain.

Ah! not to him those kindly pains pertain,  
Which heal, and harmonize, and renovate;  
Known only these to that high-favoured train,

Who, while by nature touched their souls dilate,  
Can wing the hour with bliss, and smile  
at wayward fate.

Yet, blame not him, by long injustice taught  
And base ingratitude, the world to shun;  
Nor marvel much, that where he fondly sought

Friendship and peace, till finding one by one,  
His friends all faithless, and himself undone,

He can no more in confidence repose;  
Joyless to him, sweet bloom and summer sun!

His oft a heart, though bleeding with its woes,

That pants the friend to meet, and could  
forgive its foes!

Far from the din of mad inglorious strife,  
Not wretched he with eager steps who flies  
To the calm confines of sequestered life,  
And upwards casts his unpurged eyes,  
Heedless what friends believe, and foes  
devise:

O, bliss! compared with him, who feels, the while

Deluded mortals lift him to the skies,  
That though the myriad on his actions smile:  
Yet all within is stamped with misery and guile.

Of the smaller poems, there is none with such obvious faults as the following, and yet none altogether so good.

What is glory? Say, a feather,  
Mounted on the buoyant air,  
Prey to every wind and weather,  
Often soil'd, and seldom fair.

What is glory? Ask the garter,  
Twining round his grace's knee.  
Wouldst thou ease and conscience barter,  
Such a thing on thine to see?

What is glory? Ask the maiden,  
Wedded to a titled drone.  
Sick at soul, and heavy laden;  
Empty pageantry her own.

What is glory? Ask the lawyer,  
Feeless trudging to the court,  
Harder work than any sawyer,  
Ceaseless labour, less support.

What is glory? To the city  
Hie, and ask the trading crew.  
Man, in common-council witty,  
Christian called, at heart a Jew!

What is glory? Ask him bawling,  
Patriot of heroic age,  
The house his stand; he waits a calling;  
Lungs, for party to engage.

What is glory? Ask the miser,  
Starving mid his bags of gold.  
Ask his heir, he hardly wiser,  
Scattering wide the sordid mould.

What is glory? Ask the poet,  
Pocket low, and wishes high;  
Wanting, and yet none must know it,  
All but earth, and air, and sky.

What is glory? Ask the sailor,  
Weather-beaten, tempest-tost;  
Ship his prison, winds his jailor;  
Kindred, friends, and country lost.

Ask the soldier, faint and gory,  
Leaning where his comrades lie,  
Ask him, firmly, what is glory?  
He shall answer with a sigh.

What is glory? Hero! striding  
Madly o'er a ruined land:  
What is glory? Time is gliding;  
Death and judgment are at hand!

ART. VI. *Poems.* By MRS. JOHN HUNTER. 8vo.

A FEW odes and occasional pieces; a short poem, with notes, called Carisbrook Castle; three or four ballads of the pathetic kind, and a considerable number of songs, several of which have been set to music, and rendered popular, compose the whole of this elegant little volume. They who are so unreasonable as to demand the genius of a Burns, or the originality of a Cowper, from every poet or poetess, who offers to the public the gifts of the muse, will be disappointed in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred; and in this among the rest. They who are satisfied with correct and pleasing sentiments, expressed in flowing and agreeable numbers; with pretty verse rather than fine poetry,—will thank

Mrs. Hunter for an hour's innocent amusement; and allow her book a deserved place on the dressing room table, or parlour window. We subjoin a fair specimen.

SONG.

O'er the lone heath I wander wild,  
Or sing beneath the hawthorn shade,  
While the soft breeze of ev'ning mild  
Hovers around my careless head.  
Sweet solitude, dear scenes of calm repose!  
How far unlike the busy world are those.

So fancy sings, ere young desire  
With grief, with joy inspires her lay,  
Ere love has touch'd the soul with fire,  
And wak'd to life the conscious clay;  
Sweet sympathies, sad joys, and tender woes,  
Still how unlike the busy world are those.

ART. VII. *Rhyme and Reason; short and original Poems.* 12mo.

THE "reason" was little worth putting into *rhyme*, and such "*rhyme*" is no great ornament to *reason*. There is less of sense than nonsense; less of wit than flippancy; and more of coxcombry

than any thing else: yet one merit the book possesses,—it may be read through in half an hour, and forgotten in less time still.

ART. VIII. *Poems, and Critical Essays on various Branches of Poetry.* By GEORGE DYER. 2 vols. 12mo.

TO the lovers of miscellaneous poetry, these volumes present a variety calculated to gratify the most desultory taste. They are lyric, elegiac, amatory, pensive, moral, and humorous. We cannot, however, recommend them all upon an equal ground of merit. Mr. Dyer possesses an easy flow of versification, which adapts itself with great happiness to the structure of a variety of measures which he has chosen for his different subjects: he is not without a portion of poetic fancy, and as a scholar, is familiar with the treasures of classic literature; but for want of that great art, the art to blot, and from a certain air of carelessness spread over the whole, his poems

rather seem the effusions of an amiable mind aiming to please itself with its own ideas, than regular productions prepared for a critical and fastidious public. They are accompanied by four Essays, two to each volume. These are on lyric, on elegiac, on representative poetry, on dreams and visions. We should find it a difficult task to analyse them. The first is about lyric poetry, about poetry in general, about Shakespear, about himself, about his method of making love, about the Greek versification, about patriotism, about Solomon's song, &c. &c. Yet the reader may discover amidst all this rambling, a familiarity with the laws of just criticism, and with

those works which are the standard of true taste. Of the poems some are gay, others breathe the tender melancholy of sentiment; of the latter cast is the *Elegy on the Death of Gilbert Wakefield*, the greater part of which we shall present to our readers, as it contains an admirable portrait of the regretted scholar it commemorates, and cannot fail to give a favourable idea of the mind and heart of the amiable author.

ON THE DEATH OF  
GILBERT WAKEFIELD.

*Meditated in a garden, near a church-yard,  
at the close of autumn.*

Oh! rural walk! Thy stillness now how sweet,

Thy stillness and thy gloom, as erst thy song,  
Thy morning smile, and flower!—from sickness now

I come, to count the sum of human life,  
A sun how small! to muse its many ills,  
Its frailties, follies, numerous; and I come,  
To muse on death;—for Wakefield is no more.

And is he then no more? The man so full  
Of schemes, of learned resolves, so prompt  
and quick

To execute, with temperance who had form'd  
So close alliance, that, methought, he seem'd,  
Destin'd to live, the cool grey chronicler  
Of years now passing, and of years to pass  
Some thirty years to come;—the gen'rous  
friend,—

Is he no more? Farewell, then, world,  
awhile:—

And thou shalt be my cloister, rural shade.

—tho' I see  
No blossom peeping on the smiling year;  
Nor flow'r to greet me; nor the melting  
voice

Of nightingale, nor shining fruit t'allure  
My taste; yet, closing autumn, shall thy  
leaf

Yellow, and wrinkled, preach close to my  
heart.

Methinks it says, ah! what art thou, O  
man?

A falling withering leaf—and such thy friend.  
He had his spring—his summer—scarcely he  
saw

His autumn—for as yet he had not pass'd  
His glowing time of life; unless, perchance,  
Our life is autumn all; for in the midst  
Of life we are in death, and while man seems  
Smiling in years, falls like yon falling leaf,

Oh! well do I remember, years ago,  
That I did wander, tho' long train'd to  
thought,

Still too, too thoughtless, near thy stream,  
oh Cam!

There first I saw the friend that now I mourn

For near thy stream, he, too, was wont to  
crop

The flowers of learning—I remember well—  
Beneath his garb, the trappings of the schools,  
I saw a form erect and slender, like  
T'one early form'd to manliness of thought  
And rigid duties: o'er his visage pale  
Fair science beam'd; and quick around his  
eye

A critic archness play'd, that would have  
seem'd

On sternness bent and querulousness, but that  
A gentleness was there, that still appear'd  
To check some frowardness, which while it  
oft

Obtruded its dislikes, yet did not seem  
From the pure fountain of his heart to rise.  
His gait was steady, firm; for much he seem'd  
As he but walk'd, to gather in his mind  
Thoughts, that had stray'd, or to digest with  
care

The feastings of his soul in bookish hours.  
I knew him not; at least, I did not know  
The friend:—I only knew of worth and wit,  
The zeal of industry, the love of fame,  
Of virtue, science, and they call'd them,  
Wakefield.

This was his spring of life, when hopes were  
gay,

And wishes blooming, not of honours high,  
Or in the world, or in the churches mart,  
But to secure the crown of well-earn'd praise,  
Of genius, and of learning:—and he did  
Obtain the well-earn'd wreath, which well  
was worn

Thro' life, and with advancing years still  
grew.

But, in the summer of his life I knew him,  
And call'd him friend: for in our hearts did  
dwell

Some kindred likings and some kindred  
scorns:

The tyrant's state, the pontiff's pomp and  
pride,

The hireling's meanness; the debasing tricks  
Of avarice; the sycophantic airs

Of dangles after wealth: ah! subjects fit  
Of generous scorn: together we did hail

The star of freedom, rising on a world  
Of slavery-goaded men: we liv'd to see

France rise to something of the new-born  
man,

Snapping her fetters off, enlarg'd and free.  
Oh! had he liv'd to hail this day of peace,

It should have wak'd some ardent, generous  
thoughts,

Some rapturous feelings, some exulting notes,  
And he had triumph'd in his prison-house.

His prison house! He had no prison-house:  
Worth, freedom, wisdom, still can walk at  
large,

Tho' bolts, and bars, and walls of adamant,  
May intervene: the sun's æthereal beam,

The lightest breeze, the voice of wife, of  
child,

And friend, and chiefest, conscience, light  
within,

Cheer the brave man retir'd ; while mind up-  
soars  
Thro' worlds on worlds, beyond the reach of  
fear.

But I have wander'd : let me then recount  
The sum of life, and profit by th' Amount :  
A little learning, and a little weakness ;  
A little pleasure, and enough of pain :  
A little freedom, with its tale of slavery :

Passion's and reason's struggle ; where, tho' oft  
Reason claims empire, passion governs still ;  
Believing much, yet doubting not a little ;  
Till sickness comes, and with it gloom of  
thought ;—

When man, quite wearied with a world,  
perhaps,  
Not moving to his mind, a foolish world,  
Seeks inward stillness, and lies quiet down.

ART. IX. *The Peasant's Fate ; a rural Poem, with miscellaneous Pieces.* By W.  
HOLLOWAY. 12mo.

TO that class of gentle readers who are capable of receiving entertainment from natural descriptions of common objects and characters, in easy flowing verse, which will neither awaken from languor by striking beauties, nor rouse to displeasure by glaring faults,—we may recommend this little volume. To those who consider *negative* excellence in poetry, as *positive* defect ; who deem that unworthy of being read, which will instantly be forgotten, we cannot say much in its behalf. The depopulation of the country from several small farms being converted into one large one, from the calamities of war, and the advances of luxury, is the general theme of the poem ; which, unfortunately, excites in us a recollection of that of the Deserted Village. A feeble outline of a parish workhouse, which recalls the painfully distinct one drawn by the energetic pencil of Crabbe, and a lifeless sketch of a native village, which obtrudes itself into comparison with the rich and highly-finished picture of Rogers, raise a smile at the deficient judgment, or abounding vanity of our author. His descriptions of the former happiness of the English peasantry, as he tells us, refer to no distant feudal times, but only to that period,

“ When ev'ry rood of ground maintain'd its man.”

We sincerely hope that the woful accounts he gives us of their present wretched poverty, are equally exaggerated with these absurd ones of their former state of ease and abundance.

As a fair specimen of Mr. Holloway's manner, in which indeed it would be difficult to distinguish better and worse, we give the following description of an *old farm* and its inhabitants.

“ Few years are past, since, on the paddock  
green,  
Beneath the hill, that old farm-house was seen,

Round which the barley-mows and wheat-  
ricks rose,  
And cattle sought refreshment and repose.  
The cock, proud marching with his cackling  
train,  
Sought the barn-door, to pick the scatter'd  
grain ;

The trotting sow her spotted offspring led,  
And gobbling turkeys rear'd the crimson  
head.

The mistress there, and blooming daughters,  
drest

In russet stuffs, their new-made cheeses prest,  
Summon'd the swine the full repast to share,  
And rais'd their poultry with assiduous  
care.

From whose increase their private fortune  
grew,

Their ancient right, and still acknowledg'd  
due ;

While in the fields *young master* held the  
plough,

Form'd the square load, or trod the fragrant  
mow :

Familiar still, he crack'd the ready joke,  
And sure applause attended all he spoke.

For change, sometimes, with unremitting  
care,

He led his healthful flock to pastures fair,  
Along the green-wood's verge would guard  
the fold

From crafty foxes and marauders bold ;  
The helpless lambs, with tender toil, would  
guide

To sheltering bush, or hay-stack's sunny  
side :

In herbs and simples he was skill'd full well,  
He taught their virtues crude disease to  
quell ;

And, on the festive eve of shearing, heard  
His praise proclaim'd, his noblest, best re-  
ward !

By rains confin'd, the sounding flail he  
plied,

Nor scorn'd the meanest lab'rer by his side.  
All day the rustic clamour fill'd the air,  
And health, content, and cheerfulness, were  
there.”

The smaller pieces are undeserving of  
particular notice.

ART. X. *The Island of Innocence. A poetical Epistle to a Friend. By PETER PINDAR, Esq. Part the First. 4to. pp. 17.*

THROUGH the chequered pages of Peter Pindar's works, are scattered here and there some delicate and beautiful passages; and it cannot be doubted, had this author dedicated those powers to simple and pathetic poetry which he has wasted upon broad satire and ribaldry, but that his works might have at once delighted the imagination, and improved the heart.

"The Island of Innocence is addressed to a gentleman whom the author of this poem met by the merest accident, on a small island situated near the Gulph of Mexico. His companions were his wife, a most lovely woman, and four beautiful children, whose history would form an interesting romance: persecuted by their parents for a mutual love attachment, they forsook their native country, (America) to seek some distant asylum. On their voyage they were wrecked; but fortunately escaped with their lives, and preserved their property. Finding the little island on which they were thrown, to be in possession of a few inhabitants of the most perfect simplicity of manners, and the most lively friendship; pleased also with the salubrity, as well as the beauty and fertility of the spot, they adopted the resolution of passing their days in this remote corner of the globe; convinced that the most perfect happiness resides oftener in simplicity than splendour. Their opinion soon became realized: fond of the innocent natives, and equally beloved again, the delightful little republic flourished under their auspices, and restored the golden age.

To thee, my FRIEND, amid that peaceful ISLE  
Where bounteous NATURE blooms with  
sweetest smile;

ART. XI. *Egypt: a Poem; descriptive of that Country and its Inhabitants; written during the late Campaign. By M. M. CLIFFORD, Esq. of the Twelfth, or Prince of Wales's Light Dragoons. 8vo. pp. 79.*

THE circumstances under which this poem was produced would apologise for a more faulty composition. It was composed during the avocations of military duty, in a small tent on the sands of Egypt, amidst the orange-groves of Rosetta, or on the tempestuous bosom of the Mediterranean; and the author has allowed it to retain the same simple dress it first bore; "a dress which may best unfold the feelings that excited, and the train of ideas that contributed to its execution."

Where never WINTER, or his northern blast,  
Howls on the hill, and lays the valley waste,  
O'er a pale sun, the cloud of horror throws,  
And buries NATURE in his vast of snows;  
Ah, no! where endless SUMMER, ever gay,  
Opens a pure ether to the ORB of day;  
That gilds the tree, and flower, and grassy  
blade,  
And works his threads of gold in ev'ry glade;  
To THEE, my FRIEND, where shrubs of incense rise,

And pour their grateful fragrance to the  
skies;

Where rills, in wanton mazes, wind away,  
Diffusing health and plenty, as they play;  
Where the rich treasures of the pine reside,  
And orange-branches bend with golden pride;  
Where from the boughs of odour, mingled  
notes

Of rapture warble from a thousand throats;  
And blest, from vale to vale the cooing  
dove

Wings with his mate, and teaches man to  
love;

To THEE, I yield the MUSE's artless line,  
And envy all the blessings that are thine."

The poet proceeds in the same serious strain, to describe the various occupations and amusements in which he supposes his friend, his friend's wife, and children to be engaged. These bloodless pastimes are contrasted with the barbarous field-sports in which Britons delight; and the poet invokes humanity to soften the hearts of his countrymen, that they may spare the poor animals who harmlessly range around them. While imploring mercy for the animal creation, Peter forgets how little he extends towards "the brutes of Paternoster-row."

The poem is without order or plan' but contains passages of more than ordinary merit.

"Say, ancient Nile! thou tutelary stream,  
The muse's parent, and the poet's theme,  
Didst thou not raise a while thy hoary head  
From the tall reeds that crown thy sacred  
bed,

Nor starting, view, along thy banks, unfurl'd  
The proudest standards of a distant world?  
While Gallia's sons indignant, ceased to  
claim

Their faded laurels, and diminish'd fame,



Nor joy'd to seek, by ill success depress'd,  
Unwelcome refuge in their country's breast;  
Compell'd to leave, to rival hands resign'd,  
Cairo's proud walls and empire, far behind.

We have a country too, and proudly trace  
New scenes of pleasure in her fond embrace.  
Ah, fancy-woven bliss! ah, happy sounds!  
The name of home in every charm abounds;  
Calls up the fond idea's lengthen'd train,  
Joys warmly hop'd, and scarcely dreaded  
pain;  
Paints, 'mid the breezy lawns and shady  
bowers,

Scenes of domestic bliss, and roseate hours;  
Paints too thy forms, bright tutelary maids!  
To deck the mazes of our English shades.  
Ah! mid the beauties of my native isle,  
Where courteous nature wears a social smile,  
Say, while afar these desert wilds I roam,  
Does one soft bosom wish her wanderer  
home?

Heave, when the full eye drops the trickling  
tear,  
Gaze fondly round, and wish her soldier near?  
Musing, I nurse awhile the flattering theme,  
Start from my trance, and find it all a dream.

There are some fine lines in the picture  
of the effects of heat.

"——Through the tedium of a sum-  
mer's day,  
Unclouded suns emit their fiercest ray,  
Wide o'er the whole a power inclement reigns,  
And burns, with ceaseless glow, the fissured  
plains,  
Earth starting, shrinks beneath the vivid glare,  
Remits her labours, and forgets her care;  
Scarce does old Nile upraise his sacred head,  
From the deep channel of his mystic bed,  
Scarce through the thirsty plains his waters  
flow,

Perturb'd and putrid, from the solar glow.  
Dread silence reigns; here no luxuriant trees  
Bend to the gale, or rustle in the breeze,  
Save where in death the green acacias fade,  
And thin palmettos yield a scanty shade  
Here parch'd and panting in the nether sky,  
A listless group, the village inmates lie;  
The dog quick-breathing, speaks internal  
flames,  
Lifts his dim eye, and man's compassion  
claims;

The wild ox lashes oft his glowing side,  
Sports o'er the plain, and rushes to the tide;  
Man suffers most of all; his inmost soul  
Throbs with the pressure of the stern control;  
His temples sink with unaccustom'd weight,  
His sinews slacken, and his veins dilate,  
Swift through his frame he feels delirium run,  
Convuls'd and furious with excessive sun."

The concluding phrase is exception-

able. We were surprised in the poem  
of a scholar to find Anūbis wrongly  
accented.

The poem upon Cintra will disappoint  
any person who has seen that wonder-  
ful spot, perhaps the most beautiful in  
Europe.

"In thy wild rocky mazes, and ivy-grown  
bowers,

Green Cintra, I linger awhile,  
Now the morn dimly seen thro' her mantle  
of showers,

Tints lightly yon rock, and invites the gay  
hours

To greet her return with a smile.

Scarce the low-tinkling bell of yon convent  
I hear,

Through the stillness that hovers around,  
Scarce the goatherd's rude madrigal dwells on  
my ear,  
And the brook, distant babbling, approaches  
not here,

But flies, as afraid of its sound.

But it is not the gloom that embosoms the  
grove,

Nor its mildness that seizes the soul,  
'Tis the Muse, who alone can all distance re-  
move,

Bear the mind, thus enraptured, to regions  
above,  
And endear, by her lessons, the whole.

Yes, these are thy valleys, and these are thy  
dells,

Whence history adds to her store,  
Some Muse on each rude-pointed precipice  
dwells,

Ennobles each valley, and mournfully tells,  
Of scenes she will sing of no more."

As in the Almada-Hill of Mickle, we  
have history here, where we expected  
description. The poet, indeed, must  
paint with a master's hand who should  
attempt even to sketch a likeness of  
Cintra. This metre, which Capt. Clif-  
ford has chosen, has become very unde-  
servedly popular. It always tempts the  
writer to introduce monosyllabic epithets.

For ages have lapsed since the gaunt Moor  
has strode,  
Since the hoarse din of arms, and  
Then the loud song of glory, &c.

And thus is the ear perpetually jolted  
by upstart adjectives. This fault is com-  
mon to almost all writers in the same  
stanza. Captain Clifford's ten syllable  
verses are uniformly harmonious.

ART. XII. *Poems.* By FRANCIS WRANGHAM, M. A. Member of Trinity College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 120.

THE author of this little volume is well known to the literary world. At the University he distinguished himself, and obtained many academical honours, though from academical emoluments he was somewhat mysteriously debarred. His "Rome is Fallen," and his collected Sermons have been deservedly popular; and he has found it expedient to assert, that he is not the author of the Pursuits of Literature. The present volume, though now first published, has been printed eight years: We have long been familiar with its merits.

The first of these poems is a Seatonian prize poem upon the Restoration of the Jews. The second, upon the Destruction of Babylon, was an unsuccessful candidate for that prize the following year. Of these scriptural pieces, the second is by far the best; it opens with much effect.

"And art thou then for ever set! Thy ray  
No more to rise and gild the front of day,  
Far-beaming BABYLON? Those massive  
gates,  
Through which to battle rush'd a hundred  
states;  
That cloud-topt wall, along whose giddy  
height  
Cars strove with rival cars in fearless flight—  
What! Could not all protect thee? Ah! in  
vain  
Thy bulwarks frown'd defiance o'er the plain:  
Fondly in ancient majesty elate  
Thou sat'st, unconscious of impending fate:  
Nor brazen gates, nor adamant wall,  
Could save a guilty people from their fall.

Was it for this those wondrous turrets rose,  
Which taught thy feeble youth a scorn of  
foes?  
For this that earth her mineral stores resign'd;  
And the wan artist, child of sorrow, pin'd:  
Destin'd as death crept on with mortal  
stealth,  
And the flush'd hectic mimick'd rosy health;  
'Mid gasping crowds to ply th' incessant  
loom,  
While morbid vapours linger'd in the gloom?

Silent for seventy years, its frame unstrung,  
On *Syrian* bough *Juda's* harp had hung:  
Deaf to their despots' voice, her tribes no  
more  
Wak'd *Sion's* music on a foreign shore;  
But oft, his tide where broad *Euphrates* rolls,  
Felt the keen insult pierce their patriot souls:  
And still, as homeward turn'd the longing  
eye,  
Gush'd many a tear, and issued many a sigh."

The approach of Cyrus is then related, and the stratagem by which he entered the city.

"Yet nought devoted BABYLON alarms;  
Domestic treason, or a world in arms.  
'Mid her gay palaces, and festal bowers  
Flutter'd in sportive maze the rose-crown'd  
hours:  
Loud burst the roar of merriment around.  
While wanton dance light tripp'd it o'er the  
ground;  
Echoed the song, and with voluptuous lay  
The warbling lute beguil'd the soul away:  
When, bent the long-drawn revelry to spy,  
Hush'd in grim midnight Vengeance hover'd  
nigh.  
Nor vain her care; by wine's soft power  
subdued  
The courtly troop with gladden'd eye she  
view'd:  
The frantic mob, in drunken tumult lost,  
The drowsy soldier nodding at his post,  
The gate unclos'd, the desert wall survey'd;  
And livid smiles her inward breast betray'd.

Quaff then, BELSHEZZAR—quaff, Imperial  
Boy,  
The luscious draught and drain the madden-  
ing joy;  
To equal riot rouse thy languid board,  
And bid the Satrap emulate his Lord.  
With pencil'd lids, the scandal of the race,  
Thy crowded halls a thousand princes grace:  
Ill on such legs the warrior greaves appear,  
Ill by such hands is grasp'd the deathful  
spear;  
Fitter 'mid *Syria's* harlot train to move,  
And wage in safer fields the wars of love.  
Alternate rang'd (with faces not more fair,  
Nor hearts more soft) that harlot train is  
there:  
The virgin's wish her half-clos'd eyes impart,  
And blushing matrons boast th' adulterous  
heart;  
On ardent wing the rank contagion flies,  
Sigh heaves to sigh, and glance to glance re-  
plies,  
Let these th' achievements of thy gods re-  
hearse,  
Raise the lewd hymn and pour the unholy  
verse;  
Proceed! With sacrilege enhance thy wine!  
Let the vase circle, torn from *Salem's* shrine.  
Empire and wealth for thee unite thy charms;  
For thee bright beauty spreads her willing  
arms:  
Who shall controul thy raptures, or destroy?  
Give then the night, the poignant night, to  
joy.  
Ha! Why that start! Those horror gleaming  
eyes!  
That frozen cheek, whence life's warm  
crimson flies!

That lip, on which th' unfinish'd accents  
break!  
Those hairs, erect with life! Those joints,  
that shake!"

The rents of Mr. Seaton's Kislinbury estate have seldom purchased poetry so good as this. But the rhyme has sometimes led Mr. Wrangham to commit faults which his good taste would certainly else have avoided. "Those joints that shake," form a sad anti-climax after horror-gleaming eyes have been particularised, and the frozen cheek, and the lip pausing in its speech, and the hairs erect with life. The following couplets too have a triteness and feebleness, which the author would not have committed had he been writing in blank verse.

Haste, for the prophet bring the scarlet vest,  
*If so, seduced, his words may sooth thy breast.*

Even now is wrought the deed of death,  
This moment ends thy glories *and thy breath.*  
See where, twin sons of Vengeance and Despair,

March, Gobryas and Gadatas: *hold rash pair!*

Among the smaller poems, we were most pleased with the following song:

"In times so long past (though I still am  
but young)

That I scarcely their transports can trace,  
Enraptur'd I caught the soft lisp of thy tongue;

And totter'd—*for then I but totter'd—*along,  
To clasp thee in *childish* embrace.

As we grew up together, each day I beheld,  
With feelings unkindled before,  
Thy yesterday's beauties by new ones excell'd;

Nor, *boy* as I was, from those beauties withheld

My heart:—Could I offer thee more?

Even now, when the fever of youth is gone by,

And I glow with more temperate fire,  
Delighted I dwell on thy soul-beaming eye;  
And, heaving perhaps still too ardent a sigh,  
Survey thee with chaste'n'd desire.

Oh! come then and give me, dear maiden,  
thy charms;

For life is, alas! on the wing:

Our summer, ere long, will be fled; in these  
arms

Let me shield thee, my fair one, from winter's  
alarms:

Oh! listen to love, while 'tis spring.

Mr. Wrangham's latin verses are uncommonly elegant. Some original pieces, and some translations of well known English poems, are here published. Our classical readers will be grati-

fied by his admirable version of Pope's Universal Prayer.

"PATER Universi, sæculis in omnibus  
O culte, et omnes per plagas;  
Sanctisque dicte, barbaris, sapientibus  
JEHOVAH, JUPITER, DEUS!

Te, Prima rerum Causa, mente consequi  
Est neminis nedum meum;  
Solum, in tenebris ipse vix viam regens  
Cæcusque, te agnosco bonum.

Prævoque quod dederis probum dignoscere;  
Fatoque naturum ligans  
Nunquam soluto, liberum simul homini  
Arbitrium permiseris.

Quod suaserit mihi, quod et dissuaserit  
Præsaga conscientia;  
Hoc vel gehennâ fac, Deus, fugiam magis,  
Illud magis cælo sequar.

Quotquot benignitas Tua ingerat, precor,  
Des gratus ut capiam bona;  
Solvit Deo quicunque enim dignè accipit;  
Obsequitur is, qui scit frui.

Nec Te tamen telluris, ah! pusillime,  
Soliis adfirmem Patrem:  
Neve hominibus solis datum tibi obsequi,  
Tot millia inter orbium.

Manus hæc suas cobiheat imbellis minas;  
Neu jactet impar fulmina  
In omnium capita, Tui quos duxerim  
Hostes, ferox atque insciens.

Si recta quam dudum tero, Pater, via est,  
Tu quaeso eandem fac teram:  
Erraticus sin divager, rectâ meos  
Tu quaeso dirigas pedes.

Quicquid negarit vel Tua sapientia,  
Vel caritas indulserit;  
Hoc ne datum levem excitet superbiam,  
Illud negatum murmura.

Aliena fac ut usque defleam mala,  
Aliena peccata ut tegam;  
Quamque ipsa cæteris adhibuerim, mihi  
Redhibeto misericordiam.

Vilis licet sim, non tamen vilissimus,  
Cum spiritus me alat Tuus:  
Gressus meus, sive hora detur longior,  
Sive ultima adsit, O regas!

Panem mihi pacemque lux hæc afferat;  
De cæteris securior,  
Permitto Tibi quid conveniat expendere  
Tua ut voluntas destinet.

Te, SUMME, cui templum omnis æther quæ  
patet,  
Cui terra mareque ara, et polus;  
Quo pollet ore quisque certatim canat,  
Natura cuncta concinat!"

We doubt the propriety of the phrase *liberum arbitrium*; but we know how difficult it is to find classical terms for philosophical ideas. Mr. Wrangham has also translated the Prologue to Cato,

and Mrs. Barbauld's beautiful song upon the Symptoms of Love.

A version of a French poem by Mr. Wordsworth is inserted in this volume, and an imitation by Mr. Coleridge of a Hendecasyllable Ode to Miss Brunton. These translations were written when the authors were young men at the University, and we cannot but think Mr.

Wrangham has acted very reprehensibly in publishing them now. The high reputation which those gentlemen have deservedly attained, should render their friends cautious how they publish their boyish poems: such conduct, to say the least, implies a want of delicacy, and of judgment.

ART. XIII. *The Happy Village, a Poem. Dedicated to the Hon. and Rev. the Trustees of the late Lord Cleeve. By R. WALLIS, Rector of Seaham.* 4to. pp. 20.

A Rhymed history of the village of Blanchland.

"And now, my Muse, best of the tuneful tribe,

Teach me a rising village to describe,  
Give me but pow'r to modulate my lay,  
As GOLDSMITH sung of one in deep decay;  
Then shall my pen attempt th' inviting scene,  
Portray what is, as well as what has been,

Make truth display the charms of fancy's song,  
And time confess it as it rolls along,  
Confess that BLANCHLAND has the grace alone  
Of Auburn dead, of lovely AUBURN—gone."

We are sorry to contradict this gentleman, but certainly his muse is not the best of the tuneful tribe, and his Happy Village has not the grace of the Deserted Village.

ART. XIV. *A Poetical Sketch.* 12mo. pp. 51.

THIS little poem is purely descriptive, interspersed with moral reflections and similitudes. The versification is, in general, smooth and harmonious; we could, nevertheless, select a few limping lines, and here and there a false-toned rhyme, such as *storm* and *arm*, *joy* and *sky*; *who're* is an inadmissible contraction in serious poetry for *who are*. Sometimes it appears too as if the author lost himself in the intricacies of his periods: the three first in the poem are of fourteen lines each, and their connection with each other, and with what follows, is not very obvious: perhaps the effect would have been better had the poem begun at the forty-third line.

Morven! how still, how desolate thy green,  
Where festive sports and revelry have been.

But these are the *paucæ maculæ* which admit of easy correction; and it will now be our agreeable duty to point out some picturesque and beautiful passages. The following picture is full of characteristic minutæ:

"Along the green, the hamlet's festive day  
Made toil relax, and poverty look gay:  
There, as at blush of morn, the pealing bells  
Charm'd the sweet echoes of responsive dells;  
The sun-burn'd gypsey, and her tawny train  
Forsook the tented shed, beside the lane;  
Oft have I mark'd the paltry rag of red  
Half-flung in careless mood across her head:  
Oft, the short smutted tube, and vapouring  
smoke

That from the lips, in quick succession,  
broke;

ANN. REV. VOL. I.

And as her jet black locks, her keen dark  
eyes

Flash'd on credulity, and mark'd the prize:  
Intent she gaz'd upon the lines of fate,  
And cloth'd the poor man in the dress of state,  
Oft in pretended divination bold  
She spread the palm, and promis'd heaps of  
gold:

Oft mid the gaping ring, her magic power  
Reveal'd to village maids the bridal hour;  
One silver-piece could fix their future doom,  
'This, gain'd a marriage: less than this, a  
tomb."

There is an obscurity in the eleventh line: to what verb is the first half of that line related?

The description which follows, of cottagers waiting for their clergyman in the church porch, and gossiping their village news till he arrives, is well executed: the word *cleanly*, indeed, is an unnecessary epithet to *neatness*. At length their venerable pastor comes:

"Doffed was each hat, the while he pass'd  
along,  
And awful silence chain'd at once each  
tongue;  
Then ev'ry swain with ready zeal withdrew,  
Smooth'd down his hair, and clos'd his proper  
pew."

The image in the last line is strikingly accurate; it is one of those little touches of the pencil which do credit to the artist.

The episode of Conrad is introduced with effect: it opens in a strain of animated poetry.

U u

"From Scotia's realms, where huge Ben-lomond's form  
With cloud-cap'd summit mingles with the storm,  
Conrad the Thane, whose matchless feats of praise  
Charm'd in the simple songs of other days,  
One summer-morn, as cottage legends tell,  
Bade to his native hills a long farewell.

And now, the sun in blushing streaks enrol'd,  
Pour'd on the landscape round, a flood of gold:

When the young warrior turn'd, once more, to view  
His mountain-home, just lost in distant blue;

And many a pensive sigh he left behind,  
And many a wish, that mingled with the wind.

Sweet was the morn of Conrad's early day,  
His heart at ease, and every care away;  
Pleas'd and admiring Nature's wildest face,  
Still, still, he lov'd his dearest native place:  
Gaz'd on the prospect, with an hermit's eye,  
Charm'd with the blue hill fading on the sky;  
Ofi was he wont from high Ben-lomond's brow.

To stand aloft, and span the world below,  
There! as at morn, the wild cock of the moor

Sprung from his hill-haunt, and began to soar,

And the shy roebuck starting in the vale,  
Held up his antlers to the whispering gale,  
Dumbarton's lake in bluish tints appear'd,  
Its green-iles and its ruins long rever'd;

Where the sea-eagle on the rock's hoar crest,  
Exults to dwell, and rears its lonely nest.

Ofi had the youth with hermit steps pursu'd  
The wild-wood walk, the paths of solitude:  
And heard, appall'd, the loud tumultuous din

Sweep down the white sheet-wave of Cora-Lin:

Where still the watch-tower on the foam-wash'd rock,  
Hangs it's wind-shaken ruins o'er the shock."

The epithets in the two last lines are well compounded; and the "white sheet-wave," at once expresses the impetuosity, and the integrity of the fall.

But we must not proceed in what many will consider as hypercritical remarks: the author introduces his "Sketch," with a preface of extraordinary modesty and humility. The poem certainly wants revision, but there are many passages which do credit to his taste and his imagination. In three or four places we observe a resemblance, rather too close, perhaps, to some passages in Gray's *Elegy*, in Goldsmith's *Traveller*, and to the moral remarks of the *Grave-Digger* in *Hamlet*.

The poem is carelessly printed, and carelessly punctuated: We advise the author, in future, to use his capital letters more sparingly. He will find a grammatical error in page 40, line 2 from the bottom.

ART. XV. *The Histrionade; or Theatrical Tribunal, a Poem; descriptive of the principal Performers at both Houses; in two Parts.* By MARMADUKE MYRTLE, Esq. 8vo. pp. 56.

NOT being much in the habit of attending the theatre, we cannot vouch for the accuracy of all the descriptions here presented to us: the excellencies and defects however, of those performers with

whose style of acting we happen to be conversant, seem to be very fairly set forth. Mr. Myrtle is at least a good-natured satyrist, and less disposed to censure than applause.

ART. XVI. *Thoughts on Happiness; a Poem in four Books.* Small 8vo. pp. 94.

AT a time when every species of writing has been employed in discrediting the truths of revelation, and when the poison of infidelity has been distilled from harmonious couplets and seductive tales, thanks are due to every man who prepares an antidote, and secures its acceptance by rendering it palatable.

The object of this little poem is to shew that the gospel scheme is that alone on which all the happiness attainable in this life can be founded. As a composition, it certainly seldom rises above

mediocrity: the versification is, in general, sufficiently smooth and harmonious, but wants animation.

We are told by an advertisement, that whatever profits may arise from the sale of this publication will be applied to the fund of the charity, for the relief of the necessitous widows, sons, and daughters of clergymen within the archdeaconry of Coventry. The intentions of the author, indeed, do him honour in every point of view.



ART. XVII. *Broad Grins; by GEORGE COLMAN (the younger); comprising, with new additional Tales in Verse, those formerly published under the Title of "my Night Gown and Slippers."* 12mo. pp. 125.

WE cannot grin at this low-lived humour, but it would be hard to restrain the risible muscles of others. May we whisper a secret into the ear of our read-

ers? If Mr. Colman can but circulate his book, as he will be the only winner, he will be the heartiest grinner.

ART. XVIII. *London; a Poem Satirical and Descriptive, illustrated with Notes.* 12mo. pp. 55.

WHERE the object which an author has in view is obviously good, we are sorry to mark his incapacity in the pursuit of it. Satire may discharge her

arrows, but they must be feathered in order to fly, and pointed in order to pierce: the flight of these is languid, and the fall of them dull.

ART. XIX. *The Sorrows of Love; a Poem in three Books.* 12mo. pp. 135.

TO the author of this tristful tale are recommended the following four lines from one of Drummond's sonnets:

My lute, bee as thou wast, when thou didst grow  
With thy greene mother in some shadie grove;

When immelodious windes but made thee move,  
And birds on thee their ramage did bestow.

The sorrows of love are indeed truly lamentable, and they are here most lamentably related.

ART. XX. *Poems on Various Subjects.* By THOMAS DERMODY. 12mo: pp. 620.

THIS little volume will rank Mr. Dermody respectably among the poetæ minores of the present day. His best poem is "The Extravaganza:" it evinces considerable powers of imagination and controul of numbers. It is written on the old English model: and there is merit in the attempt alone, had it been less successfully executed, of attaining the manly style of our poetical fathers, their spirited sentiment and appropriate diction.

The first line is unmusical: "Oh! for a journey to th'antipodes;" and has no parallel in the poem. The following description is well wrought, and the epithets are selected with much felicity and taste:

The western wind did, scant-respiring, sigh,  
Ne ruffled with rude wing th' attempt red air,  
But fuming from the fragrant flow'rs hard by,  
Prankt in all hues, and delicately fair,  
Did surging clouds of breathing incense bear;  
All Summer's bravery refreshed the eye,  
All Musick's charms, above, beneath,  
around,  
Raptur'd the ear with fascinating sound.

Here, cherries, riper than thy leman's lip,  
Th' ambrosial lip of love, thou might'st behold;  
Here, purple plumbs their unctionous amber weep,  
And mellow pears their shapely size unfold;

Here, pensile balls of vegetable gold,  
With blushes blent, thro' the fresh foliage peep;  
At once luxurious to the sense, and sight,  
Here loaded boughs with nodding head invite.

The nascent rose join'd, prodigal of sweets,  
The gaudy tulip, in rich brodered vest;  
Here, too, th' ambitious, flaunting sun-flower greets  
Her garish Lord, with wide expanded breast;  
Nor wanted crocus coy, in saffron drest;  
Harebell, affecting most obscure retreats,  
And all of leaf and verdure, myriads more,  
Each alley, emerald-pav'd, that perfled o'er.

The poet lies entranced by 'that soft nigroneisie, balmy sleep' amidst this delightful scene, when a spirit of the sylphid-race, descending in a veil of roses, woos him to her aerial cell, and relates the several occupations, the many gambols, and mischievous amusements in which these rosicrucian beings are engaged.

Some in the halo's humid circle play,  
What time the pale-ey'd moon is faintly seen,  
Some o'er the beauteous lunar rainbow stray,  
Shifting their chequer'd change of colours sheen,

Better to grace their silver-shafted queen;  
And, sometimes, more irregularly gay,  
Portentous, in the glowing north they rise,  
And wave their boreal banners o'er the skies.

Some the refulgent chariot of the sun  
Pursue, descending to its western goal ;  
Some, courier-like, from distant planets run,  
Some the huge comet's fiery wonder roll ;  
Some patient sentry keep at either pole ;  
And others, by harmonious witch'ry won,  
All heav'n responsive to the dulcet sound,  
Turn the smooth spheres on tuneful axis  
round.

In every twinkling star, serenely shine  
Those white-rob'd ministers of placid bliss ;  
Important is their toil, more pleasing mine ;—  
To point the transport of the thrilling kiss,  
Ne'er known the maiden's throbbing heart to  
miss,

I anneal the drop that falls on Feeling's  
shrine ;  
To soothe the lover's soul when frenzy-  
fraught ;  
Or lift sublime the poet's towering thought."

The two following poems, "the Pleasures of Poesy" and "the Enthusiast" are written in the stanza of Spenser. The latter has a great deal of that wildness and impetuosity which the subject demanded. The miscellaneous pieces are of various merit, and altogether form a collection illustrative of the genius and fancy of the author.

ART. XXI. *Cottage Pictures; or the Poor: a Poem, with Notes and Illustrations.* By Mr. PRATT, &c. Second Edition. 4to. pp. 83.

THE subject of this poem does honor to the feelings of the author, and the execution is creditable to his abilities.

"A sudden revolution, the most dire, perhaps, of any in this revolutionary age, has taken place in the state of the Poor. Progressive improvements have been made in agriculture; the benefits of which are almost entirely lost to the most numerous and useful part of the community; while individuals only have been enriched. The poor-rates have, in the mean time, increased, to the dissatisfaction of the rich, and nearly to the ruin of the middle classes; while the wants and miseries of the peasantry, with some few exceptions, which will be particularized, have accumulated in the proportion that plans have been formed for their relief. This argues a very wrong policy and management somewhere. In the midst of a long and afflictive illness, the author has spared no pains to trace the effects of this deep national grievance to its source: and he is told, by those, who by their situation and circumstances, are allowed to be most competent to the subject, that he has so done in the following pages, in which, however, there is no one passage founded upon a fiction; of course the Poem is excluded from one of the grand privileges of poesy."

A few years since the peasantry of this country was strong, healthy, and happy: they are now, according to Mr. Pratt, feeble, sickly, and care-worn; plenty once reigned in those cottages which are now the abode of hunger and wretchedness. To describe the causes and effects of so sudden and deplorable a change, to direct the attention of the rich to the miseries of the poor, to call forth their feelings, to excite their compassion,

and rouse them to immediate and effectual exertions for their relief, these are the objects which it is the purpose of the poem to accomplish. It begins with an invocation to the spirits of Pity and Sympathy, and proceeds to give some antithetic views of the state of the Cottage Poor in no very distant times, their sports, their labours, and their loves, and of the desponding peasantry of the country at the present hour.

Sincerely do we hope, and much are we disposed to believe that the latter picture is overcharged: Mr. Pratt may nevertheless have drawn it from life; but a few sketches, faithfully taken, indeed, but selected among the darkest scenes of misery, must not be mistaken for representations of the general aspect of the country. However the object is to excite compassion, and the means are perhaps sanctified in the end.

We shall be tempted to make copious extracts from this poem: our author sometimes reminds us of Goldsmith; a more chaste and classic model he could not have placed before him. Without flattering Mr. P. that he rivals the plaintive well-modulated numbers of that accomplished writer, we do not hesitate to allow that he has caught some few of his tones. In Goldsmith it would be difficult to find a flat prosaic line: every couplet has received its last polish. In the poem before us we could select a great many harsh lines, dactylic terminations, and ill-assorted rhymes. We shall point out some passages in which the descriptive powers of Mr. Pratt are exerted with great success.

" Ah lead me back, ye muses, to the bower,  
Just as the swain return'd at evening hour,  
Felt the soft dew descending on his head,  
When twilight's mantle o'er his cot was spread.  
And tho' perchance, soft mists obscur'd the place,  
The home-way path, the rustic's heart could trace,

Clear thro' a thousand vapours of the night,  
Affection saw it, and still view'd it bright,  
A leading star it glow'd within his breast,  
Shone on his hearth, and beam'd upon his rest.

Then was the poor man rich, and fondly smil'd,

As in the varied forms of wife and child,  
His cultur'd orchard, and his little field,  
His ten-fold joys, and treasures were reveal'd.  
The day shut in, he own'd a lord no more,  
Freedom began, and servitude was o'er;  
At night enfranchis'd, he resum'd his throne,  
And reign'd o'er hearts as happy as his own;  
There sat the harmless monarch of his shed,  
Peace crown'd his slumbers, and love blest his bed,

And tho', at morn's return, no monarch he,

Awhile laid by his little sov'reignty,  
Again at early eve he gently sway'd,  
Alternate rul'd, was govern'd and obey'd."

The description which immediately follows of a peasant's going out in the morning to a fair, and returning home with keepsakes, &c. is exceedingly well executed, but is too long for transcription. These amusements and comforts are now, according to the poet, no longer within the reach of the cottagers: the following is a gloomy picture of their present state. The fourth line limps sadly: some of those which succeed are highly poetical.

" And hark to yonder agonizing cries!  
By famine struck the mountain peasant lies;  
Spent is his force that us'd the winds to brave,  
And dead are half his limbs e'er in the grave,  
Able no more to earn their daily bread,  
The shiv'ring children cling about his bed;  
The rose has wither'd on the daughter's cheek,  
Yet the poor father's heart wants force to break;  
Languid and faint life lingers in his veins,  
And what the tongue conceals, the look explains;  
The voice exhausted feebly heaves a sigh,  
And want has dug his cavern in the eye;  
On childhood's polish'd brow sits wrinkled care,  
And in the mother's bosom broods despair."

In the second part the poet proceeds to exhibit the distresses of the middle classes of mankind as no less general or afflictive: the wretched situation of a gentleman reduced from competence to comparative beggary is strikingly illustrated! We must here be allowed to make one short quotation more.

" Ye happier beings! blest in fortune's store,  
On mimic ruins waste your wealth no more;  
Your mould'ring monuments no more repair,

Far other ruins henceforth be your care.  
Search for the failing towers of human kind,  
And save that noblest edifice, the mind;  
The central column of the dome defend,  
Nor let the glory of the fabric bend:  
The fabric nods! ah, leave your barren walls,  
And prop the throne of reason ere it falls!  
Such be th' improvements of thy vast domain;

Without them, parks and palaces are vain.  
O be the generous architects, to plan  
How best to renovate decaying man;  
The fragments gather, where in dust they lie,

And heav'n shall bless the work of charity."

We must now take leave of extract and withdraw encomium. Mr. Pratt proceeds to enquire into the causes of the melancholy situation to which the peasantry are reduced: an extravagant picture is drawn of a large farmer and his wife, the bacchanalian orgies of the one, the dresses, routs, and dances of the other. The peasant is instructed to believe that the luxuries of the *Gentleman and Lady Farmer* are wrung from his ill-paid labour. Next follows a dull, prosaic common-place abuse of monopolists, jobbers, meal-men, "corn-conspirators," &c. making a most "idle tale,"

—full of sound and fury,  
Signifying nothing.

The third part is devoted to an examination of remedies: the erection of cottages, annexation of land, and a general system of kindness and encouragement, are warmly recommended, and individual philanthropists are held up for imitation.

The vein of poetry which runs through the first book, is lost in the latter part of the second: we discover it again here and there in the third, but it is neither rich nor unbroken.

ART. XXII. *Love: an Allegory. To which are added several Poems and Translations,*  
By JAMES LAWRENCE. 12mo. pp. 64.

THERE is as much poetry in the argument of this allegory as there is in the allegory itself: the first half dozen lines are as good as any:

"With Jove my song begin!  
As Jove was once in merry pin,  
It matters not the reason why,  
His majesty was willing to bestow  
A gift on men below,  
And bade RELIGION quit the sky.  
Religion was of all his daughters,  
The highest in the father's grace,"  
And therefore doubly fit to instruct the  
human race  
How to merit better quarters."

The miscellaneous poems have a great deal of familiarity in their style without any playfulness. The following is a neatly-turned compliment:

ART. XXIII. *Original Poems and Translations, particularly Ambra, from Lorenzo de' Medici. Chiefly by* SUSANNA WATTS. 8vo. pp. 144.

THE Poem towards which our attention is "particularly" directed is a translation from the original of Lorenzo the Magnificent, to whom Mr. Roscoe has awarded the high honour of having in a great measure rescued Italian literature from the state of deep degradation into which it had sunk in the fourteenth and beginning of the fifteenth centuries. This poem, or as Mr. Roscoe calls it, this beautiful Ovidian allegory, is entitled *Ambra*, after the name of a small island, formed by the river Ombrone, near Lorenzo's villa at Poggio Cajano, the destruction of which is the subject of the poem. This favorite spot, he proceeds to inform us, Lorenzo "had improved and ornamented with great assiduity, and was extremely delighted with the retired situation and romantic aspect of the place. He was not, however, without apprehensions that the rapidity of the river might destroy his improvements; which misfortune he endeavoured to prevent by every possible precaution; but his cares were ineffectual: an inundation took place, and sweeping away his labours, left him no consolation but that of immortalizing his *Ambra* in the poem now alluded to."

Much of that delicate and minute observation of natural objects which paint-

TO  
H. S. H. THE ABBESS OF GANDERSHEIM,  
SISTER TO THE DUKE OF BRUNSWICK,  
ON RETURNING TO HER  
"HERDER'S DISSERTATION ON THE ORIGIN  
OF LANGUAGE."

"Princess, reject the hardy sceptic's plan,  
For language, sure, was God's first gift to man,  
E'en Eve, the mother of the human race,  
Like thee expressed her thoughts with native grace;  
And, could he hear one single word of thine,  
Herder would own the power of speech divine.

But ah! from Eve one useful lesson learn,  
And from the dangerous path of knowledge turn.

If sad remorse shook Eve's too daring soul,  
Who but one apple from the garden stole,  
What dreadful punishment must wait on thee,  
Who rob each branch of the forbidden tree?"

ers only and poets are in the habit of making, and with which the works of Lorenzo abound, is scattered through this elegant piece: how carefully these poetic beauties have been preserved by the translator will best be seen by the selection of a few couplets:

"Fled is that season, which, with ripening ray,  
To blushing fruit matur'd the blossoms gay;  
No more the leaf its airy station keeps,  
But strews the impoverish'd groves in withering heaps;  
Low rustling if, with hasty brushing feet,  
The desolated path some hunter beat:—  
No more in safety lurks the beast of prey,  
The dry disorder'd leaves his track betray."

Nothing can be more striking and characteristic than these images. Again; the peculiar foliage of the olive is well preserved in the following lines:

"On some sweet sunny hill the olive grows,  
Now green, now silver, as the Zephyr blows,  
Distinguish'd high o'er all the sylvan scene,  
Propitious Nature feeds its constant green."

The following is a very picturesque description of the flight of cranes.

"In beauteous order ranged, with shrill-toned cries,  
The Cranes, a wondrous squadron, sweep the skies;  
The last with neck extended strange to view,  
The trackless journey of the first pursue."

We could cull a great many beautiful passages, but would rather refer our readers to the volume. Among the minor poems, the "Complaint of the Genius of the Flowers," (an elegy on the

death of the plants in the severe winter of 1798) and an "Autumnal Scene," both by Miss Watts, are distinguishable for harmony of numbers, and delicacy of sentiment.

ART. XXIV. *Calliope; a Collection of the most celebrated Songs, Catches, Glee's, Airs, Duets, Trios, &c. now singing at all Places of public Entertainment, respectfully inscribed to Mrs. Billington.* Small 8vo. pp. 226.

OUR singing days are over: and if we do not enter so much into the spirit of these things now as we did five and twenty years ago, we can only lament in

the words of an old ballad

"Oh the days when I was young,  
How I laughed, and danced, and sung, &c."

ART. XXV. *Poetry, by the Author of Gebir.* 8vo. pp. 64.

THE work to which the author of this little volume refers as a test of his abilities, will be remembered by few of our readers. It is a narrative poem upon a wild and incoherent subject, aptly called *Gebir*, said a man of wit, *quasi gibberish*. The author said in his preface, "if there are now in England ten men of taste and genius who will applaud my poem, I declare myself fully content: I will call for a division; I shall count a majority." In this modest estimate of public taste, he rightly calculated the number of his admirers. His story is related in language so involved and difficult that few could penetrate its meaning, and they who did, perhaps over-rated its merits in proportion to the difficulty they had overcome in discovering them. Its merits, however, were of uncommon excellence. The mine was dark, and the ore lay deep, but there was ore of sterling value.

The *Gebir* was published in 1798. We opened the present volume with high expectations, trusting that five years had matured the taste of the author. We will examine it patiently, and fairly exemplify its beauties and defects.

The first poem is entitled the Story of CRYSAOR.

"Come, I beseech ye, muses! who, retired  
Deep in the shady glens by Helicon,  
Yet know the realms of ocean, know the laws  
Of his wide empire, and throughout his  
court

Know every nymph, and call them each by  
name;

Who from your sacred mountain see afar  
O'er earth and heaven, and hear and memo-  
rate

The crimes of men and counsels of the gods;  
Sing of those crimes, and of those counsels,  
sing

Of Gades sever'd from the fruitful main;  
And what befel, and from what mighty hand,  
Crysaor, sovereign of the golden sword."

When Jupiter had quelled the Titans,  
Crysaor remained still in Gades, he hurl-  
ed no weapons against heaven.

—"but swoln with pride  
Stood towering from the citadel; his spear  
One hand was rested on, and one with rage  
Shut hard, and firmly fixt against his side;  
His frowning visage flush'd with insolence  
Rais'd up oblique to Heaven."

He insults Heaven, and asks why he  
should adore Jove, when he himself is  
adored by millions, and he complains  
that when he had stood fronting the lus-  
tre of the sun, and at noon was forced to  
turn his eyes downward, his very shadow  
almost disappeared.

"Restore it, or by earth and heaven I swear  
With blood enough will I fascinate  
The cursed incantation."

"The smile of disappointment and disdain  
Sat sallow on his pausing lip half-closed."

The impiety was not immediately pu-  
nished. Heaven continued to shine, and  
Crysaor still tyrannized over the land.  
But at length the Thunderer

—"now mankind  
Criminal mostly for enduring crimes,  
Provok'd his indignation,"

called upon Neptune to destroy the last  
of the monstrous race

"Crysaor, sovereign of the golden sword,  
Still hails as brethren men of stouter heart,  
But wise confederate ships Phlegrean fields.  
No warrior he, yet who so fond of war?  
Unfeeling, scarce ferocious. Flattery's drape,  
He fancies that the gods themselves are his.  
Impious—but most in prayer."



Neptune at this intreaty drove the waves against the promontory, struck one blow, and destroyed "the sacrilege."

"Nations of fair Hesperia! lo o'erthrown  
Your peace-embracing war-inciting king!  
Ah! thrice twelve years, and longer, ye endured

Without one effort to rise higher, one hope  
That heaven would wing the secret shaft  
aright,

The abomination!—hence 'twas Jove's command

That, many hundred, many thousand more,  
Freed from one despot, still from one unfreed,  
Ye crouch unblest at Superstition's feet,  
Her hath he sent among ye; her, the pest  
Of men below, and curse of Gods above:  
Her's are the last worst tortures they inflict  
On all who bend to any kings but them.

Born of Sicannus, in the vast abyss  
Where never light descended, she survived  
Her parent, he Omnipotence defied,  
But thunderstruck fell headlong from the clouds;

She tho' the radiant ether overpower'd  
Her eyes, accusom'd to the gloom of night,  
And quench'd their lurid orbs, Religion's  
helm

Assuming, vibrated her Stygian torch,  
Till thou, Astra! tho' behind the Sire's  
Broad egis, tremblest on thy golden throne."

This is a poem wherein "more is  
"meant than meets the ear." The  
reader who examines well this famous  
"antique history," will easily

"By certain signs here set in sondrie place"  
discover the esoteric meaning.

Some clue to this mystery may be  
found in a note upon slavery annexed to  
the poem.

It is not many years since the inquisition in Portugal offered to permit the publication of a work which contained certain heretical opinions, provided the author would publish it in Latin. While the poet involves his meaning in such allegory and such language, he may continue to publish without danger of comments by the Attorney General.

Some extracts follow from a poem of greater length, called the Phocæans. To these the following advertisement is prefixed.

"The Phocæans were a nation of Ionia, who founded several cities, in Italy, in Sicily, in Corsica, and in Gaul. Their war with a prince of the latter country, where they afterwards built Marseilles, is the main subject of this poem. The circumstances described

in the following extracts are historically true. On leaving Phocæa, which Harpagus, the general of Cyprus, was besieging, and who, afraid of driving them to despair, is said to have connived at their departure, they threw into the sea a mass of burning iron, and swore that, until it should float unextinguished, on the surface, they never would return. Their bravery in the cause of liberty, they thought, would entitle them to the protection of the Grecian states. But, what they in vain expected, from their allies, was afforded them at the court of Argantho-nius in Spain. In their voyage to Gaul they were attacked by the Carthaginians, whom, though unequal in number of ships, they totally defeated. This gives the poem its first important movement; but as there is no allusion to it here, it is sufficient just to mention it. The whole of their history, that is extant, may be comprised in a very few lines. I shall be able to blend with it some actions of other nations, with which, though they were relatively, they were not immediately concerned. These nations will promote the catastrophe, and heighten the interests of the poem. But, I have not perfected my plan. It even is possible that the greater part of the first extract may be rejected. This, instead of a reason for withholding it, is a very sufficient one, with me, for its insertion. The celebrated historian of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire* has informed us how many times he recommenced that work, before he acquired the *key and tone* most proper for his performance; and we all recollect the story of a painter, no less celebrated, who exhibited one of his pictures for the express and sole purpose that the public might mark its defects. For my part, I wish to ascertain not merely whether the poetry be good, but whether it be wanted—whether so much of the Iberian affairs be proper in this place, on any condition? For the second I make no apology. Unless as an extract from an unpublished poem, it requires from me less solicitude than any thing else that I have ever written. The remainder I shall not continue, till I can visit the country where the scene is laid: since, for works of this nature, not poetry alone, but chorography too is requisite."

Nothing can be imagined more obscure in its arrangement and perplexed in language than these extracts. It was said of Gebir that the thoughts were connected by flea-skips of association, but Gebir was lucid when compared to these. This obscurity partly proceeds from a passion for compression. The author has continued to compress and correct till his language becomes like the contractions in old manuscripts, difficult or unintelligible; a kind of short hand which

may remind him of his own conceptions, but never can explain them to another. Another cause is the perpetual intrusion of the author himself, who interrupts the narrative by his aphorisms, and his opinions. Were these so connected with the story as to form a vital part of the poem, there would then be merit in the skilful intertexture. But this is by no means the case: it is always an ambition to be philosophizing, always the effort of thought, never the flow of feeling or the flush of passion. A third cause is the author's love of presenting visual ideas to the reader, a power which he eminently possesses, but which he most injudiciously exerts. Grey-hound like, whatever he sees he is sure of, but he runs astray after every thing. The foregrounds of his pictures have a French floridness, which lessens the effect of the chief figures. The following scrap will exemplify these faults.

———"The boy Amphyllion  
Stood waiting for the broken garlands, borne  
No farther by the current; forward lean'd  
The busy idler, under where he stood  
Sweeping them gently on with willow wand.  
He thought, full sure he thought—such  
eagerness

His one protended and one poising hand,  
Half-open lips, and steady lustrous eyes,  
Show'd plainly—safe arrived ere others woke,  
To deck his mother's door, and be forgiven.  
Sycus more weary, on his arm inclined,  
Sat peevish by, and, often of the way  
Complaining, yet unwilling to arise,  
Bit acid sorrels from their juicy stalk.

'Lo yonder' he exclaim'd 'the morning  
dawns

Among the junipers, and ill forbodes  
Beside such dampness when no dew has  
fallen—

This bursting glare, while all around is shade.  
Can it be morning? no: *there* mornings rise:  
It is not morning; and the moon is gone;  
It cannot be the moon: 'too rightly judged  
Poor Sycus; nearer now flashed redder light  
Than rising moons give reapers going home;  
Now nearer, and now nearer yet, approach'd,  
Voices and armour glimmer'd thro' the  
glade;

Next, helmets were distinguish'd; lastly  
vests

Black afar off, their proper crimson shew'd.  
They tremble at the sight, and deadly drops  
Trickle down ankles white like ivory.  
Pity and mercy they implore—the soul  
Presages ere it reasons—they implore  
Pity and mercy ere the enemy's hand  
Seizes them, ere, in painful bondage bent,  
Behind them hang so helplessly their own.

Uprooted smells the hazel underwood,  
The verdant pile ascends; up: the top  
Branches of pitch-tree are arranged, across,  
And cover'd with their leaves: the cymbals  
ring;

The tymbrels rough, and doubling drums  
reply.

Music, when thunders arm her heavenly  
voice,  
May rouse most other passions—she may  
rouse

The Furies from their deep Tartarean dens,  
Or wander from her unseen orbit, fixt  
The middlemost of endless myriads—  
Terror she stops amid his wild career,  
Engages, and subdues. Amphyllion's heart  
Flutter'd indeed, but flutter'd less confined,  
He trembled more, yet dreaded less: the boy  
Would now with rapturous violence have  
rubbed

His palms to sparkling, were they but un-  
bound,

His head he would have nestled in the lap  
Of Fortune, when he found the budded  
spoils

Lie innocent, squared well, and garland-hung.  
He laughed at their device; he look'd around,  
And saw the knife, but sought the sacrifice.

Can you, ethereal powers! if any rule  
Above us or below, or if concern  
For human sins and sorrows touches you—  
Can you see, quivering, shrinking, shrivell-  
ing,

Lips without guile, and bosoms without gall,  
Nor pity, succour, save! alas, your will  
Was pleaded, and your presence was invoked.  
First, 'twas revenge—but, when 'twas done,  
'twas heaven!

When others rise in anger, men exclaim  
"Fierce furies urge them:" but when they  
themselves,

"Righteous inflexible Eumenides."

There are great beauties in this pas-  
sage, but the faults are very obvious.  
The story and the feeling are interrupted  
by misplaced minuteness and misplaced  
reasoning. When the boys are seized  
to be sacrificed we do not require to be  
told that their ankles were white like  
ivory, nor that the hazel underwood  
smelt upon which they were to be burnt.  
This is Dutch accuracy.

Some passages in these extracts are  
quite ludicrous. We are told that the  
harp with its

"gently agitating liquid airs  
"Melted the wayward shadow of disgrace."

Auguries are noticed in a very extra-  
ordinary manner.

"Who but the maniac then would strain  
his throat

And rack his heart beneath capricious birds,  
 And fear disaster from its bowell'd bed."

On the other hand single passages of uncommon beauty occur.

"Where faithless moonshine fill'd the abrupt abyss."

This line is characteristic of the author's picturesque powers. Again,

"beside the altar stood  
 The Sardin vases, gift of Cræsus, one  
 Of beaten silver, one of burnish'd gold,  
 Dazzling without, but dark from depth  
 within."

The smaller pieces have no peculiar merit. The author's Latin is more intelligible than his English, always classical, and in some instances of uncommon beauty, as in the following stanzas from his ode to Liberty.

"O quæ revisas arva Quiritium,  
 Collesque Tuscas et salices Padi,  
 Udusque fines Sirmionis,  
 Gramineasque vias Tarenti!  
 Quæ nunc Cauripum, nunc Arabum sinus,  
 Marisque rubri quæ penetras vada  
 Thracemque, Libertas, Getamque,  
 Degereremque fugis Britannum!  
 Ah quam fideli pectore te mea  
 Fovit juventus! quam patriæ pudet!  
 Sublustre quam sordet sacellum,  
 Quam veteres periere luci!  
 Quos nunc adibus? Hesperios viros,  
 Viros Iernæ? an pateram libet  
 Puram et salubrem implere ab Istri  
 Fontibus, exiguae Rheno?"

ART. XXVI. *The Poetical Register, and Repository of Fugitive Poetry for 1801.* 8vo.

THIS multifarious volume consists of several parts: original poetry; ancient poetry; fugitive poetry; criticisms on all the poetry published in 1801; poetical biography; miscellanies; a chronological list of living poets; and notices of works in hand.

In the first, and most important part, we find, as might be expected, flimsy productions of gentlemen authors, insipid compliments to persons of rank and eminence, careless effusions by writers of some name, and juvenile attempts by persons of none. The feebleness of this portion of the work, the editor himself appears, from a passage in his preface, to have felt, but hopes to succeed better in a second volume, when the work shall have risen in reputation. In this hope we join him most cordially.

One very spirited poem, entitled, "the

Sylvæ ruentis, fluminis additi,  
 Audire planctus—æreii lacus

Primum susurros, dein cacinnas,  
 Dein, fremitum, et rabiem, et ruinam  
 Utrinq; sparsam ab culmine rupium,  
 Ascendere inter, stare super, juvat:—  
 Qui magna consuescunt videre  
 Magna ferent, facientque magna.

So long a time has elapsed since the publication of Gebir, that as we have found the same fault seven in a higher degree in this volume, we now fear the author never will correct them. He evidently affects obscurity, and if he be not understood will console himself by supposing a want of understanding in the reader. But obscurity does not always imply profundity. Some rivers indeed are *dark from depth*, but the muddy stream is frequently shallow. If the poet be ambitious of becoming the English Lycophron, he has only to pursue his present system of composition: with his powers, his ambition ought to be of a better nature. Genius he assuredly possesses, and that in a high degree, but he must learn to feel more and to reason less. Let him study the great masters of narrative, he will find their narration continuous and perspicuous. He may see the effect of intricacy in Valerius Flaccus, a writer in many respects like himself, whose genius, great as it is, has not and cannot preserve him from neglect.

battle of Alexandria," and signed Alcæus, we perused with great pleasure, and are sorry that its length precludes our selection. Another piece, with the same signature, we shall give, as a very flattering specimen of the work.

" REMONSTRANCE TO WINTER.

Ah! why, unfeeling Winter, why  
 Still flags thy torpid wing?  
 Fly, melancholy season, fly—  
 And yield the year to Spring.

Spring,—the young cherubim of love,  
 An exile in disgrace,—  
 Flits o'er the scene, like Noah's dove,  
 Nor finds a resting place.

When on the mountain's azure peak,  
 Alights her fairy form,  
 Cold blow the winds,—and dark and bleak,  
 Around her rolls the storm.

If to the valley she repair,  
 For shelter and defence,  
 Thy wrath pursues the mourner there,  
 And drives her, weeping, thence.  
 She seeks the brook—the faithless brook,  
 Of her unmindful grown,  
 Feels the chill magic of thy look,  
 And lingers into stone.  
 She wooes her embryo flowers, in vain,  
 To rear their infant heads;  
 Deaf to her voice, her flowers remain  
 Enchanted in their beds.  
 In vain she bids the trees expand  
 Their green, luxuriant charms;  
 Bare in the wilderness they stand,  
 And stretch their withering arms.  
 Her favourite birds, in feeble notes,  
 Lament thy long delay;  
 And strain their little stammering throats,  
 To charm thy rage away.  
 Ah! why, usurping Winter, why  
 Still flags thy frozen wing?  
 Fly, unrelenting tyrant, fly—  
 And yield the year to Spring!"

Among the ancient poetry we do not find a single line worth reviving in the present abundance of verse. The fugitive poetry may boast of several pieces which we should quote with pleasure, did we not apprehend that they were *all* such as had previously appeared in print, which we know to be the case with many. The "criticisms" are all short, and appear, on the whole, just. The "biography" contains only Mrs.

Barbauld's memoirs of Mrs. Chapone, originally published in the *Monthly Magazine*. The "miscellanies" have little claim to their title, comprizing only a single letter from Miss Seward on Southey's *Thalaba*, concluding with a very singular and zealous defence of imperfect rhymes, which she considers as very unjustly stigmatized by *Reviewers*, because "after all, the fastidious rejection of every word which does not completely chime, produces a sameness of versification very cloying to the ear." She proceeds to quote many instances of bad rhyming from our most correct poets; as if the frequency of these negligencies were a sufficient proof, that they were not considered as blemishes by those whose indolence or haste indulged in them. The lines thus deformed, which she triumphantly cites for their harmony, are little to the purpose, for no one would assert, that an imperfect rhyme has power to destroy the *general* harmony of an otherwise beautiful couplet, which depends, we conceive, on the euphony of the syllables, and graceful flow of the measure, as in blank verse. At the same time, we think, that the imperfect rhyme, from the disappointment which it occasions, must injure, with every delicate ear, the effect of even the very charming lines adduced by Miss S. in support of her very novel theory.

#### ART. XXVII. *The Metrical Miscellany.*

THIS elegant collection of poems is understood to be presented to the public by Mrs. Riddell, the correspondent of Burns, whose warm admiration was excited by her taste and talents. A character of that unfortunate poet, drawn up by her hand, is to be found in Dr. Currie's life of Burns. The table of contents of this publication, exhibits a very attractive list of names; and had the poems here published, been all published for the first time, their value would have been great. We could at least wish, that in all cases where original matter is mixed with what is not so, some mark were given by which the reader might distinguish them. But, though not all new, the pieces are all pleasing, many of them possess great tenderness, ingenuity of thought, and delicate turns of expression. The col-

lection begins with a free translation of the *Idyllium of Macheus, on the death of Bion*, by the Hon. Henry Erskine, which is flowing and easy. *Imitations of Horace*, and *the Emigrant, an eclogue*, by the same author, follow; several pieces are by Mr. Roscoe, but those are already well known; one by Mr. Roscoe, junior. Several beautiful ones by Mr. W. Smyth and Mr. W. Spencer. Amongst those of the latter is *the Nursing of Love*, a very ingenious and elegant piece, but it should by all means have been mentioned, that it is translated from the French. It is indeed an imperfect translation, for Mr. Smyth has not given us the latter part of it, the *Revival of Love*, and has left out a verse or two of it in the former part. The *Directions* to a Porter, anonymous, are extremely pretty; they are as follow:

"Thou faithful guardian of these peaceful walls,  
Whose zealous care protects thy master's gate ;

If any stranger at this mansion calls,  
I'll tell thee who shall enter, who shall wait.

If Fortune, blindfold goddess, chance to knock,

Or proud Ambition lure me to her arms,  
Shut, shut the door, good John, quick turn the lock,

And shield thy master from their syren charms.

If sober Wisdom hither deigns to roam,  
Nor let her in, nor send her quite away :  
Tell her, at present I am not at home,  
But hope she'll call again another day !

If at my door a beauteous boy be seen,  
His little feet have oft my threshold trod,  
You know the offspring of the Cyprian Queen,  
His air—without his bow, bespeaks the god.

His gentle smiles admittance ever win,  
Tho' oft deceiv'd—I prize the fond deluder ;

Morn, noon, and night, be sure you let him in,  
For Love, dear Love, is never an intruder."

The following song, by Miss C. is simple, tender, and pathetic.

"The tears I shed must ever fall,  
I mourn not for an absent swain,  
For thought may past delights recall,  
And parted lovers meet again.  
I weep not for the silent dead,  
Their toils are past, their sorrows o'er ;  
And those they lov'd their steps shall tread,  
And death shall join to part no more.

Tho' boundless oceans roll'd between,  
If certain that his heart is near,  
A conscious transport glads each scene,  
Soft is the sigh, and sweet the tear.  
Even when by Death's cold hand removed,  
We mourn the tenant of the tomb,  
To think that e'en in death he loved,  
Can gild the horrors of the gloom.

But bitter, bitter are the tears  
Of her who slighted love bewails ;  
No hope her dreary prospect cheers,  
No pleasing melancholy hails.  
Her's are the pangs of wounded pride,  
Of blasted hope, of wither'd joy ;  
The flattering veil is rent aside,  
The flame of love burns to destroy.

In vain does Memory renew  
The hours once ting'd in transport's dye ;  
The sad reverse soon starts to view,  
And turns the past to agony.  
Ev'n time itself despairs to cure  
Those pangs to every feeling due ;  
Ungenerous youth ! thy boast how poor,  
To win a heart—and break it too !

No cold approach, no alter'd mien,  
Just what would make Suspicion start,  
No pause the dire extremes between ;  
He made me blest, and broke my heart.  
From hope, the wretched's anchor, torn,  
Neglected, and neglecting all ;  
Friendless, forsaken, and forlorn,  
The tears I shed must ever fall !"

Many other names, known either in the literary or the fashionable world, appear in this collection ; and it is also enriched with several poems from the fair editor herself, the whole composing a chaplet of poetical bloom and fragrance, which no person of taste need be ashamed of having employed her leisure hours in weaving.

ART. XXVIII. *The poetical Works of Edmund Spenser, from the Text of J. Upton, with a Preface, biographical and critical. By Dr. Aikin, M.D.* 6 vols. about pp. 2000.

THE advertisement to this publication informs us, that the object of it is, "to give a new edition of Dr. Johnson's English Poets, improved in point of selection, and enriched with certain additions." Agreeably to this purpose, some of the minor poets, whom Johnson himself "has characterised by mediocrity and imperfection, are rejected, and their places supplied by later performances of acknowledged merit. This has been done with the less scruple, as the choice seems to have been made by the bookseller rather than the critic." The present editor proposes to subjoin, in a separate form, some remarks of his

own, to the lives written by Dr. Johnson, and to continue his plan by giving biographical and critical prefaces to all the new articles. They could not be in better hands. Great as is the name of Johnson, his decisions were often the offspring of caprice ; and we do not imagine the public will be a loser by the critical balance being in the hands of one, whose compositions are always marked by sobriety of judgment, no less than by delicacy of taste. The volumes now before us, have supplied an omission which was very unaccountable ; for, that a collection of British poets should be begun from a period



which excludes one of the most celebrated of the number, must be matter of surprise, yet this was the case with regard to *Spenser*, who "drank at the pure well head of poesie." The present collection, therefore, begins with the *Faerie Queen*, printed from the text of Upton, with a glossary prefixed. The preliminary dissertation by Dr. Aikin, contains the life of the poet, carefully collected from the scanty materials afforded by a few traditionary notices concerning him, and from circumstances incidentally alluded to in his works; and also a very elegant and judicious critique on his productions. Of these the *Shepherd's Calendar* was first published, "which, though it obtained the applause of Sidney, and seems immediately to have given its author a rank among the esteemed poets of the time, would probably, in the progression of critical taste, have been consigned to oblivion, had it not been borne up by the fame of the *Faerie Queen*;" a poem of most singular construction, containing allegory within allegory, "which uniformity of fiction would have produced a tiresome sameness in the action, had not the poet possessed that uncommon fertility of invention and force of description, which are his characteristics." Of the form of stanza which he adopted, we are told, that it favoured

redundancy of style, and that not merely in words but in ideas, and that it has led the poet to all kinds of unjustifiable licence, in order to produce the requisite *tail* of rhyme." Yet the stanza of *Spenser*, it is observed, when well executed, "has a fulness of melody, and a sonorous majesty, scarcely equalled by any other English measure." The *language* of the *Faerie Queen* is cast in a more antique mould than that of the age in which the writer lived: this has often a bad effect. "The English of Edward III. was too far distant from that of Elizabeth, to admit of an easy combination; and as *Spenser* could not avoid making the substance of his style of the staple of his own age, the intermingled threads of Chaucer, show like spots and stains, rather than agreeable variegations." On the whole, the editor concludes, that this poem, though one of the most capital productions of the English muse, "will not often be read through, but that detached parts will give pleasure after repeated perusals, and the whole be valued as a rich storehouse of invention, resembling some of the remaining edifices of that age, which still astonish by their magnificent profusion of varied, though partly fantastic ornament." We have only to add, that the typographical part is executed in a style of suitable elegance.

ART. XXIX. *Poems, by Mrs. OPIE.* Foolscap 8vo. pp. 188.

THE talents and taste of Mrs. Opie, which have long been admired in the extended circle of her acquaintance, are not now first to be made known to the world. Her interesting tale of *the Father and Daughter*, published a short time since, evinced her turn for the pathetic. It was accompanied with a few poems, which are now separated from the tale, and reprinted in this publication, along with several new ones. Their characteristic merit is pathos and sentiment; the verse is easy, but negligent; the measure flowing, but not rich in harmony. Many of these pieces, if the author thought proper to bestow that attention and patient labour, without which no degree of genius can rise to distinction, might be polished into higher poetic excellence, but the heart alone could dictate such stanzas as the following.

THE DYING DAUGHTER TO HER MOTHER.

"Mother! when these unsteady lines  
Thy long averted eyes shall see,  
This hand that writes, this heart that pines,  
Will cold, quite cold, and tranquil be.  
That guilty child, so long disowned,  
Can then, blest thought! no more offend;  
And, shouldst thou deem my crimes atoned,  
O deign my orphan to befriend:—  
That orphan, who with trembling hand  
To thee will give my dying prayer;—  
Canst thou my dying prayer withstand,  
And from my child withhold thy care?  
O raise the veil which hides her cheek,  
Nor start her mother's face to see,  
But let her look thy love bespeak,—  
For once that face was dear to thee.  
Gaze on,—and thou'lt perchance forget  
The long, the mournful lapse of years,  
Thy couch with tears of anguish wet,  
And e'en the guilt which caused those  
tears.

And in my pure and artless child  
Thou'lt think her mother meets thy view;  
Such as she was when life first smiled,  
And guilt by name alone she knew.

Ah! then I see thee o'er her charms  
A look of fond affection cast;  
I see thee clasp her in thine arms,  
And in the present lose the past.

But soon the dear illusion flies;  
The sad reality returns;  
My crimes again to memory rise;  
And, ah! in vain my orphan mourns:

Till suddenly some keen remorse,  
Some deep regret, her claims shall aid,  
For wrath that held too long its course,  
For words of peace too long delayed.

For pardon (most, alas! denied  
When pardon might have snatched from  
shame)  
And kindness, hadst thou kindness tried,  
Had checked my guilt, and saved my fame.

And then thou'lt wish, as I do now,  
Thy hand my humble bed had smoothed,  
Wiped the chill moisture off my brow,  
And all the wants of sickness soothed.

For, oh! the means to sooth my pain  
My poverty has still denied;  
And thou wilt wish, ah! wish in vain,  
Thy riches had those means supplied.

Thou'lt wish, with keen repentance wrung,  
I'd closed my eyes, upon thy breast  
Expiring, while thy faltering tongue  
Pardon in kindest tones expressed.

O sounds which I must never hear!  
Through years of woe my fond desire!  
O mother, spite of all most dear!  
Must I, unblest by thee, expire?

Thy love alone I call to mind,  
And all thy past disdain forget,—  
Each keen reproach, each frown unkind,  
That crushed my hopes when last we met.

But when I saw that angry brow,  
Both health and youth were still my own?  
O mother! couldst thou see me now,  
Thou wouldst not have the heart to frown.

But see! my orphan's cheek displays  
Both youth and health's carnation dies,  
Such as on mine, in happier days,  
So fondly charmed thy partial eyes.

Grief o'er her bloom a veil now draws,  
Grief her loved parent's pang to see;  
And when thou think'st upon the cause,  
That paleness will have charms for thee.

And thou wilt fondly press that cheek,  
Bid happiness its bloom restore,  
And thus in tenderest accents speak,  
"Sweet orphan, thou shalt mourn no  
more."

But wilt thou thus indulgent be?  
O! am I not by hope beguiled?  
The long, long anger shown to me,  
Say, will it not pursue my child?

And must she suffer for my crime?  
Ah! no;—forbid it, gracious Heaven!  
And grant, O grant! in thy good time,  
That she be loved, and I forgiven!"

We wish also to point out, with particular approbation, *the Virgin's first Love*, some of the songs addressed to *Henry*, and, for the moral sentiment, rather than the poetry, *the Epistle to a Friend on New-year's Day*. We find, in the contents, no mark to distinguish the new pieces from those which had been published before, a notice which we think ought always to be given. Mrs. Opie has also given the public, *An Elegy on the late Duke of Bedford*. This piece, we are compelled to say, must derive all its interest from the melancholy event which gave rise to it.

ART. XXX. *Verses, social and domestic.* By GEORGE HAY DRUMMOND, A. M.  
Foolscap 8vo. pp. 188.

THESE verses are entitled social and domestic; and in the domestic and social circle, where every relative connexion of the author's was known, and every incidental allusion understood, we doubt not that they have given pleasure; but it would have been better, perhaps, for the credit of the author, if to that circle they had been confined. The sagacious reader will not anticipate any very interesting gratification from running over the table of contents. *To Laura, with a breast-pin of hair; the grateful Robin; on a root house; acrostic, &c.* is a bill of fare

that promises but meagre entertainment. If it were necessary to descend to particular criticism, we might condemn the use of *eloge* as an English word, the "friend's *eloge*." We might mention the carelessness of the translations which occur, as in the following lines from Sir Thomas More's elegant Latin verses on the qualities of a wife, which, in truth, are no translation at all.

"Sit illa vel modo  
Instructa literis,  
Vel talis ut modo  
Sit apta literis."

" May she be early versed in wisdom's lore,  
And daily anxious to increase her store."

Neither can we pass, without reprehension, the extreme inaccuracy in printing French, which often disgraces

our press, though seldom to such a degree as in this volume, where some very pretty verses on the death of Louis XVI. are scarcely to be understood from this cause.

ART. XXXI. *Contes, &c. de SEGUR L'AINE. 8vo. Paris.*

THE French, who in the higher walks of poetry are, by their own confession, inferior to many other nations, are excelled by none in the happy talent of saying light things with a grace and sprightliness which gives value to the most trifling production. They abound in ingenious turns of thought, in sentiment, in a happy choice of expression, and they know how, when they please, to suggest ideas of pleasure and gaiety, without the coarseness which less polished nations are apt to fall into. Voltaire, in his smaller pieces, Chaulieu, Favart, Le Chevalier de Boufflers, Bernis, and others, have given examples of this kind of poetry, and the productions before us are not unworthy to be joined in the same class. Mr. Segur was ambassador from France, to the court of Petersburg, and has long been known for his political, as well as his literary talents. At Petersburg he had the honour of being associated with the late empress, in the composition of the *Theatre de l'Hermitage de Catherine II.* a kind of partnership in which the lion's share is generally found to belong, not to the sovereign, but to the associates. This volume consists of *fables, tales, songs for a vaudeville society, les deux Genies*, a drama, and a number of small poems on different occasions. Among the fables is a very ingenious one on Cupid's changing wings with the trade winds, and another entitled *l'amour & le tems*. Several are addressed to the author's wife, and do equal honour to the delicacy and tenderness of his sentiments, and to his conjugal affection. The drama is flat; and one of the tales, *le Pistolet*, might have been left out to advantage, as it resembles those of La Fontaine more in its licence than in its wit. The songs are light and gay, and have much variety, and if some of the pieces are trifling, others have that vein of philosophical sentiment which the French know so well how to mix in the Horatian manner, with the praises of love and wine. On the whole, this volume becomes a very agreeable addition to what

may be called the fugitive pieces of the French Parnassus. The following is an example of exquisite tenderness and delicacy.

" Tendre mélancolie,  
Volupté du malheur,  
Loin de ma douce amie,  
Que j'aime ta langueur !  
Malheureux qui des larmes  
Ignore la douceur,  
Et méconnaît les charmes  
De la tendre douleur !

O sœur de la tendresse !  
O fille de l'amour !  
De ta douce tristesse  
Nourris-moi chaque jour ;  
D'une amante chérie  
Rappelle-mois les traits :  
Je n'ai plus, dans la vie,  
De bien que mes regrets.

An lever de l'aurore,  
Témoin de mes douleurs,  
Le soir, viens, sois encore  
Le témoin de mes pleurs !  
Pour calmer ma souffrance,  
Viens, recois mes soupirs !  
Ils tiennent dans l'absence,  
Lieu de tous les plaisirs.

Quand la belle Sylvie  
Fut sensible à mon feu,  
Ce fut ta rêverie  
Qui lui servit d'aveu ;  
J'ignorais sa foiblesse,  
Et je l'appris un jour,  
En voyant sa tristesse :  
Doux prélude d'amour !

D'un ruisseau le murmure,  
Le silence des bois,  
Des gazons la verdure,  
Du rossignol la voix.  
Par toi tout renouvelle  
Mille doux souvenirs :  
Plaisirs qu'on se rappelle,  
Sont encor des plaisirs.

Sentiment doux et tendre,  
Viens souvent me presser ;  
Pleurs que tu fais répandre,  
Sont bien doux à verser.  
Connait-on, sans souffrance  
Les plaisirs de l'amour ?  
Aurait-on, sans l'absence,  
Le bonheur du retour ?

Que ta lueur charmante  
Ajoute à mon bonheur!  
Que ta voix consolante  
Convient à ma douleur!  
De l' amant dans l' ivresse,  
De l' amant malheureux,  
Sois toujours la déesse!  
Qu'ils t'adorent tous deux!

O sœur de la tendresse!  
O fille de l' amour!  
De ta douce tristesse  
Nourris-moi chaque jour.  
Je te sounets ma vie,  
Je te livre mon cœur,  
Tendre mélancolie!  
Volupté du malheur!"

ART. XXXII. *The Works of Thomas Chatterton.* 8vo. 3 vols. pp. 500. 536. 537.

THE present is a complete edition of the works of Chatterton, including his forgeries, his acknowledged essays and poems, (a considerable number of which are here printed for the first time) and his correspondence. Dr. Gregory's life of this extraordinary, but most unprincipled youth, is prefixed: and the editor, (Mr. Southey) and Mr. Cottle, have contributed to the perfection of the publication, by various notes and judicious remarks.

To all the admirers, or rather adorers of Chatterton, Mr. Southey has rendered a valuable service, by presenting them with a handsome and entire collection of the works of their favourite: he has also, in conjunction with the publishers, Mess.

Longman and Rees, secured to the family of the poet, in the person of his sister, an interest in those works "which have hitherto been published only for the emolument of strangers." We hope that his benevolent exertions will meet with abundant success.

The best productions of the pen of Chatterton, are those that have blasted his moral character; we mean those which he endeavoured to pass upon the world, as having been written by Rowley: his satires and political pieces excite no interest, and are very faintly tinged with poetical colouring; nor do we think that the pieces which are peculiar to this edition, will add greatly to the fame of the author.

ART. XXXIII. *The Divina Comedia of Dante Alighieri; consisting of the Inferno, Purgatorio, and Paradiso. Translated into English Verse, with preliminary Essays, Notes, and Illustrations.* By the Rev. HENRY BOYD, A. M. Chaplain to the Right Hon. the Lord Viscount Charleville. 8vo. 3 vols. pp. about 400 in each vol.

THE *Divina Comedia* of Dante, is a poem, in our country at least, more admired than understood, more talked of than read. A few splendid passages are familiar to us; the well known fame of the author procures him an honourable place upon our shelves; but few, even among the admirers of Italian poetry, have fairly toiled through the number of cantos, not much short of an hundred, into which his work is divided. One principal reason of this, is his great obscurity. Though his poem is a wonderful effort of imagination, its interest is chiefly sustained by the satire which pervades it. He has done the same in verse, but with a larger licence, which Michael Angelo is said to have done in painting; and both his purgatory and his hell are filled with portraits. When a small state is agitated by contending factions, great virtues and great vices abound, and the spirit of party rages with peculiar violence. In such a period did Dante live; and every page of his work has a reference to characters then well known, and transactions then well

remembered. But the petty wars of the Italian States are little known among us; and even of the long warfare between the Guelphs and Ghibelines, history has only preserved to us the great outline. Even of the men of letters of those times (though thanks to the labours of Mr. Roscoe, and others, our acquaintance, with them is increasing,) we know much less than of the Greeks and Romans who lived so many centuries before them. For these reasons Dante cannot now be read without the continual aid of explanatory notes; and feeble is the interest we take either in a panegyric or a satire, when we first become acquainted with the object of it in a note. Dante is also obscure from the allegorical nature of his poem, and the mixture of popular mythology with school divinity, which even in his own time required a comment; and it is well known, that his country paid him the singular honour of establishing a professor's chair at Florence, for the sole purpose of expounding his *Divina Comedia*. Under all these discouragements

it is not surprising that no one has till now, given an English dress to a poem, which, even in the Italian, might be suspected to want interest. Versions have, indeed, been given of particular parts; and Mr. Hayley has with good success translated three cantos of the *Inferno*; but a complete version seemed to have been considered as a task irksome in the execution, and hazardous as to the success. Still the fame of Danté stands so high, that we naturally wish to know what those merits are, which have secured him a place among the first class of poets. Curiosity may with many, supply the want of interest, and a laudable zeal for the literature of his country, leads an Englishman to wish that all the capital works of other nations may be naturalized into his own language.

We hope therefore, Mr. Boyd will be found to have performed an acceptable service to the public, in the translation which he now presents to it. It is accompanied with valuable explanatory notes, a short life of the author taken from Hayley's notes, and preliminary essays, historical and critical, one to each volume. These latter are rambling, and contain many sentiments with which we cannot agree. We cannot agree with the translator, that the representations of Danté, coincide with the rational belief of the enlightened mind, no less than with the superstition of the vulgar; nor can we enter into his moral feelings when, in a comparison between Homer and Danté, he gives it as one reason of preference for the latter, that the resentment of Achilles is carried to such a savage excess, as prevents the reader from sympathising with him, and at the same time shews no repugnance to the views of the divine justice, exhibited in the horrible pictures of the *Inferno*. Mr. Boyd has an opinion on the *purgatorio*, which we cannot think in the least well founded, that the author meant to signify only the purifying punishments, and salutary trials of this world. The third essay is on Platonism; the ideas of Malbranche concerning the doctrine of seeing all things in God, and a dialogue from Plato's symposium on divine love; the whole illustrative of Danté's theological opinions. Indeed Mr. Boyd seems to have criticised his author rather as a theologian than as a poet, but, however many of these elucidations might have become the professor's chair at Florence,

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*we* in this country must consider him chiefly in the light of a poet. We turn with more satisfaction to investigate the merits of Mr. Boyd, in his arduous task of a translator, in the execution of which he is entitled to great praise. His measure is a stanza of six lines, in which the first two make a couplet, the third and sixth, the fourth and fifth rhyme. It is more flowing and agreeable than the interminable rhyme which Hayley has adopted from Danté, and which obliged him, as he says, to translate line by line. This conciseness Mr. Boyd has not attempted, his version is somewhat diffuse, a couplet of the original is sometimes expanded to three or four lines; now and then we meet with an uncouth word, as *elance*. Suspense often occurs used adjectively, as,

"*Suspense* I sought to shun the dubious war."

But these blemishes, as well as some occasional obscurity, may well be pardoned in a work of such length and labour.

As the original poem is but little read, it may be agreeable to our readers to follow the plan of it with some detail, through the medium of Mr. Boyd's translation. The whole of it passes in a kind of vision or trance. The author represents himself as in that period of his existence,

"When life had laboured up her midmost stage,

And, weary with her mortal pilgrimage,  
Stood in suspense upon the point of prime."

He then finds himself in a deep glen, beset with fierce wild beasts, a panther, a lion and wolf, which guard the pass, and make it impossible for him to proceed. As he is in this dilemma, he is accosted by the shade of Virgil, who offers to shew him another path out of the valley, and advises him not to attempt combating the formidable monsters that oppose his passage. He further informs him, that he is commissioned by a saint in heaven, Beatrice, the object of Danté's affection while she was upon earth, (an affection probably of the same Platonic cast as that of Petrarch for his Laura) to invite him to a progress through the three regions of hell, purgatory, and heaven, which were all to be laid open to his view.

By this allegory of the wild beasts,

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the poet probably meant to shadow out the political party that procured his banishment from France, and occasioned his quitting the management of public affairs, for the more retired pursuits of science and the muses. The Roman poet adds, that he is himself to be his guide through the two former regions, but not being able to enter heaven, as he had not the good fortune to be a christian, he is to be consigned to another conductor for that part of his progress. Danté expresses great affection and reverence towards the Mantuan bard, his poetical father, but is full of fears at the thoughts of so desperate an undertaking. Virgil endeavours to inspire him with courage, and leads the way,

"Down that Cimmerian vale with horror hung."

Here we come to the passage which has ever been considered as one of the most striking in the poem, the gate of hell and the inscription upon it. As Mr. Hayley has also translated this passage, we shall take the opportunity of comparing them, in order to assist our readers in forming an estimate of Mr. Boyd's version, after premising that we by no means choose it as one of the best versified in his work.

#### BOYD'S TRANSLATION.

"Thro' me, the newly-damn'd for ever fleet,  
In ceaseless shoals, to pain's eternal seat;  
Thro' me they march, and join the tortur'd crew,  
The mighty gulph offended justice made;  
Unbounded pow'r the strong foundation laid,  
And love, by wisdom led, the limits drew.

"Long ere the infant world arose to light,  
I found a being in the womb of night.  
Eldest of all—but things that ever last!—  
And I for ever last!—Ye heirs of hell,  
Here bid at once your ling'ring hope farewell,  
And mourn the moment of repentance past!"

#### HAYLEY.

"Thro' me you pass to mourning's dark domain,  
Thro' me to scenes where grief must ever pine;  
Thro' me to misery's devoted train,  
Justice and power in my great founder join,  
And love and wisdom all his fabrics rear;  
Wisdom above controul, and love divine.  
Before me, nature saw no works appear,

But works eternal; such was I ordain'd,  
Quit every hope all ye who enter here!  
These characters, where misty darkness reigned,  
High o'er a lofty gate I saw engraved."

The first thing to be noticed is, that eleven lines in one, the number of the original, answer to fifteen of the other. *The newly-damn'd* is a harsh expression, savouring of vulgarity: Hayley has it, *thro' me you pass*. It is evident how much both the translators wanted the impersonal pronoun, answering to the Italian *si* or the French *on*: *to pain's eternal seat*, is stronger, as well as nearer the Italian *eterno dolore*, than Mr. Hayley's, *to scenes where grief must ever pine*. On the other hand, the effect of the repetition of *per me*, is much weakened in Mr. Boyd's, by being interrupted by the second line, and one repetition suppressed: *perduta* is a stronger expression than *tortured*, for torture might have an end, but *perduta* suggests hopeless ruin; *devoted train* does not quite come up to it. In the three next lines, both translators depart from the construction of the original, in which the gate continues to speak in the first person; but Boyd seems to have the advantage in summing up the attributes; the third line gives the measure and end of punishment. *Wisdom above controul*, has no propriety; *power* is controuled, but not wisdom: *all his fabrics rear*, is a general assertion, and does not give the sense of *fecimi, made me*. The two next lines are obscure in the Italian; Mr. Hayley has been content with a literal translation, Mr. Boyd has attempted an explanatory one;—*and I for ever last*, has a much better effect than *such was I ordain'd*; but in the next lines, the force is greatly weakened in Mr. Boyd, by being dilated; so dreadful a sentence as the extinction of hope, could not strike more than by being told in the simplest words possible, and the *Lasciate ogni speranza voi che'ntrate*, leaves the mind under a soul harrowing impression, which is lost, we hardly know how, in Mr. Boyd's amplification. In the subsequent lines, the word *gate* or *portal*, would have been more appropriate than *arch*; a gate is the way to a place, an arch is not necessarily so. Having passed the gate, their way is along a steep descent, and the view of the infernal regions is spread before them.

"Thence, oh what wailings from the abject throng,  
Around the starless sky incessant rung!  
The short shrill shriek, and long resounding groan;  
The thick sob, panting thro' the cheerless air;  
The lamentable strain of sad despair,  
And blasphemy with fierce relentless tone!"

After seeing the punishment of the indolent, and those spirits who stood neutral in the rebellion of Satan, in which it is probable the poet means to stigmatise those who took neither side in the divisions of his native country, they come to the limbo of the heathen world: here Danté finds the souls of sages, poets, and philosophers, many of whom are enumerated; and here, Virgil tells him, is his own appointed abode; these undergo no positive punishment, and are even in a sort of Elysium, though of a pensive and shadowy cast. Virgil introduces his protégé, who is received with great respect. Danté asks if none of the antient world were in heaven. Virgil replies, that soon after he himself was arrived in these regions, a victorious chief, crowned with palm, arrived there, and led away with him in triumph, a numerous host of patriarchs and prophets. The travellers then descend to the second region, where they find the tribunal of Minos. As fast as he condemns the prisoner, a dragon, which is coiled about the breast of the judge, darts out and carries him away to his place of punishment, graduated according to the degree of his crimes. The travellers then see a number of shades, whirled about in a continual hurricane; these are the votaries of guilty love: Danté is allowed to call any of them whose story he wishes to know.

This canto concludes with the affecting story of Paulo and Francesca, whose passion was raised to its height by their reading a romance together. They next see the votaries of Epicurism, stretched in heaps on the borders of the gulph, and exposed to storms of hail and snow. Then the misers and prodigals, the former of whom are employed in rolling up hill, masses of metal; the latter in rolling them down again on the heads of their antagonists.

In the description of the horrors of the infernal regions, the poet has taken advantage of the furies, the Cerberus, and

Stygian pool of the antients, as well as whatever the received mythology of the times, and his own inventive fancy could add to them; the variety of his punishments is wonderful, and at once horrid and ludicrous. This invention was, no doubt, assisted by the dramatic representations in vogue at that time.

We find, by a note on 26th canto, that "in the year 1304, scenical representations were already in high repute at Florence. A nocturnal spectacle of this sort, which represented the torments of the damned, was shown in a sort of wooden theatre on the river Arno. The concourse was so great, that the temporary wooden bridges gave way, and a vast multitude was drowned; and such was the mutual hatred of the two factions, that each exultingly remarked of those of the opposite party who were killed, that they had made a transition from a fancied, to a real scene of torment." To a people so *preparée*, the various scenes of punishment which Danté sets before them, must have given more pleasure than, it is to be hoped, the modern reader will receive from such a delineation, though he cannot but admire the fancy displayed in them. One set (the Heresiarchs) are each inclosed in a tomb of red hot metal; among these he finds the souls of a pope and of an emperor, the tombs open, and he converses with their inhabitants; another set are enwrapped in fiery flames, in such a manner that each seems a walking pyramid of fire; some have their heads twisted behind them, so that they walk one way and look another; some appear at a distance as if in shining armour, but on a nearer approach, they are found to be wrapped in robes of melted metal; some are plunged up to the shoulders in the burning lake, while their feet quiver and dance above; these are the Simonists. Pope Nicholas the third, who is one of them, addresses Danté, mistaking him for Boniface the eighth, come to take his place.

"Shame of the papal chair, and art thou come,  
Hollow and dismal from the fiery tomb,  
He cried; a later doom the prophet told,  
But come, seducer of the spouse of God,  
Who ruled the Christian world with iron rod,  
Come, thine eternal revenues behold!"

He finds his mistake, but goes on to  
X x 2

prophecy, that after Boniface, Clement the fifth will succeed to the place. Indeed, Danté all along scruples not to lash the priests and monks, and the vices of the court of Rome. Besides the real indignation which he, no doubt, felt at their scandalous enormities, he was of the Ghibelline party, and as such, sufficiently disposed to expose them. Some of the punishments of the Inferno are appropriate; as the plunging tyrants and homicides in a sea of burning blood at different depths, according to the extent of their crimes; but in general, they rather terrify by their horror, and amuse by their variety, than satisfy the reason by any peculiar or just gradation, proportioned to the demerits of the sufferers. The poet severely lashes the crimes with which his native city was stained, and stigmatises many of his countrymen, both among the lettered and the great, as guilty of the most shameful vices; yet he expresses great sympathy and regard for many individuals whom he meets in this place of torment, and has many affecting interviews with his old companions and tutors. Virgil, his guide, protects him all along from the fury of the demons; and in order to traverse the various gulphs and regions of hell, they sometimes call in the aid of a centaur, and sometimes ride on the tail of a fiery dragon. In one of the regions he comes to a large waste covered with serpents; the transformations that take place here, are worthy of Ovid. We shall give them to our readers, especially as we think them very well versified by Mr. Boyd. The flying serpent was Cianfa, his victim Agnello, both of the black faction; the subjects of the second transformation, Guerschio and Abbate, Florentines also of the black faction.

We look'd; and lo! on oary feet sublime,  
A burnish'd snake divides the dusky clime,  
And o'er the prospect gleams a transient light.

Around his prey we saw the serpent wind,  
Instant his curling spires the captive bind;  
At once depriv'd of motion and of strength:  
The suppliant's face his cruel fangs arrest;  
Huge, scaly volumes his long limbs invest,  
And thro' his bowels shoot their horrid length.

Thus round the elm the wanton ivy strays,  
And o'er the boughs in long meanders plays,

Yet still distinct, their native hues remain;  
Not so the Stygian pair; their colours blend:  
Each seem'd to each its changing form to lend,

And each by turns to feel the stroke of pain.

O'er the fair parchment thus the colours fade,  
Deep-ting'd, and black'ning, as the flames invade

Her virgin-white with mingling stain suffus'd.

"Ah! why this fatal change, Agnello say!"  
(His fellow-fiends exclaim'd, with pale dismay)

"See how they blend, and form a mass confus'd!"

Instant as thought, their wreathing limbs entwine,

And each to each their mingling members join,

A tow'ring prodigy, without a name!

Unmatch'd by fancy in her airy cell!

Unmatch'd among the numerous bands of hell!

And limbs unequal prop'd the monstrous frame.

The giant-spectre frown'd with hideous grace,  
The *man* and *dragon* mingling in his face,

While waving pinions clad his arms anew;  
Half-blended, half-distinct, he sped his flight;  
Dreaded and shunn'd by all the race of night,

Where'er his ill-consorted limbs he drew.

Nor long at gaze his sad associates stood:

For, lo! a burning asp athirst for blood,

The foremost strikes, and thro' his heaving sides,

Piercing he past, with long continuous wound;

Then disentangling, shot along the ground;

And o'er the plain in slow meanders glides.

The lizard thus infests the public way,

When raging Sirius fires the fervent day,

And, like a meteor, fits across the path:

The victim felt the agonizing blow;

Then turning saw, amaz'd, his little foe,

That seem'd to burn with unextinguish'd wrath.

From the small wound a vapour seem'd to flow;

Replete with rage, the little asp, below,

A corresponding cloud was seen to send.

Each with malignant look his foe beheld,

While fume to fumes oppos'd, their forms conceal'd,

And tortures new their changing limbs distend.

Sabellius now no more let Afric boast,

Nor Naso mourn his Arethusa lost,

Or sing Agenor's son in scales array'd;

Alternate forms, and double change I sing,

Portentous scenes! that claim a louder string;

Scenes never yet by fancy's eye survey'd!

Trembling and pale the human figure stood,  
While palsies strange his sinking limbs sub-  
du'd;

Convuls'd, at length, his closing legs en-  
twine.

While the small asp, erect, in burnish'd  
pride,

Astonish'd sees her scaly train divide,  
Assume the man, and all the snake resign.

But o'er the bending wretch the serpent  
creeps,

His less'ning limbs the subtle venom steep,  
Contracts his joints, and bends his spinal  
strength!

Soon in his sides his short'ning arms are  
lost;

Groveling and prone, he falls along the coast,  
And hurting scales invest his dreadful  
length.

Enlarg'd by just degrees, the Aspic swells,  
His soft'ning skin the rigid scale expels,

And, branching into arms, his shoulders  
spread;

In naked majesty erect he stands,  
His vile associate licks the sable sands,

A reptile prone, and bows the humble  
head.

The fiends alternate thus their shape disown,  
(Their dark malignant look unchang'd  
alone).

The form erect assumes an ampler face,  
August and broad his manly temples rise,  
His little ears expand, his trembling eyes

Enlarge, and nostrils fill the middle space.

The serpent, late a man, in deep despair,  
Feels his sad visage drawn to sharp and  
spare,

His head prolong'd, his closing eyes retir'd;  
His parting tongue denies its usual aid,  
Dejected, dumb, he feels his pow'rs betray'd,

And hears his foe with sudden speech in-  
spir'd.

At length the fumes disperse, the snake  
retreats,

While following fast his proud associate  
threats;

'Abbate! march!' he cry'd, 'and feel the  
doom,

The rigid doom, which many a year I bore,  
Laborious winding round the sandy shore,

'Till late I durst the human form as-  
sume.'"

Proceeding further, they see a *bead-  
less man*.

"The rigid trunk its way pursu'd

To the high barrier, where, amaz'd, I stood,  
Led by the tumult of the distant van.

By the long locks the gasping head he bore,  
The pallid face besmear'd with recent gore,

Seem'd like a lamp, to guide his steps  
aright;

Still sep'rate, yet still one, they march'd along,  
The ready feet pursue the hasty throng,

Led by the trembling eye's malignant light."

In the 33d canto, we find the striking  
story of Ugolino, and his horrid meal.  
It is so well known that we pass it over.  
Proceeding from depth to depth, the  
travellers at length arrive at the central  
horrors, the abode of Satan himself.  
This, to our surprise, we find to be a  
region of *frost*. Here we find a singular  
triad, *Brutus and Cassius and Judas Isca-  
riot*, all punished for the crime of ingra-  
titude; his infernal majesty is employed  
in tearing them limb from limb, with  
his teeth; as fast as he devours them their  
flesh is renewed. Danté and his guide  
then climb up the gigantic limbs of the  
monarch of hell, pass the centre of the  
world and emerge in the other hemi-  
sphere, as he calls it, by Palestine  
and the ancient paradise. Thus con-  
cludes the first part of the poet's under-  
taking, and the most interesting, as most  
abounding with the sublime and terrific.  
The next division is purgatory; the tra-  
vellers find themselves in the chearful  
sunshine at the foot of the mountain  
of purgation; a venerable old man,  
Cato of Utica, attends to see perform-  
ed the lustrations which are to cleanse  
them from the taint of the Stygian atmos-  
phere, and girding themselves with a cincture  
of rushes, in sign of humility, they  
proceed to the banks of a water; here  
they see a winged vessel coming towards  
them with a freight of penitents. Virgil  
first observed it.

"The pilot and the pinnacle both, he knew;  
'This instant bend the suppliant knee,'  
he cry'd,  
'With lifted hand salute the heavenly guide;  
Soon other forms like his, shall meet your  
view.

'See, what the reas'ning pride of man con-  
founds!  
No lab'ring oar divides those liquid bounds,  
No shifting canvass courts the hallow'd  
gale,

Yon heav'nward-pointed plumes, from shore  
to shore,

The vessel urge, contemning sail and oar;  
Sky-tinctur'd plumes that never change or  
fai.'

The dazzling vision now approach'd the coast  
My visual powers, that seem'd in glory lost,

Sunk at the splendour of the seraph's lock,  
While the swift vessel, steer'd by art divine,  
Scarce dip'd, but seem'd to skim, the level  
brine;

No billow on her sides, insulting, broke.

The heavenly pilot at the helm was seen,  
A glimpse of glory lighten'd in his mien:

A ghostly squadron, rank'd in dim array,  
Fill'd the long deck, twice fifty in a throng.  
From stem to stern they rais'd a gen'ral song  
Of Israel's triumph, and the foes' dismay.  
Soon as the sacred psalmody had ceas'd,  
The welcome sign the ransom'd crew releas'd;

While on the shore, the disembodied band  
New to their state, and wond'ring at the view  
Stood gazing, as the sacred barge withdrew,  
With light wing steering from the level  
strand." Vol. ii.

They prepare now to ascend the mountain, which they find a very difficult enterprise. Danté for a moment supposes his guide has left him, because he does not see his shadow, not recollecting, that as he had no substantial body, he could cast no shadow.

"The sun before me cast a slanting ray.  
My length'ning shadow seemed to lead the way.  
No second shade was seen; I turn'd with dread  
The Mantuan guide to find, I deemed him lost,  
Turning with mild regard, the gentle ghost  
Reproved my causeless fears by fancy bred."

Ascending a narrow pass up the mountain, they observe a number of souls who are not yet allowed to begin their penitence; many of these were killed in battle and stay to perfect their repentance; the travellers enter the gate of purgatory, and see the punishments which are adapted to the cure of the different mental disorders; the proud are obliged to walk round the base of the mountain bent down to the earth in various postures; envy, anger, selfishness, and other vices have each their different punishments. Angels sing in the air, "Happy are they that mourn." This part of the poem, as well as the *Inferno*, is made a vehicle for satire and story, as well as theological conversations. In one of the regions the poet meets with Statius, supposed to have been a Christian, he accompanies the travellers; the purgation at the last stage is by fire, to this Danté himself is persuaded by Virgil to submit, and with much reluctance and many fears he plunges into the sea of fire. When he comes out on the opposite shore he loses Virgil and meets Beatrice, she makes him drink of the river Léthe, tells him all she has done to save him, and after a long conversation, from Paradise, where they now are, she ascends with him through the

æthereal regions, which makes the third part of the poem "Il Paradiso." The imagination of man is better able to conceive a variety of torments greater than any he has felt than a variety of pleasures. Duration alone, added to any pain, will make a hell; but duration added to any pleasure we are acquainted with, will not make a heaven, because we cannot help conceiving it must grow flat by repetition. It is not to be wondered at therefore, if the heaven of Danté, made up of robes of light, singing praises and dancing to the music of the spheres, can scarcely keep up the interest, through one and thirty cantos. They are by no means however devoid of imagination. Danté first ascends with his virgin guide to the moon, here he finds a kind of inferior heaven for those who have broken their monastic vows, though not by their own desire, as *Constance*, who was taken out of a convent to marry the Emperor Henry; their shapes appear like dim shadows thrown across the moon. From thence he ascends according to the order of the Ptolemaic system, which places the earth in the centre, then the *Moon*, *Mercury*, *Venus*, the *Sun*, *Mars*, *Jupiter*, *Saturn*, the eighth sphere where the fixed stars are placed, the *primum mobile* and the *empyræal heaven*. In each of these he finds different degrees of happiness and glory, and in each are placed distinguished characters. Beatrice, his guide, gains a new accession of beauty and splendour at every stage, till at length he can scarcely bear to look at his companion; they have many theological conversations together. In Mercury, he meets with the spirit of Justinian, who laments the feuds by which the empire is torn. Venus is devoted to heavenly love. In the sun he meets several of the schoolmen, and converses with Thomas Aquinas and hears the praises of Dominic and St. Francis, founders of the two orders called by their name; for though Danté severely tasked the corruptions of the church, he was deeply impressed with reverence for those he deemed its real supporters. Mars glows with a crimson flood of light, here we find the warriors; he meets with an ancestor of his, who recounts the glories of his house, and inveighs against the present luxury of the Florentines; he prophesies to Danté, that his foes shall fall. The poet asks his advice whether he shall



run the risk of making himself enemies  
and *shutting against him the hospitable door*,  
by disclosing what he has met with in  
his progress, which produces the fol-  
lowing spirited apology for his satire.

"Deep in the vales of Tartarus profound  
I sojourn'd long, and climb'd the lofty mound  
Where sad repentance weeps her stains  
away;

Then, from that lofty hill's sublimest height  
Gradual I rose with Cynthia's rising light,  
With my fair pilot to the realms of day.

"Thus, as from star to star I journey'd on,  
I learn'd some secrets in their radiant zone,  
Which if the clam'rous trump of flying  
fame  
Should catch, and round yon' world the tin-  
dings sound,

There many an haughty heart would feel the  
wound,  
And mourn the poison of corroding shame.

"And if a timid friend to truth I seem,  
My fame shall vanish like an empty dream,  
Before succeeding years my name record;  
As when a golden mirror meets the sun,  
With such a glance the heav'nly maid begun,  
And broke indignant on the unfinish'd  
word.

"A conscience, loaded with the weight of  
crimes,  
Its own, or others, well may dread your  
rhymes,  
But let victorious truth her standard wave,  
Thro' all the triple world, from zone to zone,  
Be all the wonders of your voyage known,  
And he that feels the lash may loudly rave.

"They who with patience from thy hand en-  
dure  
The bitter potion, soon may boast a cure;  
Directed well, its energy pervades  
The springs of moral life, and bids them play  
With vigour new, as when the vernal ray  
With vital spirit fills the opening glades.

"Your song must, like the ruffling storm  
assail  
The tow'ring hill, and spurn the lowly vale,  
And deal forth honour or eternal shame  
To sinners, and to saints of high degree,  
Be like yourself, ingenuous, bold, and free,  
And lofty deeds in lofty notes proclaim.

"Ghosts of renown alone, thy leader shew'd  
In heav'n, on earth, or by the Stygian flood,  
For those are they who spread th' example  
wide,  
And show what course to shun, and what  
pursue.  
With noble patterns from the nameless crew,  
Ingenuous natures rarely are supply'd."

The planet Jupiter is devoted to spirits  
renowned for justice: here we meet with a  
singularly puerile idea, an anagrammatic

dance, in which the spirits delineate by  
their flight, the letters which compose  
the words *Del'gate Justitiam*, pausing at  
proper intervals to divide the words and  
syllables. Here to our surprise we find  
two Pagans, *Trajan* and *Ripheus*, the  
latter, of whom we know no more than  
one line in Virgil informs us of,

"Justissimus unus  
Qui fuit in Tenebris, et servantissimus æqui."

it seems saw our Saviour through the  
gift of prophecy, and believed in him.  
Trajan by a still more violent hypothe-  
sis, is supposed through the intercession  
of Pope Gregory to have been born into  
the world again, of Christian parents,  
and so received among the faithful. It  
should seem, by these instances, that  
Dante, not daring expressly to contradi-  
ct the opinion, which dooms to hell  
the virtuous Heathens, was willing to  
leave a charitable opening for them,  
which every one might modulate in the  
manner that best suits his own ideas.  
In Saturn, are the contemplatists; here  
we meet with the following lines very  
descriptive of clerical luxury.

"The great Bar Jonas and th' elect of God,  
Judea's rugged hills in sandals trod,  
Content with simple fare wherever found;  
Those holy gourmands, insolent and proud,  
In soft sedans supported thro' the crowd,  
Will scarcely deign to touch the humble  
ground,"

"Leaning upon their satellites they go,  
Propp'd up on either side, a goodly show,  
With one behind, to bear the trailing vest,  
Their steeds, with costly cloths all cover'd o'er  
Proudly curvet on Tyber's trembling shore,  
And flowing mantles hide the double beast."

From Saturn, a flight of stairs extends  
to the stairs formed of *light compact*, on  
which a stream of angels are continually  
descending, the same

"Which Jacob in the deep nocturnal noon,  
In radiant pomp below the silver moon,  
Descending saw from heaven's majestic ball."

From Castor and Pollux, he takes a  
bird's-eye view of the whole solar sys-  
tem, as it lies beneath him; still ascend-  
ing, he sees the long jubilee of the saints  
led by Christ, and hears their song of  
triumph. He converses on faith, hope,  
and charity with Peter, James and John,  
and gives them an account of his creed,  
which they approve. Being come to  
the sphere of the *primum mobile*, his  
brain is almost turned by the *dizzy*

whirl and the tremendous spinning of every thing around him. At length he arrives at the hierarchies of heaven, and the beatific vision enjoyed by the blest, by means of which, they see in the divine mind as in a mirror, every thing that passes. Beatrice takes her seat among the blest. The poet has a view of the holy trinity, and is made to understand the mystery of the incarnation, which, however, he says, he cannot reveal to his readers; and the poem concludes in a strain of high devotional rapture. Such is the outline of this singular poem, a production, certainly abounding with beauties of no common growth, yet which, we fear, will not redeem it from the imputation of being tedious in some parts and uncouth in others. Of the merits of the translation, we have

given sufficient specimens for our readers to form their own opinion; for our parts, though Mr. Boyd is open to criticism in particular passages, as what work of such a length is not, we consider him as having very honourably fulfilled the task he has undertaken; and if the English reader, in perusing it, should find himself somewhat disappointed in the degree of pleasure he expected from the production of one of the boasted poets of Italy, we advise him to attribute it not to any want of talent in Mr. Boyd, but to the nature of the poem itself, which at this time of day, must rather be reckoned among the curiosities of literature, than among those works which maintain a perennial interest in the human heart.

#### DRAMA.

ART. XXXIV. *A Series of Plays, in which it is attempted to delineate the stronger Passions of the Mind. Each Passion being the Subject of a Tragedy and a Comedy.* By JOANNA BAILLIE. Vol. II. second Edition, 8vo. pp. 480.

IT may, perhaps, be asserted with truth, that in most departments of polite literature, the present age is equal to the most brilliant ones which have preceded it. Cowper and Darwin are names to be placed on a par with our best poets. History has been successfully cultivated; style, in general, has improved, and good writing upon every subject is more frequently to be met with, than it was some centuries ago. The stage alone has seemed to decline; and so long is it since we have had a tragedy capable of satisfying a refined and cultivated taste, that many have pronounced the vein to be fairly worked out, and that we are not to expect any thing above mediocrity in the higher kinds of dramatic composition. It must, therefore, be matter of peculiar triumph to those whose minds revolt against so dispiriting a sentence, to see arise a genius like Miss Baillie's, soaring far above contemporary dramatists, and pouring before us new treasures of imagery, sentiment, and pathos. With the author's plan, and the contents of the first volume, we presume all our readers are acquainted. The present volume contains two comedies and a tragedy, in two parts. The subject of the first comedy, *the Election*, is the passion of hatred; it is a companion to *Montfort*. The other comedy, *the Second Marriage*, and the tragedy entitled *Eth-*

*wald*, have for their subject, ambition. As we consider the strength of the publication to lie in the tragedy, it is with that we shall begin our account. The scene is laid in Mercia, the time towards the end of the Saxon heptarchy; but the author has derived no assistance from history in the story of the play, which is entirely fictitious. *Ethwald*, the younger brother of a petty chieftain, is the character in whom, according to the author's systematic plan, is to be exhibited the progress of ambition, from its first kindling sparks to its consummation in violence and blood. With him is contrasted *Edward Ething*, or heir to the crown of Mercia, a most amiable youth, full of gentleness and affection, humble and unambitious for himself, but glowing with enthusiasm at any instance of merit in others; he is contracted to *Elburga*, king *Oswald's* daughter, a haughty and unamiable princess: *Ethwald* on the other hand, is engaged to *Bertha*, a character interesting from her sweetness, innocence, and artless love. *Ethelbert*, a noblethane, is a singular character, studious, philosophic, and a great enemy to the priests, by means of the juster ideas of religion which he has imbibed from reading the New Testament, yet himself somewhat tinctured with superstition; all along he exhibits the highest generosity and magnanimity.

*Hexulf*, a bigotted priest, *Woggerwolf*, a free-booter, whom we may almost call the Caliban of the piece, and a number of inferior characters, fill up the dramatic personæ. The opening of the play is remarkably beautiful. Ethwald, in whose breast ambition is to become such a devouring passion, is, by a party of his companions, returning from a hunting match, discovered

———“*like a cottage cur,  
On dunghill stretched, half sleeping, half  
awake  
Basking his lazy carcase in the sun.*”

Nor is he to be roused by the following animating description of the sport,

“*When slowly from the plains and nether  
woods,  
With all their winding streams and hamlets  
brown,*

*Updrawn the morning vapour lifts its veil,  
And thro' its fleecy folds with soften'd rays,  
Like a still'd infant smiling in his tears,  
Looks thro' the early sun; whilst from afar  
The gleaming lake betrays its wide expanse,  
And, when light curling on the dewy air,  
The cottage smoke doth wind its path to  
heaven:*

*When larks sing shrill, and village cocks do  
crow,*

*And lows the heifer loosen'd from her stall:  
When heaven's soft breath plays on the wood-  
man's brow,*

*And ev'ry hare-bell and wide tangled flower  
Smells sweetly from its cage of checker'd dew  
Ay, and when huntsmen wind the merry horn,  
And from its covert starts the fearful prey;  
Who, warm'd with youth's blood in his  
swelling veins,*

*Would, like a lifeless clod outstretched lie,  
Shut up from all the fair creation offers?”*

It soon however becomes apparent, that, like the generous breed of dogs described by Pliny, he was only waiting for an object large enough to call his powers into action. This occurs on the occasion of an invasion of Mercia, on the news of which he breaks away from his aged father, and the gentle Bertha joins the king's army, and astonishes every one by his feats of valour. The young prince Edward with the most generous enthusiasm, offers him his friendship, though conscious how much he is himself eclipsed by the rising hero, and the king rewards him by making him earl of Morneith. The latent ambition of Ethwald now begins to work within him, he distinguishes himself in another battle and gains great popu-

larity among the soldiers; yet, at this period, in answer to the remonstrances of Ethelred, who foresees the tragic scenes that are preparing, he answers in the spirit of Hazael,

———“*think'st thou I am a beast,  
A fanged wolf, reft of all kindly sense,  
That I should do such deeds?  
I am a mad aspiring to be great  
But loathing cruelty.*”

In this state of mind, Ethelred leads him to a cave to consult the female druids, and we have a scene which reminds us perhaps too strongly, of the witches in Macbeth. There is much poetry in it, and the incident of shewing to Ethwald the figure of the miserable man, which proves to be the altered countenance of himself, is a fine one; but the reader will be apt to wonder at the introduction of druids, at the latter end of the heptarchy, and though the apparent anachronism is softened by a justificatory note, it is too different from the received costume of the age, to be readily allowed; besides we want faith for these scenes. The druidesses shew to Ethwald his future greatness, but attended with such circumstances of misery and horror as are adapted to influence him to reject the temptation. It has however, the contrary effect, and the hopes of a crown, to which his views are now raised, overbalance every remaining sentiment of goodness in his breast, and urge him on to the most atrocious actions. In these he is assisted by the intrigues of the priests, and by a wicked confidant. Taking advantage of his credit with the soldiery, he therefore heads a rebellion, puts the old king to death, and seizes on the crown. He then, partly by consent, partly by compulsion, marries Elburga, and with that incident ends the 4th act. The next act presents a very pathetic scene in the madness of the forsaken Bertha, and if, in some measure, we are reminded of Ophelia, at least the former does not suffer by the comparison. Indeed there is a consistency and delicacy in the character of Bertha, which is wanting in that of Hamlet's mistress; and the moment when she hears Ethwald's voice and rushes into his arms, exclaiming, *I've found thee now*, is exquisitely moving, and would have great effect upon the stage. Ethwald exclaims,

“*A meaner man might turn aside and weep.*”

As he retires in agony from this scene,

he is stabbed with a dagger, and the wound soon puts on the appearance of being a mortal one; he calls Ethelred to him, leaves every thing in his hands, and amidst starts of repentance and bitter lamentations for the sudden end of his lately acquired greatness, his apparent death closes the 5th act. Had the play ended here, the plan would, in some sense, have been complete, and the vanity of ambition impressed upon the mind. But it might have been said the disappointment was owing to an accident; had Ethwald lived, he might have enjoyed the fruits of his crimes, and spent his remaining years in uninterrupted prosperity. The second part therefore, shews him unhappy, from the unsatisfied nature of ambition, and the increasing horrors of his own mind. The first act opens with a most beautiful scene, in which Edward is discovered in prison with his keeper, whom he thus addresses.

"What brings thee now? it surely cannot be  
The time of food: my prison hours are wont  
To fly more heavily.

*Keep.* It is not food: I bring wherewith  
my lord,

To stop a rent in these old walls, that oft  
Hath griev'd me, when I've thought of you  
o' nights;

Thro' it the cold wind visits you.

*Ed.* And let it enter! it shall not be stopp'd.  
Who visits me besides the winds of heaven?  
Who mourns with me but the sad-sighing  
wind?

Who bringeth to mine ear the mimic'd tones  
Of voices once belov'd and sounds long past  
But the light-wing'd and many voiced wind?  
Who fans the prisoner's lean and fever'd  
cheek

As kindly as the monarch's wreathed brows  
But the free piteous wind?  
I will not have it stopp'd.

*Keep.* My lord, the winter now creeps on  
apace:

Hoar frost this morning on our shelter'd fields  
Lay thick, and glanc'd to the up-risen sun,  
Which scarce had power to melt it.

*Ed.* Glanced to th' up-risen sun! Ay, such  
fair morns,

When ev'ry bush doth put its glory on,  
Like a gemmed bride! your rustics now,  
And early hinds, will set their clouted feet  
Thro' silver webs, so bright and finely  
wrought

As royal dames ne'er fashion'd, yet plod on  
Their careless way, unheeding.

Alas, how many glorious things there be  
To look upon! Wear not the forests, now,  
Their latest coat of richly varied dyes?

*Keep.* Yes, good my lord, the cold chills  
year advances,

Therefore, I pray you, let me close that wall.

*Ed.* I tell thee no, man; if the north air  
bites

Bring me a cloak.—Where is thy dog to-day?

*Keep.* Indeed I wonder that he came not  
with me

As he is wont.

*Ed.* Bring him, I pray thee, when thou  
com'st again.

He wags his tail and looks up to my face  
With the assured kindliness of one  
Who has not injur'd me."

Their conversation is interrupted by a messenger from Ethelred, with the release of Edward; but before it can take effect, counter orders arrive from the king, who is unexpectedly recovered, and the unhappy prince, in addition to his disappointment, then first learns that his captivity is inflicted on him by the young warrior he had so generously fostered, and exclaims,

"O that an enemy had done this wrong!  
But Ethwald, thou who to my heart wert  
press'd

As dearest brother never was by him  
Who shad' his mother's breast! Thou in  
whose fame

I gloried—I who spoke not of my own!—  
When shouting crowds proclaim'd thy ho-  
nour'd name,

I ever join'd with an ungrudging heart:  
Yea, such true kindred feeling bore I to him  
E'en at his praise I wept.

(*Bursting into tears*)

I pray you, sirs! this hath o'ercome me."

The unsatisfied ambition of Ethwald now leads him to extend his empire, by making war upon his neighbours, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his subjects, and of the virtuous Ethelred. We here meet with many pointed and forcible strokes against that lust of war, which, in all ages, has brought so many miseries on mankind.

"Our native land now wears the alter'd face  
Of an uncultur'd wild. To her fair fields,  
With weeds and thriftless docks now shagg'd  
o'er,

The aged grandsire, bent and past his toil,  
Who in the sunny nook had plac'd his seat,  
And thought to toil no more, leads joyless  
forth

His widow'd daughters and their orphan  
train,

The master of a silent cheerless band.

The half-grown stripling, urg'd before his  
time

To manhood's labour, steps, with feeble limbs  
And sallow cheek, round his unroofed cot.  
The mother on her last remaining son  
With fearful bodings looks. The cheerful sound  
Of whistling ploughmen, and the reaper's song,  
And the flail's lusty stroke is heard no more.  
The youth and manhood of our land are laid  
In the cold earth, and shall we think of war?"

The second act opens with a bolder attack upon the feelings of the reader, and presents the field of battle itself after the combat, strewn with mangled bodies of the dying and the dead, exposed to the search of their relations and friends. The nerves must be strong that do not vibrate with horror, at the exclamation,

"Good heaven it moves!  
Look on that bloody corse, so smear'd and mangled,  
That it has lost all form of what it was,  
It moves, it moves, there is life in it still."

It is evident this scene could not be represented on the stage; we are in doubt whether it is not too strong even for the closet.

The ambition of Ethwald having now stifled all remorse, he resolves to destroy the gentle Edward, and sends ruffians to murder him in prison: the following speech of Edward is of uncommon beauty:

"Ed. Doth the bright sun from the high arch of heaven,  
In all his beauteous robes of flecker'd clouds,  
And ruddy vapours, and deep glowing flames,  
And softly varied shades, look gloriously?  
Do the green woods dance to the wind? the lakes  
Cast up their sparkling waters to the light?  
Do the sweet hamlets in their bushy dells  
Send winding up to heaven their curling smoke  
On the soft morning air?  
Do the flocks bleat, and the wild creatures bound  
To antic happiness? and mazy birds  
Wing the mid air in light skimming bands?  
Ay, all this is; men do behold all this;  
The poorest man. Even in this lonely vault,  
My dark and narrow world, oft do I hear  
The crowing of the cock so near my walls,  
And sadly think how small a space divides  
me  
From all this fair creation.  
From the wide spreading bounds of beauteous nature  
I am alone shut out; I am forgotten.  
Peace, peace! he who regards the poorest  
wretch

Still cares for me, albeit he shends me sorely.  
This hath its end. Perhaps, small as these walls,

A bound unseen divides my dreary state  
From a more beauteous world; that world  
of souls,  
Fear'd and desir'd by all; a veil unseen  
Which soon shall be withdrawn.

The air feels chill, methinks it should be night.

I'll lay me down; perchance kind sleep will come,

And open to my view an inward world  
Of garish fantasies, from which nor walls,  
Nor bars, nor tyrant's power can shut me out."

The ruffians enter, and after some struggles he is dispatched; Ethwald remains in an adjoining apartment, with Alwy his confidant, listening to his groans, and waiting to behold the dead body. After the murder of Edward, Ethelred, who had hitherto adhered to Ethwald in hopes of tempering his ambition, retires from court with other discontented chiefs, and forms a party against him. Thus ends the third act.

In the fourth act the insurgents are taken prisoners, and delivered into the hands of Hexulf the priest, who obliges them to cast lots for their lives. This gives occasion to exhibit a very noble scene of heroism in the behaviour of the victims, particularly Ethelred, whose character throughout, and particularly in the last scene of his life, is equally mild and dignified; he is truly the Christian hero: his execution concludes the act.

The fifth act displays Ethwald, now arrived at the summit of his ambition, and the fulness of his crimes, as a prey to terror mixed with remorse. This is displayed in a striking manner by the horror he shews of being left a moment in the dark; his imaginations fill his halls with bloody phantoms, and he orders a profusion of tapers to illuminate every corner of his apartments. He also suspects his wife Elburga of a design to poison him. In the mean time Hereulf, one of the brave insurgents, who had escaped with a party of armed men, breaks open the door, and, after a short contest, Ethwald is slain. The mild spirit of the author is shewn even in this last scene of vengeance; for when the chiefs are going to dip their weapons in the blood of the tyrant, a young man interposes, and relating an act of mercy



formerly shewn by Ethwald to his father, exclaims,

"For this good deed do not insult the fallen. He was not ruthless once."

Such is the imperfect outline of a piece, which is much fuller of characters and events, than is usual in the present conduct of the drama. It is evident the author has sedulously studied Shakespear; many of the incidents remind us of our favourite author, and the dialogue has a cast of his language; but even where we are thus reminded, the sentiments are the writer's own, poured out from the treasure of her own pure heart; nor do we recollect a play that breathes a morality so noble, so exalted, so full of the most delicate touches of refined sensibility. The licence of Shakespear is also imitated, particularly with regard to time. We have not, indeed, any clue given us by which we can at all discover how much time elapses during the course of the play. We are told, about the middle of the first part, that Ethwald had not seen Bertha, with whom he had an interview in the former act, for *some months*; and, for ought that appears, the whole of the transaction may take as many years. This we cannot but consider as a fault, and the more so, as the story has not a basis of historical truth, for where that is the case, as in the historical plays of Shakespear, our recollection supplies the connecting facts, and we are well content the poet should take those leaps and bounds, which enable him to give spirited sketches of a number of interesting events at a distance from one another; but where the whole plot is the offspring of the poet's fancy, he stands engaged to give us a clear idea of the whole, and the circumstance of time is too material to the probability of the story to be left out of the information we have a right to claim. It must also be mentioned as a defect, that the reader is sometimes disappointed in the consequences he is led to expect from the first exhibition of the characters. This is the case with regard to Ethelbert, whose religious sentiments, and aversion to the priests, are very much brought forward in the beginning of the play, and might naturally be supposed to influence the plot more than they are found to do. But a stronger instance of this is in the character of Elburga,

who is represented as haughty, ambitious, ill-used by Ethwald, and deeply offended with him, inclined also to plot with the priests, from all which circumstances, when she presents her husband the cup, and he, suspecting it to be poisoned, bids her drink it herself, the reader suspects it also, and indeed can have little doubt at that period, but that the catastrophe is to be brought on through her means. Now, though in real life our conjectures are often disappointed, it has always a bad effect where in fiction the reader is put upon a wrong scent. He may be surprised as much as the author pleases, but must not be disappointed. These blemishes, which we have thought it our duty to notice, would probably be corrected by the author, if there should be any design of bringing the piece forward for representation. For this, in its present state, the length alone would render it unfit, but we think it decidedly superior to Montfort, and if the author should ever think proper to mould the two parts into one regular play, we should not ask whether it would be worthy of the stage, but whether our stage would be worthy of it.

As we have been so full upon Ethwald, we must pass the comedies with less notice. The first, *The Election*, is undoubtedly the best. They are by no means void of merit, but we fear they fall short of that broad comic humour, which is necessary to make them succeed on the stage; their pleasantry, perhaps, more resembles that of Addison in his *Drummer*, than the natural dialogue of the genuine sons of Thalia. But they, as well as the tragedy, have beautiful strokes of sentiment. The following, for instance, may compare with the famous one of Terence, *homo sum, &c.*

"Mr. B. Yes, Charles, you find always some good in every one of God's creatures.

Beau. And there is some good in every one of God's creatures, if you would but look for it."

We have observed in the tragedy a word or two improperly accented, probably from local usage; *pursuit* occurs two or three times with the accent on the first syllable. We have already observed that the tragedy is sprinkled with words and phrases not at present in common usage. This may favour the

poetry, but it gives something of a motley cast to the language, which is less natural, as it cannot be referred to any particular age. The language of the comedies is deficient in the ease and nature of common life.

ART. XXXV. *Henry and Almeria: a Tragedy, in Five Acts.* By ANDREW BIRRELL. 8vo. pp. 79.

IN justice to Mr. Birrell we transcribe the following passage from his preface:

"In April, 1801, the manuscript of the following play was delivered to Mr. Waldron of Drury-Lane Theatre; who engaged to examine, and alter what he thought exceptionable, in order to render it sufficiently correct for presenting to the manager: in his hands it remained till November following; when it was returned, without the smallest alteration or correction; and, in December, the tragedy of Alfonso was printed, and shortly after brought out at Covent-Garden Theatre; on perusing of which, I could not avoid remarking a strong similarity in the arrangement of the characters, the

distress and even scenery, of the following play."

Mr. Birrell proceeds to enumerate the circumstances of similitude. We are quite disposed to exonerate Mr. Lewis from the charge of plagiarism: if there is any resemblance, it is such a caricature of every thing tragic, as to be perfectly ludicrous. Mr. Lewis has played us a trick before: if this play thing had been published anonymously, we might, perhaps, with the assistance of the hint given in the preface, have suspected that he had served his Alfonso as he did his Alonzo—quizzed it with a second Giles Jollup.

ART. XXXVI. *The Fall of Carthage: a Tragedy, first presented at the Theatre, Whirby: with Additions and Corrections.* By WM. WATKINS. 8vo. pp. 68.

THE subject selected by Mr. Watkins for the exercise of his dramatic talents, affords room for more of the pathetic than is here introduced: the episode of Bomilcar and Barci throws considerable life into the piece; but the dialogue between these lovers, in their critical situation, is feeble and unimpassioned. The character of Phœnissa is well supported: the struggle in the first scene of the fourth act, between the weakness of the woman, and the heroism of the puny matron, is one of the most affecting passages in the piece. But this is a faint compliment, for little is it calculated to extort a tear. When Phœnissa learns that her husband has proved a traitor, and she is solicited to moderate her violence, the reply which she makes is spirited:

"Preach patience to the tigress in her rage,  
Th' ungovern'd fury that inflames her blood,  
When her false mate has shunn'd the  
hunter's spear;  
Or fawning, crouch'd submissive in the toils,

And left her singly to abide the chase,  
Alone to guard her yet unstrengthen'd young;  
But not to me,—for Asdrubal's a traitor.  
Immortal Powers! to what am I reserv'd,—  
Amilcar's daughter is a traitor's wife!  
Stab me Bomilcar—draw thy sword Adherbal,  
And free Phœnissa from these lingering  
pains!"

The tragedy wants animation: the language is not sufficiently elevated and impassioned for the character and the occasion. This is its prominent fault, and we fear it is an incurable one.

Mr. Watkins has twice committed a false quantity in the name of his hero:

"Those charming boys, whose pleasing  
forms reflect  
Asdrubal's softened image."  
Again: "Asdrubal, Hanno, firm be your  
resolves."

We should not have taken any notice of this oversight, but that in his advertisement Mr. W. has laid some stress on the accuracy of his prosody.

ART. XXXVII. *Alfonso, King of Castile: a Tragedy, in Five Acts; first performed at Covent-Garden Theatre, January 15, 1802.* By M. G. LEWIS. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 122.

THE action of this piece commences with the return of Cæsario from the successful siege of Algesiras: he is received by Alfonso with the honours due to a

conqueror, and with the gratitude which his services seemed to merit. But Cæsario has nourished a deadly and unerasable hatred against his sovereign:

By rescuing her from the hands of the moors, he had won the affections of his daughter, the lovely Amelrosa; had fired the ambition of his son, and prompted his desertion to the enemy; and had himself excited the war, in order that in the wild moment of victory he might tear the crown from the head of Alfonso, bury him in the ruins of his palace, avow his marriage with Amelrosa, and when she mounts the throne ascend it with her. This rooted vengeance of Cæsario is excited by the remembrance of his father's sufferings: Orsino had been found guilty of treason, and condemned to die: Alfonso, through personal affection, had spared his life, but doomed him to drag a miserable and lingering existence in a solitary dungeon.

"And can you wound that heart,  
Yet swear you love her.

CÆSARIO. Dearly, fiercely love her!  
But not so fiercely as I loath this king!—  
Hatred of him cherish'd from youth is now  
My second nature! 'tis the air I breathe,  
The stream which fills my veins, my life's  
chief source,  
My food, my drink, my sleep, warmth,  
health and vigour,  
Mixed with my blood, and twisted round  
my heart strings!  
To cease to hate him, I must cease to  
breathe!—

Never to know one hour's repose or pleasure  
While loathed Alfonso lived,—such was my  
oath,  
Breathed on my broken-hearted mother's lips.  
She heard! her eyes flashed with new fire;  
she kissed me,  
Murmured Orsino's name, bless'd it, and  
died!—

That oath I'll keep!"

The death of Orsino had been announced some three or four years; but, on his death-bed, the Marquis Guzman, conscience-stricken, avows, that "those traitor-scrolls which bore Orsino's name," were forged by himself. The anguish of Alfonso is extreme at the injustice he had committed, until his daughter relieves it by assuring him, that she herself had set the captive free, and propagated the story of his death, for the purpose of lulling suspicion.

Alfonso seeks his much injured friend, but finds him inexorable: his relentless heart is not to be melted by the sorrowing, and the suppliant monarch. In this state of mind, the revengeful and ambitious Cæsario seeks his cavern, and discloses his own dreadful machinations for obtaining the crown of Castile: the

high patriotic spirit of Orsino, forgets the injuries he had sustained, and with indignation spurns the overtures to destroy his King. But the traitor is his son—his own Cæsario. His resolution is taken, he communicates the terrible intelligence to Amelrosa at midnight, in the cloister of St. Juan's chapel. The dying Ottilia, in deep revenge for her slighted love to Cæsario, puts this paper into her hands:

"— My king, Cæsario plots your destruction:—a mine is formed in the Claudian vaults, beneath the royal tower, and which the conspirators mean to spring this night. This warning will enable you to defeat their purpose: Accept it as an atonement for the crimes of the dying Guzman. The mine is appointed to be sprung, when the clock strikes one.—

[The letter falls from his hand.

AMELROSA.

[Rushing from the chapel in despair.]

One! one!—'tis that already!—oh! he's lost! my father's lost!—Ere we can reach his chamber, 'twill sink in flames!

ORS. That must be tried—Say, princess, How may I gain admittance to the king, Nor meet delay?

AMEL. This signet . . . [Giving a ring.]

ORSINO. 'Tis enough.

Know you the Claudian vaults?

AMELROSA. I do.

ORSINO. Away then!

Reach them with speed! cling round Cæsario, kneel,

Weep, threaten, sooth, implore! to rouse his feelings

Use every art; at least delay his purpose, Till thou shalt hear this bugle sound; that signal

Shall speak Alfonso safe.—Farewell."

The meeting of the conspirators is worked up with considerable power: they are all assembled but Cæsario himself, who, at length, descends the staircase swiftly; his looks are wild; his hair flows loosely, and he grasps a dagger reeking with the blood of Ottilia:

"ALL. Welcome, Cæsario, welcome!

CÆSARIO. Aye, shout, shout,  
And kneeling, greet your blood anointed king.  
This steel his sceptre! Tremble dwarfs in guilt,

And own your master! Thou art proof, Henriquez,

'Gainst pity; I once saw thee stab in battle  
A page who clasped thy knees: And Melchior there

Made quick work with a brother whom he hated.

But what did I this night? Hear, hear, and  
revenge!

There was a breast, on which my head had rested  
A thousand times; a breast which loved me fondly,  
As heaven loves martyred saints; and yet this breast,  
I stabbed, knaves, stabbed it to the heart!  
Wine! wine there!  
For my soul's joyous!

[Gomez brings a goblet.]

HEN. Friend, what means this phrenzy?  
What hast thou done? where is Ottilia?

CÆSARIO. [Dashing down the goblet.]

Dead!

Dead, marquis!—At that word how the vault rings,  
And the ground shakes! It shall not shake my purpose.

Murder and I are grown familiar friends;  
The assassin's trade is sweet! I've tasted blood,

And thirst for more! Say, is the mine . . .

MELCHIOR. All's ready—

CÆSARIO. Who fires the train?

HENRIQUEZ, MELCHIOR, and all the Conspirators. I!—I!—

CÆSARIO. Oh! cheerful cry!

Oh! glorious strife for guilt! Let each man throw

His dagger in my casque; be his the service,  
Whose steel I draw.

HENRIQUEZ. 'Tis mine—

CÆSARIO. [To Lucio.]

Thy torch, boy! (Giving it to Henriquez.)

Take it,

Here lies thy way—speed, speed, and let yon vaults,

Shivering in fragments, tell my ravished ear  
Alfonso dies! Away! away!—[On his throwing open the folding doors, Amelrosa is discovered.]

AMELROSA. Forbear!

ALL. The princess!

AMEL. No! no princess; 'tis a daughter,  
Fierce through despair, frantic with fear and anguish.

Hear me, ye dread unknown! Yon flinty man

Ne'er knew a father's care, and knows not now  
What 'tis to love, what 'tis to lose a father!

But ye (if e'er a parent's hand hath dried  
Your infant tears; if e'er your eyes have streamed

To see him weep, knowing your hand but scarred

Gave him more pain, than his own heart torn piecemeal.)

Oh! spare my father! Bid those hours revive  
Which filial love once bless'd; recall youth's feelings,

And by those feelings learn to pity mine.

Spare, spare, my father!

CÆSARIO.

[Struggling to conceal his confusion.]

Spare him! Sure thou rav'st!

What fears my gentle love?

AMELROSA. I'm not thy love!

Not gentle! Strange despair has chang'd my nature!

Steeled my soft bosom, bræ'd my woman's nerves,

And brought me here, prepared and proud to perish,

If my heart's blood may save my sire's from streaming.

The savage tygress guards her new-born young,  
With tenderest, fiercest care; the timorous swallow,

If robber-hands approach her brood, defends it

With eagle-fury; and what brutes will do  
To guard their offspring, born perhaps that day,

Shall I not do for one, to whom I owe  
Full twenty years of love?—Cæsario, mark me,

For by heaven's host, no pow'r shall move my purpose:

Or thou must save my sire, or murder me.

HENRIQUEZ. What must be done?

MELCHIOR. Time presses!

CÆSARIO. [Recovering from his stupor.]  
Fire the train!

AMELROSA. [Interposing between the inner vault and Henriquez.] He shall not!

CÆSARIO. Amelrosa!

AMELROSA. No! he shall not!

Back, ruffian, back! and throw that torch away,

Which burns to light my father's funeral pile:  
Here I'll defy thy rage, thus check thy malice,

Thus bar thy road, and, if thou needs wilt pass,

Make thee a way by trampling on my corse!  
I stir not else!"

Amelrosa, however, is forced away, and the train is fired. The mine blows up with a loud explosion, and the back part of the vault bursts into flames. The distracted Amelrosa dashes herself on the earth; but a bugle horn sounding at the same moment, is the signal which assures her of her father's safety. This had been effected by the vigilant Orsino; the news of Alfonso's safety madens Cæsario, who meets him in immediate battle, subdues him, and is preparing to bury in his bosom the uplifted sword, when his traitorous arm is arrested by Orsino, who rushes in between them, without helmet, pale and bleeding from a wound which his own son had given him. The latter falls upon his sword. Amelrosa, who has taken the drugged bowl which her disappointed rival Ottilia had prepared for her, dies at the same instant, and the fall of the curtain relieves the audience from dwelling on a scene of such accumulated horror.

Alfonso, with some curtailment and alteration in the last act, has received loud plaudits at Covent-Garden: "In spite of the favourable reception which it has met with, I am conscious that my tragedy may be charged with a thousand inconsistencies, and is full of faults of all sizes and denominations; but those faults are too radical to admit of correction, and too glaring to make their enumeration necessary." This is one of the most singular compliments surely that an author could have paid to his audience: Mr. Lewis's criticism, is nevertheless, perfectly correct: the inconsistencies of character are too numerous to allow of, and too glaring to require enumeration; and strange as it may seem, the success of the play may, perhaps, be attributed to those very inconsistencies. When we read a dramatic work, leisurely and deliberately in our closet, we can examine the composition of each separate character attentively: having once discovered the leading principle of action, we apply it to each particular situation and event, and are able to anticipate its operation; we are pleased in proportion to its activity, and disappointed in proportion to its supineness. At a dramatic representation, on the contrary, we have no time to compare very accurately the sentiments and actions of the same character in different situations: an author must not allow his audience to reason; he must not appeal to their judgments, but to their feelings. In the serious drama, he must seize upon the attention, and fasten it to deeds of lofty daring and frightful atrocity, or must lead it a willing captive among scenes of melting tenderness, and heart-rending woe. He must produce a sudden and powerful impression; and it is no very difficult task to draw a strongly marked character, and, one of course, calculated to produce such an

impression, where an author does not feel himself bound to pay attention to unity of principle, by which the sentiments of men are dictated, and their actions regulated.

We are, nevertheless, surprised at the favourable reception of this play: the characters of Ottilia and Cæsario are both of them odious to so hateful an extreme, and are so continually brought forward, that we should not have expected from an English audience the toleration of their atrocities. The catastrophe of the piece, *as it is performed*, relieves the audience from the unnatural sight of a father, murdering his own son, in order to preserve the life of a king, against whom he cherished almost as deadly a hatred as that son himself. This sickening sight, however, was one night endured.

Previously to the representation of this drama, Mr. Lewis had great doubts whether any tragedy written in blank verse would succeed on the stage: we congratulate him on the success of his play, and are happy that his doubts on this subject must, of course, be completely removed. Whence could they have originated? The diction of the tragic muse should ever be as lofty as her sentiments: to give them appropriate utterance, they require the pomp and harmony of verse; poetry should bestow upon them all her grace and all her grandeur. There is a meanness in the unmeasured dialogue, which suits the familiarity of comedy, but which always appeared to us to derogate from the dignity of tragedy.

As Mr. Lewis has now discovered that blank verse is tolerated, and that a ghost can be dispensed with, we may flatter ourselves, that as his judgment is corrected, he may have leisure to chasten and refine his taste.

ART. XXXVII. *John Woodvil: a Tragedy.* By C. LAMB. To which are added *Fragments of Burton, the Author of the Anatomy of Melancholy.* 12mo. pp. 128.

THE time at which the action of this play is supposed to pass, is soon after the Restoration. Sir Walter Woodvil is excepted by name in the act of oblivion: he secretes himself, together with one of his sons, Simon, in the forest of Sherwood; and a reward of two hundred pounds is offered for his apprehension.

His other son, John, is a courtier, and remains at the family mansion.

The curtain draws up with a view of Woodvil-hall; four or five servants are drinking, and talking over the misfortunes of their old master, whose place of retirement they shrewdly suspect. Just as they are beginning to discuss the ques-



Non very gravely, whether or not they are subject to the penalties of treason, for their privy in his concealment, the old steward, Sandford, enters suddenly, and reproaches them for their meditated treachery.

"Have you forgot too  
How often in old times  
Your drunken mirths have stunned day's  
sober ears,  
Carousing full cups to Sir Walter's health?"

So rarely does Mr. Lamb indulge himself in any thing like lofty language, that although he has put this fine speech, a little *mal-apropos* indeed, into the mouth of a menial, we shall give him all possible credit for it.

By and bye Margaret enters. Margaret is the orphan ward of Sir Walter, and is betrothed to his son John. John, however, is a sorry fellow,

"—— A mad and thriftless prodigal,  
Grown proud upon the favours of the court ;"

keeps riotous company, whose dissolute and uncivil jests, added to the heart-breaking neglect of her altered lover, drive the poor girl to despair. She tells her sad story to the old steward, who advises her to complain to John of the rudeness of his guests.

MARGARET.

"I know not how it is ;  
A cold protector is John grown to me.  
The mistress, and presumptive wife, of  
Woodvil  
Can never stoop so low to supplicate  
A man, her equal, to redress those wrongs  
Which he was bound first to prevent ;  
But which his own neglects have sanction'd  
rather,  
Both sanction'd and provok'd: a mark'd neglect,  
And strangeness fast'ning bitter on his  
love,  
His love which long has been upon the  
wane."

What glowing eloquence! What noble indignation! She continues,

"For me, I am determin'd what to do,  
To leave his house this night, and lukewarm John."

These are, indeed, "the swellings of a lofty anger!" Margaret's resolution is taken; and Sandford, who, by having the keys of the wardrobe, seems to be a sort of house-steward, tells her that he thinks he can find a suit of boys cloaths that will fit her.

ANN. REV. VOL. I.

"—— I know a suit  
Of lively Lincoln green, that shall much  
grace you  
In the wear, being glossy, fresh, and worn  
but seldom."

No Monmouth-street broker could have puffed off his goods to better advantage.

In the second act the scene changes to Sherwood Forest. Sir Walter, in a strain of soul-soothing melancholy, says,

"How quietly we live here,  
Unread in the world's business,  
And take no note of all its slippery changes.  
'Twere best we make a world among ourselves,  
A little world,  
Without the ills and falsehoods of the greater;  
We two being all the inhabitants of ours,  
And kings and subjects both in one."

To which Simon answers.

"I would not change it; happy in your  
grace,  
That can translate the stubbornness of fortune  
Into so quiet and so sweet a style."

But we are in an error, surely, and must cry mercy: upon recollection this is *not* Simon's answer. Unluckily we have just been reading "As you like it," and were wandering in the forest of Arden, with my Lord of Amiens, and the exiled duke, when we ought to have been listening to the merry feats of Robin Hood and Little John, in the forest of Sherwood.

Sir Walter and his son Simon are disguised as Frenchmen; Margaret, with her nice "lively Lincoln green" coat on, meet them in the forest; they recognize each other, and she begs to be a sharer of their woodland life. She asks them how they pass their time, and what sports they have in the forest; to which Simon answers in the following couplets:

"Not many; some few, as thus:  
To see the sun to bed, and to arise,  
Like some hot amourist, with glowing eyes,  
Bursting the lazy bands of sleep that bound  
him,  
With all his fires and travelling glories round  
him:  
Sometimes the moon on soft night clouds to  
rest,  
Like beauty nestling in a young man's breast,  
And all the winking stars, her handmaids,  
keep  
Admiring silence, while those lovers sleep:  
Y y

Sometimes outstretcht, in very idleness,  
Nought to do, saying little, thinking less,  
To view the leaves, thin dancers upon air,  
Go eddying round; and small birds, how  
they fare,

When mother Autumn fills their beaks with  
corn,

Fitch'd from the careless Amalthea's horn;  
And how the woods, berries, and worms pro-  
vide

Without their pains, when earth has nought  
beside

To answer their small wants:

To view the graceful deer come tripping by,  
Then stop and gaze, then turn, they know  
not why,

Like bashful youngers in society:

To mark the structure of a plant or tree;

And all fair things of earth, how fair they  
be."

The third acts opens with the view-  
ing an apartment of state in Woodvil  
Hall, John and his dissolute companions  
drinking.

LOVEL.

"I marvel why the poets, who of all men,  
methinks, should possess the hottest livers,  
and most empyreal fancies, should affect to  
see such virtues in cold water.

GRAY.

"Virtue in cold water!—ha!—ha!—ha!!

JOHN.

"Because your poet born hath an internal  
wine, richer than Lippara or Canaries, yet  
uncrushed from any grapes of earth, un-  
pressed in mortal wine presses.

THIRD GENTLEMAN.

"What may be the name of this wine?

JOHN.

"It hath as many names as qualities. It  
is denominated indifferently, wit, conceit,  
invention, inspiration; but its most royal  
and comprehensive name is *Fancy*.

THIRD GENTLEMAN.

"And where keeps he this sovereign li-  
quor?

JOHN.

"Its cellars are in the brain, whence your  
true poet deriveth intoxication at will; while  
his animal spirits, catching a pride from the  
quality and neighbourhood of their noble re-  
lative, the brain, refuse to be sustained by  
wines and stimuli of earth.

THIRD GENTLEMAN.

"But is your poet born always tipsy with  
this liquor?

JOHN.

"He hath his stoopings and reposes; but  
his proper element is the sky, and in the  
suburbs of the empyrean."

So habitually and conscientiously tem-  
perate is Mr. Lamb, in the use of this

immortal wine, that we cannot help be-  
ing-pleased when we see him in his  
cups.

The party continues drinking, but  
John soliloquizes, and meditating on the  
adverse fortune of his father, is desirous  
to get rid of the secret. Lovel remains  
with John, while the other cavaliers re-  
tire to see some fireworks. John informs  
Lovel, for no reason whatever, but that,  
perhaps, he is a little inflamed, not with  
etherial but with earthly wine, that his  
father and brother are disguised as  
Frenchmen in the forest of Sherwood.  
When the fatal secret is disclosed, John,  
kneeling, exclaims,

"By our well-knit friendship I conjure you,  
Touch not Sir Walter's life. (*Kneels*).  
You see these tears My father's an old man.  
Pray let him live!"

LOVEL.

"I must be bold to tell you, these new  
freedoms  
Shew most unhandsome in you.

JOHN. (*Rising*).

"Ha! do you say so?

Sure you are not grown proud upon my  
secret!

Ah! now I see it plain. He would be bab-  
bling.

No doubt a garrulous and hard-fac'd traitor,  
But I'll not give you leave." (*Draws*).

This is really rather a hasty piece of bu-  
siness; they fight for a little while, when  
John stops, and asks his antagonist whe-  
ther he has made a will? Recollecting  
himself a little, he says, 'Tis no great  
matter, for that a broken cavalier has  
seldom any thing to dispose of but a  
worn-up wig, a snuff-box, and a rusty  
sword; so, to it again. Lovel is dis-  
armed; the other spares his life, and in  
return for this extension of mercy, Lo-  
vel, with one of his bottle companions,  
seeks the forest, finds the fugitives, and  
attaches Sir Walter of high treason, in  
the king's name. "Shall I whip off  
their heads, father?" quoth the valiant  
young Simon. This frightens the two  
liege subjects of his majesty so terribly,  
that they slink off as fast as they can.  
Their errand, however, answered its pur-  
pose, for before the knight could reply to  
his son's spirited question, stung with  
the ingratitude of John, his heart bursts,  
down he tumbles, without saying a word  
about it to any body, and dies!! The  
coroner's inquest does not appear to  
have been taken. As soon as Marga-

ret heard of the disaster, she exclaims,

"Well, he is dead,  
And what should Margaret do in the forest?"

This is sensible enough: she determines to go back again to John, and take him for better and worse; and she continues,

"Pardon me, thou spirit of Sir Walter,  
Who, in compassion to the wretched living,  
Have but few tears to waste upon the dead."

She arrives at Woodvil Hall, and makes her appearance just as her dear Johnny is dressing himself in his mourning garments. Johnny is sadly sorrowful that Margaret should come to witness his disgrace; however, she is a good soul, and pours the balm of consolation upon his wounded spirit.

"O Woodvil, those were happy days  
When we two first began to love; when first,  
Under the pretence of visiting my father,  
You came a wooing to his daughter, John."

Ah, Johnny was a sly rogue then, but he is not in the right mood for a joke now; and he is monstrously dull at a hint. He reproaches himself in a most dolorous ditty for his unkindness; and Margaret, who has a sweet tooth, longs for a piece of wedding cake, and heighos to be married, perpetually interrupts his repentance, by reviewing the faded images of old times.

"Dost yet remember the green arbour,  
John?"  
And so on, and so on, and so on.

Margaret at length begs a boon upon her knees, namely, that he will think more nobly of himself: Johnny says, very truly,

"O lady, poor and abject are my thoughts!"

In return he asks a favour of Margaret.

"Will you go with me, Margaret?"

MARGARET. (*Rising*).

"Go whither, John?"

JOHN.

"Go in with me  
And pray for the peace of our unquiet  
minds?"

MARGARET.

"That I will, John." (*Exeunt.*)

By and by they hear some bells chiming, which, upon inquiry, prove to be the church bells of Saint Mary Ottery.

MARGARET.

"Wilt go to church, John?"

JOHN.

"I have been there already."

MARGARET.

"How canst say thou hast been there already. 'Tis not yet ten o'clock."

The fact is, that as Johnny had not been at church for two whole years, he thought his presence might offend a Christian congregation, so he got up early in the morning, and went all alone, knelt down upon the little hassock, cried twice, and then prayed. Poor Margaret is left in the lurch, for without any matrimony thus endeth the story of Johnny Woodvil—A TRAGEDY!

After this heart-wringing tragedy, follows a ballad, from the German, Helen, a poem of half a dozen stanzas, and some fragments, in which the quaint manner of Burton is successfully imitated. We shall extract the *ballad*; the word is affectedly spelt.

"The clouds are blackening, the storms  
threatening,

And ever the forest maketh a moan;  
Billows are breaking, the damsel's heart aching;

Thus by herself she singeth alone,  
Weeping plenteously.

"The world is empty, the heart is dead  
surely,

In this world plainly all seemeth amiss;  
To thy breast, holy one, take now thy little  
one,

I have had earnest of all earth's bliss,  
Living lovingly."

What precious nonsense! but this is a specimen of that canting, whining style, or rather *slang* of poetry, which is now-a-days offered to us as the very essence of simplicity and pathos!

We have given an extended notice of "John Woodvil," a tragedy, for the same reason that we have transcribed this *right* pitiful plaint; for the purpose of holding up to ridicule that affectation of plainness and simplicity, which is the flimsiest covering for incapacity that was ever assumed.

It is well known that with children the exercise of *the sewing* is a favourite amusement; when they reach the highest point of elevation, an arc of the succumbent circle is instantly and involuntarily described; they reach the opposite extreme, and repeat the movement. "Men," says the poet, "are but chil-

dren of a larger growth:" their tastes and their opinions certainly proceed and retrograde from one extreme to its opposite, following very analogously the pendulous motion of this swing. A school of poetry has within a few years been set up by Mr. Lamb, and some others, whom it would be indecorous to enumerate, as their works are not before us, where all harmony of numbers is despised, all the regularities of rhythm, and variety of cadence, are disregarded, and from which all the graces of language are contemptuously banished. This harmony of numbers, these regularities of rhythm, and variations of cadence, have, it is true, in many instances, been more attended to than chastity of sentiment, and vigour of expression. Disgusted, probably, that these ornaments should have been distributed with an ill-judged profusion, this school, in order to reform the taste of the age, and enamour it with the charms of simplicity, not content with stripping poetry of her superfluous embellishments, and arranging tastefully

those which would really adorn her person, and set off her beauties, has absolutely deprived her of the common decencies of dress. The nymph is now always pouting, always melancholy, always discontented and fretful; she may well be ashamed of her nakedness, for she really is not fit to be seen. In this school too, she has been taught such an abominable lesson of affectation! instead of those high-bounding spirits, that animated eye, that healthy, generous, and open countenance, on which every passion, as it arose, was faithfully portrayed; the affected little minx is always sighing and crying, her eye is always downcast, her look demure, and countenance deceitful. Her character is in every respect changed for the worse; and it is for the sole purpose of rescuing her from the further ill effects of such detestable tuition, that we have been induced thus loudly to plead in her behalf, and to express our hopes that the school may be speedily broken up and forgotten.

ART. XXXIX. *A Tale of Mystery; a Melodrama, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden.* By THOMAS HOLCROFT. 8vo. pp. 51.

THE "Tale of Mystery" is a tale of horror, the effect of which must be greatly heightened by the accompaniments of music, and appropriate scenery. Indeed there is a good deal of serious pantomime introduced; so numerous, and so minutely detailed, are the instructions to the performers, that the printed play seems rather addressed to the manager of a theatre than to the public at large.

"I cannot," says Mr. Holcroft, "forget the aid I received from the French drama, from which the principal incidents, many of

the thoughts, and much of the manner of telling the story, are derived. I exerted myself to select and unite masterly sketches, that were capable of forming an excellent picture; and the attempt has not failed."

This last remark we should have made ourselves, but Mr. H. has anticipated us. The dialogue is animated, the incidents striking, and, as the event has proved, calculated, with the aid of Doctor Busby and Messrs Phillips and Lupino, to produce an impression upon the audience.

ART. XL. *The Bedouins, or Arabs of the Desert; a comic Opera, in three Acts; as it was performed at the Theatre Royal, Dublin; with Corrections and Additions.* By EYLES IRWIN, M.R. I.A. 12mo. pp. 60.

THE Bedouin who plunders a traveller in the desert, will protect him in the tent, and the rights of robbery never interfere with the laws of hospitality. This singularity is exhibited in the character of Abdallah, a portrait which Mr. Irwin has drawn from life; although an imperfect, he says, it bears a faithful resemblance of Osman Abu-Ali, the great sheick of the Arabs, in Upper

Egypt, when the author passed through that country.

The dialogue of the drama wants spirit, and we should have thought the sentiments and conduct of Zeleika extremely extravagant, but that we cannot put our knowledge of the Arabian character in competition with that of Mr. Irwin.

**ART. XLI.** *The Poor Gentleman; a Comedy, in five Acts; as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden.* By GEORGE COLMAN, (the Younger). 8vo. pp. 83.

THE galleries of Covent Garden theatre have loudly applauded the low, the very low humour of this comedy. It was not very wise, on the part of Mr. Colman, to remove his cause from a court which was so favourably disposed to him.

**ART. XLII.** *A Trip to Bengal; a musical Entertainment, in two Acts.* By CHARLES SMITH. 12mo. pp. 52.

AN amusing little drama, illustrative of the modes and manners of "the most elegant and enlightened, as it is the most extensive and important, colony of Great Britain." A very spirited portrait of Mr. Smith, is prefixed to this publication, painted by himself, and engraved by Mr. Reynolds.

**ART. XLIII.** *Chains of the Heart; or the Slave by Choice, in Three Acts, performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden.* By PRINCE HOARE. The Music composed by Mazzinghi and Reeve. 8vo. pp. 92.

THE intent of this opera was to introduce anew to the stage, and give a proper scope to the talents of two favorite singers, whose accomplished eminence leaves, in their own line, all competition at a distance. Mr. Prince Hoare is excessively irritated at the open-mouthed and violent cries of the critics: we will avoid his mighty wrath, and at once, for his sake and our own, let him pass muster.

**ART. XLIV.** *The Wife of a Million, a Comedy, in five Acts, as performed by his Majesty's Servants of the Theatres Royal, Norwich, Lincoln, and Canterbury.* By FRANCIS LATHOM. 12mo. pp. 93.

THIS is one of those mediocre productions, to praise which would be flattery, and to censure it would be severity.

**ART. XLV.** *Urania; or the Illuminé: a Comedy, in Two Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane.* By WILLIAM ROBERT SPENCER, Esq. 8vo. pp. 83.

A MILD and very well-managed satire of the prevailing belief in Germany of supernatural visitations, of the existence and agency of ghosts and hobgob-

lins, demons, vampires, and apparitions of every kind. Manfred, prince of Colonna, accompanied by his friend Conrad, the Count of Porta, arrives at Tarentum, in consequence of his father's earnest desire that he should marry the young Princess: Manfred himself, however, is equally anxious to avoid it. "And can you think, my friend, that after such a zealous and persevering enquiry into the occult science; at the moment when I am almost sure of gaining the affections of an immortal intelligencer, can you think that I will be diverted from my high calling by a mere mortal? I own that my pulses throb at the idea of beauty, and that my heart pines for fellowship; I know too that the Princess of Tarentum is fair and virtuous, and mistress of these rich domains; but what are all earthly riches compared to the treasures of the grand science? and what is all human beauty compared to that of the daughters of immortality?"

The plot, then, is to make Manfred fall in love with Urania as an ethereal spirit: she descends from a cloud, 'midst the soft music of the spheres, with all the celestial beauty of an angel. The hero is entranced, and he marries as a woman her whom he loved as an immortal.

The dialogue to the underplot is managed with considerable humour: Pietro, the servant of Manfred, falls in love with Jaqueline, who is already engaged to Roderigo, the Princess's gardener.

## ACT II.

SCENE.—*The Garden of the Castle.*

*Enter RODERIGO the Gardener.*

*Roderigo.*

Oh Jaqueline! that you, whom I thought the sweetest and the purest of flowers, should turn out such a venomous weed;—you first sowed the seeds of love in the hot-bed of my heart, brought them forward with the sunshine of your eyes—and now comes the frost of your unkindness, to nip all my hopes!—My eyes run over like a watering-pot, and my heart swells like a bulged cabbage.—Then to leave me, who sprung on her own native soil, for this exotic Pietro—a canker on him! if I could see him I would root him out like a dock. (*Works.*)

*Enter PIETRO, reading a Letter.*

*Pietro.* Oh! bless thy mal-spelling, kind-hearted, lovely Jaqueline—the Princess has promised thee five hundred sequins if thou marriest a worthy man.—I am a worthy man, and thou wilt marry me: ergo, the five hundred sequins are thine; and ergo they



are mine. O sweet-looking pot-hooks, up and down—up and down, like the jacks of an harpsichord playing a jig. Then for my rival—what does the dear creature say, (*reading*) “I like a single word of yours better than all Roderigo’s famous speeches.”

*Rod. (looking up.)* Roderigo’s famous peaches? Did your honour wish for some of my famous peaches? Indeed, I believe there are no finer in all Italy, they all grow on a south wall; and, as I suppose your honour is the young Prince who is come after our Princess, I shall be proud to offer you of the very best.

*Pietro (aside.)* Egad! this is my rival himself; he has never seen me, and my fine air makes him take me for the Prince—this will do. Hem! indeed, are you Roderigo? the most renowned gardener that ever put dung to a cucumber? I am happy to make your acquaintance. I was just reading one of my letters from Rome, wherein my friend desires me to taste Roderigo’s famous peaches.

*Rod.* Your honour’s greatness is very flattering to be sure—to be sure, I believe no gardener ever produced a finer shew of fruit, or flowers either; then, to be sure, I have studied in botany, and know how to call every plant by its long name. But now, your honour, I must give all up—I must give it all up—and all, begging your pardon, owing to your honour.

*Pietro.* Give up your profession, owing to me? how so, Signor Roderigo?

*Rod.* Is not your honour the master of one Pietro?

*Pietro.* Why—why, yes, in some degree, his master; Pietro generally does every thing that I wish him to do.

*Rod.* Now then, if your honour would only wish him to hang himself, perhaps he might obey you, and all would be well with me again.

*Pietro.* Why, faith, I never thought of forming such a wish for Pietro. There was once, indeed, some idea of Pietro’s being hanged; and it gave me such a confounded odd feel about the neck, that I have never liked to think of it since.

*Rod.* Oh! I see your honour’s heart is as tender as a *medlar*, and therefore I may venture to mention Jaquelina.

*Pietro.* Jaquelina! Oh dear—I like that name; pray mention it as often as ever you please.

*Rod.* Well then, your honour, this Ja-

quelina is daughter to Signor Carlos, who lives here, hard by.

*Piet o.* Ah! I know him.

*Rod.* Why then, this Jaquelina, please your honour, used to come here into the Princess’s garden, and after moistening her mouth with some of my peaches, that your honour has heard so much about—(I will get your honour some of them by dinner-time)—I used to teach her the long names of the plants, and tell her a little about grafting and propagation, and such like; and then we talked about plants loving each other, and—

*Pietro.* Oh, I understand you; talking about the fashionable system of vegetable matrimony. Plants that cling together, hotbeds, nurseries, suckers, and so forth, put you in mind of—

*Rod.* Just so, your Honour, put me in mind of classing her and myself according to the Linnean system.

*Pietro.* Faith, Roderigo, nothing could be more natural. I dare say you have found all the ladies more frequent visitors to your garden since this system has become prevalent.

*Rod.* In truth, all the ladies who come to the castle do say that botany has lately become a most interesting pursuit.

*Pietro.* To be sure it has; in my country there is scarcely a girl of twelve years old, who cannot tell you every vegetable intrigue, from a rose-tree down to a cabbage-plant; the sphere of love, and of scandal too, is removed from the play-house to the kitchen-garden.

*Rod.* True, very true, your honour—if you could but see here sometimes the Countess Hortensia, with her two pretty daughters, Signora Rosa and Signora Myrilla, how they do handle and figure every flower that they meet with! Dear mamma, says one, do see this plant, it looks rather withered and drooping; do you think it is in love, mamma? Lord, child, says she, that’s a tetrandrian plant, which has got four husbands, you know—poor thing, no wonder it looks drooping, (she adds, with a sigh;) four husbands must be a great deal to bear with!!

*Pietro.* In truth, Signor Roderigo, botanical loves are interesting, or disgusting, according to the nature of the parties—an amorous myrtle may give a pleasant idea, but a gallant parsnip—oh, fie!—Linnean amours may be pleasing among geraniums, in a green-house, but they are d—n d low among sow-thistles in a ditch. But Jaquelina—

ART. XLVI. *Folly as it Flies: a Comedy, in Five Acts; as performed at the Theatre-Royal Covent-Garden.* By FREDERIC REYNOLDS. 8vo. pp. 65.

THE man who beats among the bushes for follies, will at all times find plenty of game; and he must be a bad marksman who does not *wing* some of them, although perhaps his shot may not bring them to the ground. Mr. Rey-

nolds is a veteran sportsman, and does not often go out—without filling his bag. He is never at a loss; for if he does not always find, he has the art of *making game* enough for his own purpose.

ART. XLVII. *A House to be Sold. A Musical Piece, in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre-Royal Drury-Lane: By JAMES COBB. The Music composed and selected by MICHAEL KELLY. 8vo. pp. 56.*

MR. MESHEC (one of the characters) when he has bought the house, truly enough observes that it is "put a pad pargain."

#### MISCELLANIES.

ART. XLVIII. *The Arabian Nights; translated by the Rev. ED. FORSTER, with Engravings from Pictures by ROBERT SMIRKE, R. A. 8vo. 5 vol. pp. 420. and 5 Engravings in each volume.*

WE are rejoiced to find these interesting stories at length put into a garb worthy of them. The present, like all the former versions of the work, is introduced to our language through the medium of M. Galland's French translation; to its detriment, probably, if regarded as a book of authority, but doubtless greatly to its advantage in point of decorum and literary merit. With the exception of a few, very few, gallicisms, the idiom is completely English and the style natural and flowing. The work is printed in a very handsome manner by Bulmer, and is both ornamented and illustrated by the genius of Mr. Smirke: "of whose exertions and success," says our author, "in which we entirely coincide with him, I cannot speak too highly. He has conceived the different styles that were necessary for the humorous, the graceful, and the wonderful, with the mind of a man who knew and felt the beauties of his subject; and has executed them with the hand of a master, who has given the full effect to his own conceptions."

ART. XLIX. *Gesner's Works. 3 vols. crown 8vo. pp. 711.*

THE name of Gesner has long been familiar to the English reader, from his very popular work the *Death of Abel*, which was translated by Mrs. Collyer soon after its appearance. Many of his idyls and other poems have also been presented to the public through the medium either of English or French translations, but the present publication is the first complete translation of the works of the German Poet. It is introduced by a well written preface, which contains a biographical sketch of the amiable author. He was the son of a printer and bookseller of Zurich, and though he succeeded to his father's share of the business; he fortunately had partners who left him pretty much to the bent of his

own genius. After one or two pastoral poems, he gave to the world his *Idyls*, and in 1758 his *Death of Abel*, which was eagerly read, and translated into all the European languages. He then published his *First Navigator*, and made some attempts in the pastoral drama. It is a singular circumstance, that, after having cultivated with so much success the muse of Poetry, he suddenly transferred his attachment to the kindred art of Painting, in which he also attained great excellence.

"The poems of Gesner were almost all given to the world before he had completed his thirtieth year. About this period he married, and, as he himself informs us, his father-in-law, Mr. Heidigner, having a beautiful collection of paintings, consisting chiefly of the works of the great masters of the Flemish school, he devoted his leisure to the study of their beauties, and became deeply enamoured of their art. Gesner, who in his youth had received some lessons in drawing, resumed the pencil, but with a timid hand. At first he ventured only to delineate decorations for curious books printed at his office, but by degrees he rose to bolder attempts. In 1765, he published ten landscapes, etched and engraved by himself. Twelve other pieces of the same nature appeared in 1769; and he afterwards executed ornaments for many publications that issued from his press, among which were his own works, a translation into German of the works of Swift, and various others. The reputation which he acquired by his pencil, was scarcely inferior to that arising from his pen. He was reckoned among the best artists of Germany; and Mr. Fueslin, his countryman, in his 'Historical Essay on the Painters, Engravers, Architects, and Sculptors, who have done honour to Switzerland,' gives a distinguished place to Gesner, though then alive.

"The private character of Gesner was, in a high degree, amiable and exemplary. As a husband, a father, and a friend, his virtues were equally conspicuous. His calm mind was pensive, and even melancholy; his manners gentle.—In conversation he was mild and affable, and where the subject admitted of it, often highly animated, rising into great elevation of sentiment, and beauty of expression. But in every part of his deportment, there was that unaffected sincerity, that simplicity and modesty, by which true

genius is so generally distinguished. With qualities such as these, Gesner could not fail to be loved and respected; and uniting to taste and literature the talents requisite for active life, he was raised by the suffrages of the citizens of Zurich to the first offices in the republic. In 1765, he was called to the great council; in 1767, to the lesser. In 1768, he was appointed bailiff of Elibach; that of the four guards in 1776; and in 1781, superintendant of waters, all offices of trust and responsibility, the duties of which he discharged with scrupulous fidelity.

"The fame of the accomplished and virtuous magistrate of Zurich spread to the remotest parts of Europe. The Empress of Russia, Catherine II. sent him a gold medal as a mark of her esteem; and strangers from all countries, visiting Switzerland, courted his society, and gave him the most flattering proofs of their respect and admiration. In the height of his reputation he was cut off by the stroke of a palsy, on the 2d of March, 1788, in the 56th year of his age."

The compositions of Gesner are all written in a kind of measured prose; they are all of the pastoral kind, and filled with images from the classic mythology. From this character, indeed, must be excepted his *Death of Abel*, where the subject precluded him from the use of his Pantheon, and in which his pastoral approaches to the confines of epic grandeur. The scenery of Gesner is artificial, as well as his personages, as the translator well observes. "In his pastorals the rough simplicity of the Swiss peasant, the awful sublimity of the Helvetic scenery are not to be found." His landscapes are Sicilian, and his manners are those which have been appropriated to the Golden Age, but the great merit of Gesner consists in his having introduced into his pastorals the scenes and incidents of domestic life, in delineating the affections of parents and children, husbands and wives, brothers and sisters. His love is chaste, his morals pure, and the tender sentiments of his own good heart seem to spread themselves over the works of his fancy. It must be acknowledged, however, that the profusion of Cupids and altars, and garlands and river gods, is more calculated to please those who are in their blossomy part of life than those who have put away childish things.—The first volume contains the *Death of Abel*, and a letter on landscape painting addressed to Mr. Fuesslin, which shews the attention with which the author had studied the works of the best artists, and

the felicity with which he had united and blended the tastes of the painter and the poet. The next volume contains the *Idyls*, in which he has professedly taken Theocritus for his model. Among them, however, is one Swiss idyl, *The Wooden Leg*, a very pleasing one. To these follow (much of the same nature, and like them enriched with many touches of picturesque beauty), *Miscellanies*, among which we observe a continuation of the story of *Inkle and Yarico*, in which Inkle is made to repent. It seems as if the amiable mind of the author could not bear to leave any body wicked. Indeed, Gesner, as well as Metastasio, whom he resembles in many particulars, has a monotony in his characters; they are all cast in the same mould of virtue, and sentiment, and sensibility. Next follows *The first Navigator*, a very elegant and pleasing fancy piece; the invention of navigation is supposed to be owing to the influence of love; an earthquake has broken off from the main land a small island, upon which is a cottage, containing a mother and a young girl about eight years old; they thus become separated from the rest of their species. When the girl is sixteen, the imagination of a young man, to whom his father tells the story, is strongly impressed with the circumstance, and, after many efforts, he makes a vessel which carries him over. The third volume contains *Daphnis*, a pastoral, and two *Dramatic Pastorals*, both which are rather heavy, and the *Deluge*, which has merit. With regard to the translation, it is easy and elegant, and the style, without being too much inflated, has that degree of rhythm which the subject demands. The general effect is increased by ornamental designs from the pencil of Stotkard. We shall give a specimen of the translation from one of the prettiest of the idyls, entitled *Mirtillo*.

"*Mirtillo* returned late at evening from the banks of the lake, whose placid waters sparkled in the moon-light; the calm beauty of the landscape, and the song of the nightingale, had detained him entranced in silent rapture. When he approached the vine-covered arbour before his lonely hut, he perceived his old father slumbering in the moonbeams; he had sunk down, with one arm supporting his grey head. *Mirtillo* stood long contemplating him, and his eyes rested fixedly on the old man, except when he raised them towards heaven, through the glistening leaves of the vine, and tears of filial love and joy bedewed his cheeks,

"Oh thou, he said, whom next to the gods I most honor, Father! how soft are thy slumbers; how sweet is the sleep of the just! With trembling step at sun-set thou camest out of the hut, to hallow with still prayers the peaceful hour of evening; and while thou prayedst, sleep stole upon thee. For me also have thy prayers arisen. Father! how blessed am I: the gods listen to thy supplications, or wherefore dwell we thus secured under the shade of these fruit-laden trees; wherefore do blessings descend upon our flocks and herds, and on the fruits of our fields? Often when my weak care of thy feeble age draws tears of joy from thy languid eyes, when thou lookest up to heaven, and blestest me, Father! how sweet are my sensations; how my heart swells, and tears of rapture trickle over my cheeks. This morning, when, to refresh thyself in the warm sunshine, thou camest out of the hut, leaning on my arm, while the flock gambled around thee, when thou sawest the trees heavy with

fruit, and the rich golden harvest waving in the neighbouring plain, my hairs are grown grey in joy, didst thou say: be blessed, ye fields! not long shall my dim eyes wander over ye; soon shall I exchange you for happier plains! Ah, father! best of friends, soon shall I lose thee; Oh! thought full of sorrow. Then will I make an altar by thy tomb; and as often as the blessed day arrives in which I can do good to a fellow-creature, I will strew flowers and pour milk on thy grave, Oh! my father.

"He was silent, and looked with tearful eyes on the old man: How he smiles in his slumbers; the images of his good deeds arise before him; the moon-light gilds his pale face, and glistens on his silver hair and snowy beard! Oh! soft blow the cool gales of evening upon thee, and harmless descend around thee its chill unwholesome dews!

"He kissed the old man's forehead to awake him gently, and led him into the cottage to slumber on the warm skins."

ART. L. *An Essay on Irish Bulls.* By R. L. EDGEWORTH, Esq. and MARIA EDGEWORTH. Crown 8vo. pp. 308.

THE title of *Irish Bulls* is a tempting one for an Englishman, who is fond of broad humour, and wishes to indulge in a laugh at the expence of his neighbours across the channel. To laugh at the Irish is not, however, the purpose of this ingenious piece of *perisflage*. Our Hibernian fellow subjects are not fond of being laughed at, and are apt to be a little sore when their national peculiarities are brought before an English public. Those who have read *Castle Rackrent* (and who has not read it, that has a taste for genuine humour, and exquisite delineation of character?) will, perhaps, have found the true key to this performance, which we cannot help considering as a sort of *amende honorable*; the offering of the rose to the offended shamrock.

The authors consider bulls etymologically, historically, critically, and poetically; they endeavour to parallel every Irish bull with one from another nation, and where they cannot dispute the originality, they resolve the blunder into poetic licence, and insinuate, that the warmth of heart, and brilliancy of fancy, with which nature has endowed the Hibernian, is the true cause of that disposition to trip in his speech, of which we accuse him. The whole is written in a strain of grave irony, and a number of pleasant stories are introduced, with which the reader cannot fail of being

entertained, whatever he may think of a vindication which seems to be half in jest, half in earnest.

The story of *little Dominic* is at once humorous and pathetic, but as it is rather too long to give our readers as a specimen, we shall present them with the following story, brought to prove the superior genius of the Irishman, and his disposition to use high figurative language.

"A quarrel happened between two shoeblacks, who were playing at what in England is called pitch-farthing, or heads and tails, and in Ireland, head or harp. One of the combatants threw a small paving stone at his opponent, who drew out the knife with which he used to scrape shoes, and plunged it up to the hilt in his companion's breast. It is necessary for our story to say, that near the hilt of this knife was stamped the name of *Lamprey*, an eminent cutler in Dublin. The shoeblack was brought to trial. With a number of significant gestures, which on his audience had all the powers that Demosthenes ascribes to action, he, in a language not purely attic, gave the following account of the affair to his judge.

"Why, my lard, as I was going past the Royal Exchange, I meets Billy—'Billy,' says I, 'will you sky a copper?'—'Done,' says he—'Done,' says I—and done and done's enough between two gentlemen.—With that I ranged them fair and even with my hook-em-snivey—up they go.—'Music!' says he—'skull!' says I—and down they came, three brown mazzards.—

‘By the holy you fleshed ‘em,’ says he—‘You lie,’ says I.—With that he ups with a lump of a two year old, and lets drive at me—I outs with my bread earner, and gives it him up to Lamprey in the bread basket.”

“To make this intelligible to the English, some comments are necessary. Let us follow the text, step by step, and it will afford our readers, as Lord Kaimes says of Blair’s Dissertation on Ossian, a delicious morsel of criticism.

“As I was going past the Royal Exchange, I meets Billy.

“In this apparently simple exordium, the scene and the meeting with Billy, are brought before the eye, by the judicious use of the present tense.

“Billy, says I, will you sky a copper?

“A copper! *genus pro specie!* the generic name of copper for the base individual halfpenny.

“Sky a copper.

“To sky is a new verb, which none but a master hand could have coined; a more splendid metonymy could not be applied upon a more trivial occasion; the lofty idea of raising a metal to the skies, is substituted for the mean thought of tossing up a halfpenny. Our orator compresses his hyperbole into a single word. Thus the mind is prevented from dwelling long enough upon the figure to perceive its enormity. This is the perfection of the art. Let the genius of French exaggeration, and of eastern hyperbole, hide their diminished heads. Virgil is scarcely more sublime.

‘Ingrediturque solo et caput inter nubila condit.’

‘Her feet on earth, her head amidst the clouds.’

“Up they go, continues our orator.

“Music! says he—Skull! says I.

“Metaphor continually; on one side of an Irish halfpenny there is a harp; this is expressed by the general term music, which is finely contrasted with the word skull.

“Doon they come, three brown mazzards!

“Mazzards! how the diction of our orator is enriched from the vocabulary of Shakespeare. The word head, instead of being changed for a more general term, is here brought distinctly to the eye, by the term mazzard, or face, which is more appropriate to his majesty’s profile than the words skull or head.

“By the holy: you fleshed ‘em, says he.

“By the holy! is an oath in which more is meant than meets the ear; it is an ellipsis—an abridgement of an oath. The full formula runs thus—By the holy poker of hell! This instrument is of Irish invention or imagination. It seems a useful piece of furniture in the place for which it is intended, to stir the devouring flames, and thus to increase the torments of the damned. Great judgment is necessary to direct an orator how to suit his terms to his auditors, so as

not to shock their feelings either by what is too much above, or too much below common life. In the use of oaths, where the passions are warm, this must be particularly attended to, else they lose their effect, and seem more the result of the head than the heart. But to proceed—

“By the holy! you fleshed ‘em.

“To flesh is another verb of Irish coinage; it means, in shoeblack dialect, to touch a halfpenny, as it goes up into the air, with the fleshy part of his thumb, so as to turn it which way you please, and thus to cheat your opponent.—What an intricate explanation saved by one word!

“You lie, says I.

“Here no periphrasis would do the business.

“With that he ups with a lump of a two year old, and lets drive at me.

“With that.—These are not unmeaning words, used like the expletives by some orators, merely to gain time; for though the phrase, *with that*, varies in signification according to circumstances, either it denotes that one action immediately follows another as its consequence, or else it implies, that two actions happen, or two ideas occur, actually at the same time.

“I ups with.—A verb is here formed of two prepositions—a novelty in grammar. Conjunctions, we all know, are corrupted Anglo-Saxon verbs; but prepositions, according to Horne Tooke, derive only from Anglo-Saxon nouns.

“All this time it is possible, that the mere English reader may not be able to guess what it is, that our orator ups with, or takes up. He should be apprised, that a lump of a two year old, is a middle sized stone. This is a metaphor, borrowed partly from the graziers’ vocabulary, and partly from the arithmeticians’ vade-mecum. A stone, to come under the denomination of a lump of a two year old, must be to a less stone as a two year old calf is to a yearling; or it must be to a larger stone than itself, as a two year old calf is to an ox. Here the scholar sees, that there must be two statements, one in the rule of three direct, and one in the rule of three inverse, to obtain precisely the thing required; yet the untutored Irishman, without suspecting the necessity of this operose process, arrives at the solution of the problem by some short cut of his own, as he clearly evinces by the propriety of his metaphor. To be sure there seems an incongruity in his throwing this lump of a two year old calf at his adversary. No arm but that of Milo could be strong enough for such a feat. Upon recollection, however, bold as this figure may seem, there are precedents for its use.

“We read, in a certain author,” says Beattie, ‘of a giant, who, in his wrath, tore off the top of the promontory, and flung it at the enemy; and so huge was the mass,



that you might, says he, have seen goats browsing on it as it flew through the air.' Compared with this, our orator's figure is cold and tame.

"*I outs with my bread-earner*," continues he.

"We forbear to comment on *outs with*, because the intelligent critic immediately perceives, that it has the same sort of merit ascribed to *ups with*. What our hero dignifies with the name of his bread-earner, is the knife with which, by scraping shoes, he earned his bread. Pope's ingenious critic, Mr. Warton, bestows judicious praise upon the art with which this poet, in the Rape of the Lock, has used many 'periphrases and uncommon expressions,' to avoid mentioning the name of *scissors*, which would sound too vulgar for epic dignity;—fatal engine, forfex, meeting points, &c. Though the metonymy of *bread-earner* for shoeblack's knife, may not equal these in elegance, it perhaps surpasses them in ingenuity.

"*I gives it him up to Lamprey in the bread basket*,

"Homer is happy in his description of wounds, but this surpasses him in the characteristic choice of circumstance. *Up to Lamprey*, gives us at once a complete idea of the length, breadth, and thickness of the wound, without the assistance of the coroner. It reminds us of a passage in Virgil:

'*Cervice orantis capulo tenus abdidit ensem.*'

'Up to the hilt his shining faulchion sheathed.'

"Let us now compare the Irish shoeblack's metaphorical language with the sober *slang* of an English blackguard, who, fortunately for the fairness of the comparison, was placed somewhat in similar circumstances.

"Lord Mansfield examining a man who was a witness in the court of King's Bench, asked him, what he knew of the defendant.

'O, my lord, I knew him. *I was up to him.*'

'Up to him!' says his lordship, 'what do you mean by being up to him?'

'Mean, my lord! why, *I was down upon him.*'

'Up to him, and down upon him!' says his lordship, turning to Counsellor Dunning, 'what does the fellow mean?'

'Why, I mean, my lord, as deep as he thought himself, *I staged him.*'

'I cannot conceive, friend,' says his lordship, 'what you mean by this sort of language, I do not understand it.'

'Not understand it!' rejoined the fellow with surprise, '*Lord what a flat you must be!*'

'Though he undervalued Lord Mansfield, this man does not seem to have been a very bright genius. In his cant words, '*up to him—down upon him—staged him*,' there are no metaphors; and we confess ourselves to be as great *flats* as his lordship, for we do not understand this sort of language."

ART. LI. *A critical Enquiry into the moral Writings of Dr. Samuel Johnson, in which the Tendency of certain Passages in the Rambler, and other Publications of that celebrated Writer, is impartially considered. To which is added an Appendix, containing a Dialogue between Boswell and Johnson in the Shades.* By ATTALUS. 8vo. pp. 144.

IF there is any man with the little-nesses of whose character we are thoroughly acquainted, it is certainly Dr. Johnson: by means of the prying, impertinent curiosity of his friends, and the officious industry of his biographers, we have obtained more knowledge concerning the obstinate prejudices of Johnson, his slavish superstitions, and his childish fears, than we could ever have derived from his writings alone, strongly as in many instances these exhibit the peculiar texture of his mind.

The weaknesses in the character of this great man have been scoffed at by the vain, and derided by the gay; whilst they have been the subject of scorn to the proud Pharisee, to the lowly Publican they have afforded a sort of melancholy consolation. But the sober eye of the philosopher must ever view them with sorrow and humiliation: for sorrowful and humiliating is the reflection

to humanity, that the man whose intellectual powers exalted him above the level of his species, and that the moralist whose pages will continue to delight and to instruct mankind so long as taste and genius have existence, should, in his own person, have been subject to some of the most ignoble and debasing infirmities of our nature, and have given us reason to exclaim in the language of deep humiliation, "Lord, what is man, that thou art mindful of him, and the son of man, that thou shouldst visit him with thy favour!"

If the character of Dr. Johnson has been minutely criticised, so also have his writings; and the author of the pamphlet before us, is one of those who have ventured to charge them with a *partial* tendency to the deterioration of mankind.

"The utility," says he, "of Dr. Johnson's Rambler, as a moral work, may be

justly questioned. Every thing which tends to obstruct the activity of man, and to crush well-founded hopes in this life, severely merits reprehension. The circle of our pleasures is sufficiently contracted, and our truest happiness can be derived only from the present moment; the past and future being objects either of regret or desire. To restrict them still more is of no avail, whether the end proposed be the advancement either of religion or morality; but it may be the cause of infinite injury. The gloomy representations of life, as exhibited by Johnson, have this direct and only tendency, to repress the arm of industry, to check the vigour of enterprise, to suppress rational wishes, to fill the mind with a hateful distrust of society, and to foster the most pernicious prejudices."

Again,

"Dr. Johnson uniformly displays to us all the miseries of life: but where shall we find one scene of its felicities? That it has felicities, every man's bosom will inform him; and that it has misfortunes, is no less certain. Both are certain, and much of both depends upon ourselves. I think it will be found, that every stage of existence possesses its appropriate pleasures: nor are the thoughtless murmurs of inexperience, or the captious complaints of debility, to be the estimate of the whole. Johnson has drawn an insidious and cynical comparison between youth and age (No. 196), in which more ill-nature than truth predominates."

Speaking of *Rasselas*, our author observes,

"It is penned with a certain awful grandeur, which seizes upon the mind, and the whole passage is written in such an exquisite manner, and with such simplicity of language, that we almost forget its faults in admiring its beauties. Such power has eloquence over the affections, that it can even adorn falsehood, and lead us insensibly into error, unless we resist its power with magnanimity, and turn from its wiles with disgust.

"From this consideration of *Rasselas*, it will be obvious to every reader, how prejudicial it must be to the minds of youth. It is painful to consider, how much the genius of Johnson was degraded, in composing a series of fictitious incidents, that might afford amusement for an idle hour, to those whose judgment could not be perverted. But it is likely to have another effect, and that more fatal; it is calculated to vitiate the principles of the ignorant, and the young; and as these may be said to compose by far the greater part of society, it is hence calculated to do much injury which can never be repaired. Youth is generally taught to respect age and wisdom, and to regard their dictates as sacred; this, though a stupid custom, is,

however, a prevalent one, and we are therefore to consider the effects likely to be produced by any thing on society as *it is*, not as it *ought to be*. He who shall be taught to trust in the wisdom of Johnson, will obey the precepts of prejudice and falsehood; he will form opinions that can never be realised, and expect events which are not in nature; he will expect deceit and fraud where there is honesty and candour; he will be caressed and honoured, where he thought to be repulsed and despised; he will meet with gratitude and affection, where he looked for villany and reproach; he will find friendship where he expected perfidy, and love instead of hatred. In short, he will find man just and equitable, and capable of generous sentiments, and generous actions; and not, as Johnson represents him, a mass of fraud, malevolence, and deceit; burning with all the malignity of envy, and all the acrimony of revenge; for such is the picture of the human heart, as exhibited by this gloomy moralist, and as such it is dishonourable to his genius, and to his memory. I do not hesitate to declare, that, considered in a certain point of view, his writings are more calculated to injure than benefit society, and ought to be sedulously withheld from the early perusal of inquisitive and candid youth."

Remarks of a similar kind with these which we have quoted, pervade this pamphlet. We have no fault to find with them; on the contrary, they appear to be well founded, but we do object to the appellation of *misanthrope*, when applied to Johnson. "Johnson naturally possessed a misanthropic way of thinking:" "his misanthropy and prejudice are eminently manifest in his *Rambler*, p. 5." And yet in the very next sentence, Attalus truly observes, that "the great design of this work was to instruct mankind; to teach the happiness of virtue and religion; to display the horror of vice and impiety; to inculcate a proper subordination of the passions; and to arm the mind against the vicissitudes of life." This is a most strange definition of misanthropy!

Where has Johnson implored a grace like the philosopher Apemantus?

'Immortal gods! I ask no pelf,  
I pray for no man but myself!'

Where has Johnson emulated the full-grown hate of Timon?

—Son of sixteen,  
Pluck the lin'd crutch from thy old limping  
sire,  
With it beat out his brains! piety and fear,  
Religion to the gods, peace, justice, truth,

Domestic awe, night-rest, and neighbourhood;  
Instruction, manners, mysteries, and trades,  
Degrees, observances, customs, and laws,  
Decline to your confounding contraries,  
And let confusion live!"

On the contrary, whatever may be the tendency of any portion of Dr. Johnson's writings to depress genius, and to make the virtuous man unhappy, by contemplating the slowness of his advances towards perfection, his intentions were always to promote the felicity of mankind. Attalus, indeed, appears to have used the word misanthrope, without sufficiently reflecting on its import: for though free in his censures of the moralist whose works he criticises, he is far from being niggardly of praise.

"Johnson was a zealous assertor of virtue and religion, and never failed to attack with the thunder of his writings those who dared to violate them. Nor did he exhaust his rage merely to display imaginary beauties of

phraseology, or powers of argument (as it is too often the case), without any real participation of what he wrote; his piety was acknowledged to be great; and his motives, whatever consequence might ensue from his actions, were, I believe, never thought to have been depraved; and these qualities, above all his others, demand our esteem. He that shall despair to possess the genius of Johnson, let him endeavour to imitate his virtues, and if he cannot equal him as a writer, which is very doubtful, and at best but indifferent, let him aspire to his piety and goodness, which is always attainable, and always beneficial."

We could lengthen this article by numerous passages, where Attalus has done ample justice to the comprehensive genius of Johnson, to the vigour of his understanding, and the excellence of his heart. The enquiry, indeed, is every where conducted with impartiality, seriousness, and respect. The press is very carelessly corrected.

ART. LII. *Claims of Literature: the Origin, Motives, Objects, and Transactions, of the Society for the Establishment of a Literary Fund.* 8vo. pp. 278.

"THE magnitude and importance of the Society for the Establishment of a Literary Fund," says Mr. Williams, "have produced a laudable curiosity concerning its origin, and the principles and views on which it is founded." A committee was in consequence appointed to direct the publication of an enlarged edition of the constitution, poems on anniversaries, &c. This committee assigned to Mr. David Williams, Mr. Boscawen, and Mr. Reeves, distinct provinces of the general undertaking of satisfying that curiosity, and aiding by argument, and by the removal of doubts and objections, the eloquence of those poets who have successfully pleaded before the public the cause of unfortunate writers. Mr. Reeves, however, declared himself so well satisfied with what the other two gentlemen had prepared on the subject, that he thought any additional remarks of his own would be superfluous. To Mr. Williams and Mr. Boscawen, therefore, are the public indebted for the able development of the views of the society, which is presented in these pages.

A just sense of the importance of literature, and the deep misery which men of genius, men who have cultivated their minds, refined their feelings, and rendered all the sensibilities of their na-

ture more than commonly acute, by the pursuits of science, learning, and of taste, experience, when reduced to penury, and exposed to the contumely of the unfeeling proud, had, long before this society was established, made a lasting impression on the minds of some individuals, who solicited by advertisement contributions from the public, for the establishment of a fund towards the relief of literary persons, when reduced to distress.

Several fruitless attempts were made,

"But the subject having been frequently discussed, in the conversations of a CLUB—the general origin of enterprizes in England—it had taken possession of the minds of the members; and when the news arrived that FLOYER SYDENHAM, the beloved friend of several of those members, had silently suffered extreme distress, and died in poverty of a broken heart, a resolution was adopted, to expiate the grief and shame of the event, by a MONUMENT TO HIS MEMORY, in the institution of a Literary Fund.

"Eight gentlemen subscribed each a guinea, which they repeated three or four times in the first year, to keep an advertisement generally before the public, of which a copy is subjoined; the constitutions were drawn up, a committee and officers appointed, and the society, in miniature, was formed.

"The advertisement continuing to draw numbers, and the receipts of the society ex-

ceeding its expenditure, the cases of claimants were taken into consideration and relieved; and its first anniversary held on the 18th of May, 1790."

The society has now been established twelve years; during which period it has administered relief to 196 cases of distress; the number of persons who have experienced its bounty is 105. The total amount of contributions received from the 1st of January 1790, to the 15th of October 1801, is £3898 14 6

It has paid on application for relief, and for inci- dental expences, -	2240 5 4
Its purchases in stock amount to - - -	1439 15 0
So that the balance in hand, on October 15, 1801, was	218 14 2

It is surely surprising, in this country, which may vie, perhaps, with any in the world for its spirit of charity, and general philanthropy, that any serious obstacles should have arisen against the establishment of a society so laudable and disinterested in its views of relief. Mr. Williams however, to whom the honour is due of having founded the society, and who continues to be one of its most zealous supporters, assures us that objections of the most extraordinary nature were urged; these objections are stated in the present publication, and refuted by that gentleman with ability and success.

"On the first intimation of the design, it was asked

1st, "What is meant by LITERATURE, when proposed as the object of a charitable fund?"

2dly, "The author of the first outline of the institution, was charged with assuming what he should have proved, that the benefits of literature outweigh its evils; and it was alleged, if that opinion were proved, he would not be justified in promoting those

evils, and increasing the number and misery of authors, by holding out encouragement to the choice of literary employments.

3dly, "The society was charged with indirect censure of the government of the country, though that government has liberally founded schools and universities, and supports learned and opulent establishments.

4thly, "And, supposing the establishments of the country should not provide for all literary claimants, it was seriously and earnestly advised to leave them, as they had hitherto been left, to the direction and patronage of the government, nobility, and opulent gentry, and not to undertake their relief by a LITERARY FUND."

The inanity of these objections is so striking, that it is with us a matter of astonishment they should ever have been seriously urged; and if it were possible, which it is not, we should have suspected Mr. Williams of having conjured up a giant for the purpose of showing his prowess in slaying it. The giant, however, is slain, and Mr. W. has exhibited much vigor and address in the combat.

Prefixed to the poetical contributions, one of which has been usually recited at the anniversary meetings of the society, are some observations by Mr. Boscawen, on the honourable and important object for which the institution was established, on the delicacy with which the application of its funds has been marked, on the careful selection of objects for relief, and on the happy effects with which, in numerous instances, this delicacy and selection have been attended.

As to the poetical contributions, with the exception of one or two, they have already been before the public: Mr. Boscawen himself, the elegant and spirited translator of Horace, has presented on this newly erected altar of benevolence, the most frequent and the most valuable offerings.

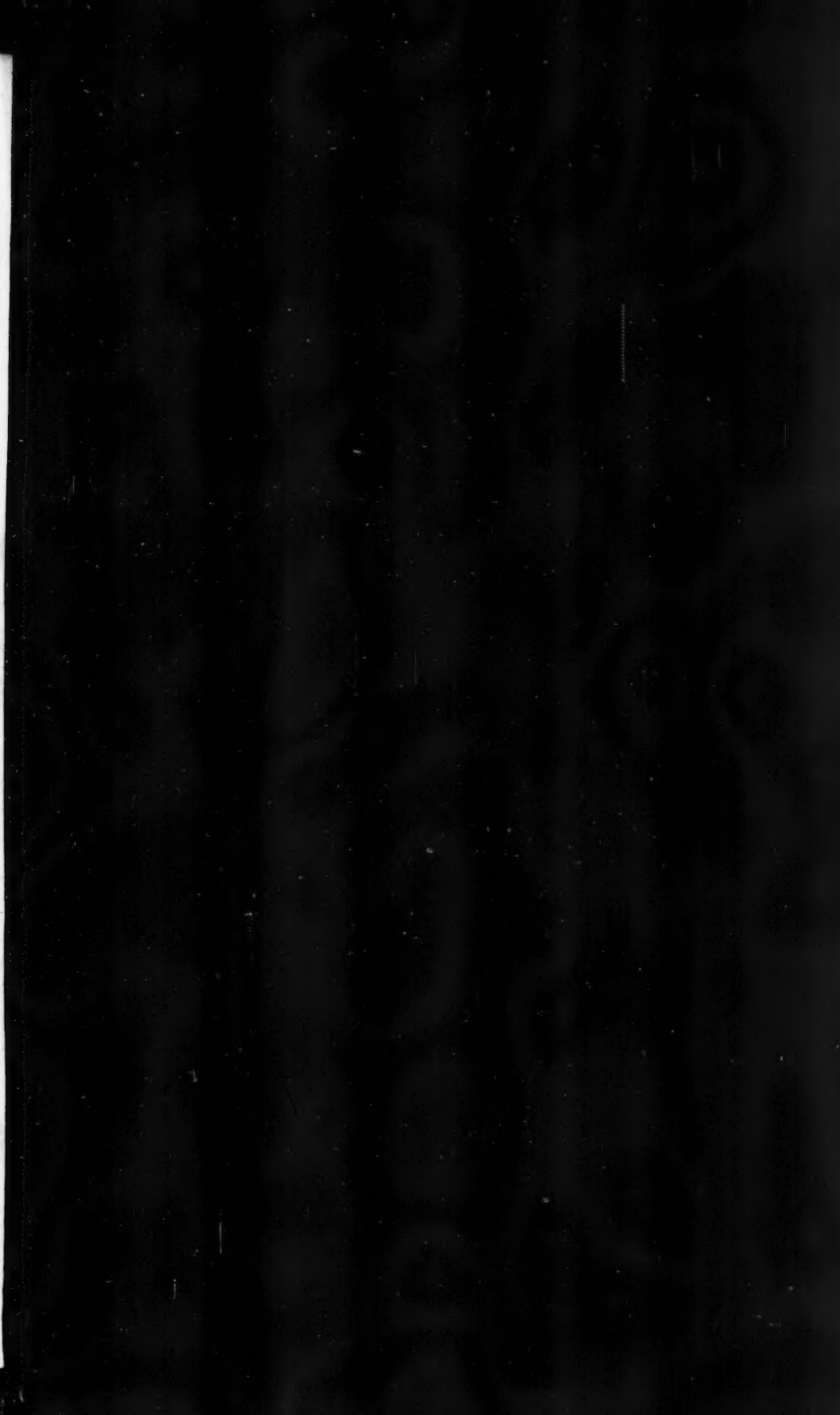
ART. LIII. *The Miscellaneous Writings of Francis Bacon, Baron of Verulam, Viscount St. Alban's, and Lord High Chancellor of England, in Philosophy, Morality, and Religion: now first collected into one Volume.* 12mo. pp. 260.

CONCERNING this mighty genius, at once the ornament and the disgrace of his age, or, as Pope somewhere calls him,

"The greatest, wisest, meanest of mankind," it were idle to make any random desultory remarks; and this is obviously not

the place to engage in a dissertation on the philosophical researches of a man whose works will be admired so long as science has existence.

A complete edition of Lord Bacon's works was published about sixty years ago, and we are gratified in observing that a republication of them, although







in a disjointed manner, is likely to be welcomed. This miscellany, we are informed by the editor, is intended as a companion to the edition of his Essays, published some short time ago: it contains, among some other articles, Lord Bacon's Apophthegms, Ornamenta Rationalia, the Colours of Good and Evil, the New Atlantis, Filum Labyrinthi, Loquela Chartarum, and the Essay on Death. It is very neatly printed, and an engraving is prefixed of the monument of Lord Bacon at St. Michael's church, St. Alban's.

ART. LIV. *Collectanea: or an Assemblage of Anecdotes, Aphorisms, and Bon Mots, adapted for Instruction and Amusement; selected from the Works of foreign Authors of distinguished Merit.* Small 8vo, pp. 323.

AN improvement upon the celebrated humourist Joe Miller: here are some good anecdotes, and we have not fallen upon one which can offend the most fearful delicacy.

ART. LV. *Proverbs, or the Manual of Wisdom; being an alphabetical Arrangement of the best English, Spanish, French, Italian, and other Proverbs.* 8vo. pp. 152.

NOTHING more than what the title communicates can be said of such a compilation as this; and nothing can be quoted to characterise it, except the dedication;

“To the  
Conceited fool who thinks himself wise,  
And is not so:  
To the wise, who sensible of his own  
defects,  
Has humility enough to wish to receive  
A new ray of knowledge from  
Another's wisdom:  
In other words, to Mr. A.?  
And Mr. B.?  
With a sovereign contempt for the  
former,  
And a sincere affection for the latter,  
This little volume is  
Warmly recommended,  
As singularly useful to both,  
By  
Their most obedient,  
Humble Servant,

THE EDITOR.”

ART. LVI. *Mottos; or Imagery of Life.* 16mo. pp. 123.

A SERIES of moral reflections, which speak quite as highly of the author's heart as of his head.

ART. LVII. *A Letter addressed to the Honourable C. J. Fox, in Consequence of his Speech in the House of Commons on the Character of the late most noble Francis Duke of Bedford.* 8vo. pp. 57.

THE conduct of the late Duke of Bedford, on his death bed, according to the received accounts of his final hours, was in perfect consistency with the general tenor of his character. Under great personal suffering and acute bodily pain, he employed in the equitable and convenient arrangement of his pecuniary concerns, in attentions to his friends and neighbours, in services to his relations and survivors, the whole force of his mind, and the entire effort of his faculties. All attention to his own state was superseded by a solicitude to provide for the ease and comfort of those who were to live after him. This is just as it should be. If a man suffers with no prospect of relief, he should rather bear the inevitable evil with fortitude, than extend, by complaints and groans, his suffering to others. If a man has not made his will during health, he should rather exert himself in sickness, than leave his property exposed to exceptionable distribution. But the author of this letter seems to be of opinion, that the virtues of this much regretted character, were rendered of little or no avail, on account of the absence of the offices of religion from the closing scene of his life, and that men are to be judged, not by the total tenor of their conduct, but by their last hour, an opinion, we will venture to say, of very mischievous tendency. Attention to religious concerns was certainly not the characteristic of the late Duke of Bedford, nor did it form any part of Mr. Fox's panegyric; if it had, this writer might have had some grounds for his censure. As a friend, as a public man, as a brother, and as a landlord, the Duke of Bedford was eminently meritorious; and his memory is unquestionably entitled, not indeed to be sainted, but to be had in remembrance and example, by all those to whom virtue, whether combined or not with piety, is dear.

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ART. LVIII. *Recherches sur l'Origine de l'Imprimerie.*

*Researches, historical, literary, and critical, upon the Origin of Printing, particularly upon its first Establishment, in the Fifteenth Century, in Belgium, now united to the French Republic: ornamented with the Portraits and Devices of the first Flemish Printers. By Citizen P. LAMBINET. 8vo.*

"THE general history of ancient typography would soon be complete," says Citizen Lambinet, "if the learned men and the antiquarians who inhabit the towns, universities, and monasteries, where it was established in the fifteenth century, would carefully collect all the books that have issued from thence, and bring forward from their archives the documents relative to the authors and artists who published them. Being a citizen of Belgium, from the year 1772, I have made some attempts to render myself useful in the department of instruction, and in that of literature. In 1791 I conceived the design of treating particularly upon the books of the fifteenth century, printed in the provinces now united to the French Republic. If this work has not the merit of the greatest perfection, it has at least that of novelty.

"My first study has been to ascertain the editions published in different towns, and to point out the libraries where they may be found, that the curious may verify them, and judge if they answer the descriptions which I have given. They have not all the same degree of certainty. Some have been published with date and signature; others without date, but with the printer's signature; the third without signature or date, but with an identity of types to the two former. It is, therefore, necessary to divide the editions of each artist into three classes, to reason upon the form of their types, to make known the authors of their works, their country, their dwelling place, and the age in which they lived. This is the only means of assigning to each edition the degree of certainty, or probability, or likelihood, which it deserves."

M. Lambinet proceeds to say, that the catalogue of rare books deserve in general no credit. The bibliographical works, he says, are minute, tedious, and most soporifically dry; the bibliographers themselves mere imitators, and he calls them *servile cattle*, in a learned quotation from Horace! The great cause of their errors, it seems, has been their ignorance of the essential parts of typography, that is, the shape of the punches, a science denominated *chalcography*; the art of the dies, the cast of the letters, and the actual impression; three other sciences, which, to the shame of our age, have as yet no peculiar

names. Without the knowledge of this mechanism, it is impossible for men of letters, bibliographers, and printers, to have any exact ideas of the art. "I have applied myself to the acquirement of this knowledge," says M. Lambinet, "in the workshops. I have laboured to give a clear and succinct idea, which will illuminate the cradle of this art, and its progress; and serve to decide the dispute between the three towns who claim the invention."

The preliminary chapters are the most interesting part of this work. The author begins with the earliest attempts at communicating knowledge to posterity, the astronomical pillars of Seth, mentioned by Josephus, and the monuments erected by Sesostris, which Herodotus saw in Palestine. "They who believe more in Mercury than in Moses, know the celebrated Egyptian columns, upon which Hermes engraved his doctrine; columns which Pythagoras and Plato studied, and to which, according to Jamblicus, they are indebted for all their philosophy. These monuments still existed in the time of Proclus, in the year 500 of the Christian æra." It is evident that an author who relies upon Jamblicus and Proclus, "believes more in Mercury than in Moses." M. Lambinet then enumerates, with unnecessary minuteness, the different written monuments mentioned in early writers, from the hieroglyphical temples of Egypt to the written rocks of Scandinavia. A curious etymological note by M. Thirion is inserted here. In most ancient languages the words which signify to *write*, are derived from radicals which mark the action of engraving, furrowing, cutting marks or lines: *γραψαι* in Greek; *scribere*, *exarare*, in Latin; *rita*, in Icelandic; *writan*, in Anglo-Saxon; *wryten*, *ryten*, in old Flemish, &c. The Runic letters are so called from the old Danish *run*, *ryn*, a furrow, trace, or line.

The Bardic mode of writing has escaped M. Lambinet's researches. They cut their poems upon bars of wood, arranged like a gridiron; the bars were

square, and inscribed on all sides; so that twenty bars would contain a poem of fourscore lines. This they called "carving a book." The Bardic letters, like those of all early alphabets, are angular.

Gems and coins next engage the author's attention, and the affinity between the medallic and typographic arts. Coins at first were impressed only on one side, as the first specimens of printing were only on one page. It is certain that die-sinkers and engravers invented printing. Caylus conjectures by the transpositions and reversed letters upon old medals, that the ancients actually stamped them with moveable types. It is, indeed, unaccountable how the ancients did not discover, or stumble upon, the discovery of printing.

The second chapter details the different implements and manners of writing, the reed, the style, &c.; the left-handed writing of the oriental, the horizontal, perpendicular, and *orbicular* methods. M. Lambinet has again profited by the learning of his friend M. Thirion:

"*Liber* is the Latin name for the inner bark of a tree; but particularly of the linden (*tilia*, *tilleul*.) *Ren*, *rin*, *rinde*, *run*, in old Flemish signify the same thing. *Codex* means the body or trunk of the tree. The word *bible* is from the Greek *βιβλος*, and that is derived from *βιβλος*, an Egyptian shrub, whose leaves served for paper: *βιβλος* in Greek signifies properly the linden; it was after used to designate the interior bark of that tree. If the Orientals have given the preference to the linden for paper and books, the northern nations, and in particular the Danes, have used the beech for the same purpose. This tree, which is very common among them, is called *bog*, in Danish; *boek*, *bueke*, in Flemish and in Saxon; *buck*, in modern German; *boc*, *leoc*, *toec*, in Anglo-Saxon, &c. Letters were called by the ancient people of the north, *stav*, *staf*, *stab*, a staff; and *logstav*, *boekstaf*, *buenstab*, a beechen staff. The Hungarians also call a letter *botu*, and this word is derived from *boc*, *baculus*, a staff." P. 18.

Paper is then traced to the papyrus of Egypt, parchment to the invention of the people of Pergamus, when the kings of Egypt had forbidden the exportation of papyrus; and the word *volume* to the rolls of antiquity.

"Miror in hoc igitur tantarum pondere rerum Unquam te nostros evoluisse jocos." OVID.

ANN. REV. VOL. I.

"The art of making paper is deduced from the East. There it is made from cotton rags; and at Samarcand, of silk. The Saracens who conquered Persia carried this art into Arabia: from thence the Greeks learnt it; and the crusaders brought it into Europe, where the want of cotton was supplied by linen. Maffei had discovered no paper in Italy older than a deed of the bishop of Verona in 1367. An earlier specimen exists in the *cortorium* of the church of St. Sepulchre at Caen, a journal of receipts and expences from 1323 to 1354. Bullet mentions a still older deed at Besançon, dated 1302. But Peter the Venerable, who was abbot of Cluni in 1120, mentions paper expressly. The books which we read every day, says he, are made of sheep skin, or deer or calve skin, or from eastern plants, or from rags of cloth. *Ex rasuris veterum pannorum compacti*."

We have next the history of ink, and the various compositions made by different nations for the purpose of writing. The copiers are then mentioned, the short-hand of Tiron, the abbreviations of the Greek writers.

"Modern stenography," says M. Lambinet, "which, like the telegraph, dates in France from the foundation of the republic, has neither the inconvenience, nor the obscurity, nor the danger of the ancient. The old characters varied under the hand of the copiers, and the sense changed according to the genius of the interpreters; so that contractions are become so many enigmas, because we can refer to no other copies to ascertain the true reading, and because the authors are no longer in existence. But, by the present system of stenography, the writers follow the words of the public orators, take down their speeches, the motions, the debates of the tribune, or the lectures of the professors at the Lyceum, and produce a literal transcription at last, in the usual characters, and in print."

What is this improved short-hand to which the author alludes?

"Printing from wooden blocks, say the Jesuits, has been practised above sixteen hundred years in China. When an author chooses to print his work, he has it fairly transcribed upon a thin and transparent paper. Each leaf is then reversed and fastened upon a smooth block of hard wood, upon which the engraver cuts the characters in relief. There must be, therefore, a separate block for every page. This has the advantages of the stereotypic printing, and is executed, we are told, at a very trifling expence: but so laborious an operation can be cheap only in a country where labour is worth little. They have also moveable types

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of wood, which are used for printing their periodical accounts of the state of the empire. The method of printing linen and paper for hangings has been known in the East from time immemorial. That these arts should not have reached us sooner from that distant part of the world is not wonderful; but if we did not remember the apology of Columbus and the Egg, we might accuse the Romans of blindness or folly. Ivory letters were used by them, as by us, for the amusement and instruction of children. St. Jerome advises Læta to procure them for her daughter. *Fiant ei litteræ vel buxæ, vel eburnæ, et suis nominibus appellentur. Ludat in eis, ut et lusus ipse eruditio sit.* Quintilian speaks of the same artifice, and long before it had been recommended by Plato. But the most obvious approach to the discovery is in the famous argument of Cicero against the atomists. If he believes that the fortuitous combination of atoms has formed the world, why does he not believe that the letters of the alphabet might be thrown upon the ground, and form the Annals of Ennius? *Cur non idem putet, si innumerabiles unius et viginti formæ literarum, vel auræ, vel qualeslibet aliquæ conjiciantur, posse ex his in terram excussis annales Ennii effeci?*"

One is tempted to believe, says the author, that the arts of engraving prints, and printing upon paper and cloth, have been lost in the dark ages.

"At the end of the fourteenth and beginning of the fifteenth century, the Italians, Germans, Flemings, and Dutch, began at the same time to engrave upon wood and copper; but the previous advances had been gradual. The inscriptions in relief upon monuments and altars, in the cloisters, and over church porches, served as models for block-printing. The letters upon painted windows greatly resemble those in the books of images. The invention of cards was an intermediate step. Bullet, in his *Recherches Historiques sur les Cartes à jouer*, has proved from old chronicles, in particular from that of Petit-Jean de Saintré, from edicts civil and ecclesiastical, and from the figures of the cards, that they were invented towards the end of Charles the Fifth's reign, about 1376. By the shape of the crowns, and the sceptres with the *fleur de lis*, he infers that the French invented them. They soon were introduced into Spain, Italy, Germany, and England. The names of the suits seem rather to imply a Spanish or Italian origin. At first the cards were painted; about the year 1400 a method was devised of printing them from blocks. To this we may directly trace the art of printing. The books of images form the next step. These also were printed from wooden blocks; one side of the leaf only is impressed, and the correspondent

text is placed below, beside, or proceeding from the mouth of the figure."

Of these very rare books M. Lambinet mentions seven:

"1. *Figure typicæ veteris atque antitypicæ novi testamenti.* This is the work which in Germany is called the Bible of the Poor; because it was originally designed as an abridgment of the Bible for those who could not purchase the whole scriptures in manuscript, and who probably could not read. There is one copy of this work in the Bodleian; another at Christ's College, Cambridge. 2. *Historia S. Joannis Evangelistæ, ejusque visiones apocalypticæ.* 3. *Historia seu Providentia Virginis Mariæ, ex cantico canticorum.* 4. *Ars moriendi.* 5. *Ars memorandi notabilis per figuras Evangelistarum.* 6. *Donatus, seu grammatica brevis in usum scholarum conscripta.* It is not easy to conceive how this can be classed among the books of images. Even Mr. Fuseli, accustomed as he is to paint unreal shapes, would find it difficult to make an appropriate picture that should represent the beginning of this work. *Partes orationis quot sunt? Dico, Quæ? Nomen, Pronomen, Verbum, Adverbium, Participium, Conjunctio, Præpositio, Interjectio.* The eight parts of speech would make noble personifications upon canvass! 7. *Speculum humane salvationis.* There is said to be an English translation of this work. Two other books of images, the *Teurdanck* and the *Triumph-wagen*, are posterior to the common use of printing."

Seven cities in Greece disputed for the birth of Homer; so, says M. Lambinet, three cities in Europe claim the honour of the invention of printing: to which is the honour due? to Harlem, Mentz, or Strasbourg? This question the author has treated in a new and masterly manner. He asks what is *printing*? The art of making an impression upon one body by pressing it with another. But this has been known in all ages. It has been done upon wax, upon plaster, upon iron, by the ancients: their seals, their rings, their money, prove it. It has been done with wooden blocks upon cotton and silk by the Indians. Printing therefore, in this limited sense, was common to all nations.

"What is engraving? The art of cutting letters, names, or figures, in or upon solid bodies. But the ancients have exercised this art in fixed and in moveable characters. The Orientals only struck impressions from wooden blocks; no nation from metal plates. The Europeans have no monument from wooden blocks before the end of the fourteenth, nor from copper plates before the



end of the fifteenth century. But how were the letters in the Books of Images engraved? In relief or in *intaglio*? Reversed or right? Letters which were engraved in their right position on wood, or in metal, would be reversed in the impression, and of course could convey no accurate representation. But these monuments, which are still preserved, which were produced at the close of the fourteenth and the beginning of the fifteenth century, in Germany, in Italy, in Belgium, and in Holland, prove incontrovertibly, that the letters were cut inversely. Therefore neither Harlem, Strasbourg, nor Mentz, can exclusively arrogate the merits of this discovery. The fusion of metals, the formation of moulds to give them the figure and form designed, are as ancient as coins, statues, clocks, cannon, weights and measures. Neither of the three cities can claim this invention. He only can be considered as the inventor of printing who has united in one workshop the arts of engraving, founding, and printing, and devised all the instruments necessary for each of these arts. In this, as in every art and science, the progress has been gradual, and almost imperceptible.

"The history of Koster is a fable. His claim was never advanced till an hundred and thirty years after his death. The monument and the medals of Harlem prove only that that city willingly adopted an opinion which was favourable to its own glory. The tale is in itself improbable, that a man between threescore and seventy should amuse himself with cutting letters upon the bark of trees, and so accidentally discover what had long been known and practised. His servant Fust is said to have stolen his types, and set up with them at Mentz: but twelve years elapsed from the time of the theft, before he attempted to profit by it. This tale is disproved by its own absurdity.

"The first attempts at printing were made at Strasbourg. This is incontrovertibly proved by the following circumstances: John Guttenberg entered into a partnership with Andrew Drizehennius, John Riff, and Andrew Heilmann, all citizens of Strasbourg; binding himself to discover to them some important secrets, whereby they should make their fortunes. Each at first contributed 80 florins, and afterward 125. The workshop was in the house of Andrew Drizehen, who died. Guttenberg immediately sent his servant Beildeck to Nicholas, the brother of the deceased, to request him to suffer no one to enter the workshop, lest the secret should be discovered, and the *forms* stolen. But this had already been done. This theft, and the claim which Nicholas made to succeed to his brother's share, occasioned a law suit, and the evidence of the servant is explicit and incontrovertible: "Laurentius Beildeck dixit, se aliquando a Joanne Guttenberg ad Nicolaum Drizehen, post mortem

Andree fratris ejusdem, inissum esse, ut ipsi nunciaret ne *prelum*, quod apud se haberet cuiquam monstraret, idque se curasse. Addidit Guttenberg ipsi insuper mandasse ut subito ad *prela* se conferret, et illud *prelum*, quod duabus *cochleolis* munitum esset, aperiret, ut *paginae* dilabatur in partes, easque partes vel supra *prelum* poneret: ita neminem rem vel inspecturum, vel aliquid ejus intellecturum."

The date of this document is 1499. It was published in the original German, with a Latin version, by Schopffin, in his *Vindiciæ Typographicæ*. M. Lambinet says the German is obscure, and that every one will interpret the equivocal words in favour of his own opinion. It is, however, manifest that Guttenberg expressly ordered that the *forms* should be broken up, and the characters dispersed; and that the press is mentioned. Guttenberg, after having sunk what he and his associates had embarked in this speculation, returned to Mentz, and succeeded better in a partnership with Fust. The earliest writers who mention printing all agree that Guttenberg was the inventor; that he began the art at Strasbourg, and perfected it at Mentz.

There seems to be some contradiction in the subsequent part of this account. The *Catholicon*, the first work which Guttenberg and his new associates produced, is said to have been printed from fixed blocks of wood; that they next cut separate letters; and finding that a work of intolerable labour, devised a method of casting them in matrices. It is evident that Guttenberg's characters at Strasbourg were moveable. How then does this part of his history tally with the foregoing? Certain, however, it is, that by this man and his associates the art of printing was completed at Mentz. When that city was taken by Adolphus Count of Nassau in 1462, Fust and Schoeffer suffered materially with their fellow townsmen. Their associates and workmen dispersed to seek their fortunes, and the art was thus diffused over Europe. When it was first established at Paris, the copiers finding their business so materially injured, presented a memorial of complaint to the parliament, and that tribunal, as superstitious, says M. Lambinet, as the people who took the printers for conjurors, had their books seized and confiscated. Louis XI. who, villain as he was, was

the friend and patron of letters, forbade the parliament to take any farther cognizance of the affair, and restored their property to the printers.

Gothic letters were used in the Books of Images; not the alphabet of Ulphilas, but what is called modern Gothic, and which, in fact, is only the Roman character disfigured according to the fashion of different nations, and the caprice of the writers. These had been employed in inscriptions, in painted windows, and in church manuscripts. Guttenberg, Fust, and the earliest of their successors, used our black letter, which has fewer lines and points. These characters, still more simplified, became in France what is called *la bâtarde ancienne*. The Italic was the running hand of the Roman law courts; these types were called Venetian, from the place where they were invented; and Aldine,

from the name of their celebrated inventor. The first Aldus was so laborious in correcting his proofs, that he never printed more than two sheets in a week. The Roman characters were revived about 1430 upon the seals of the popes. The Emperor Frederick III. employed them upon his seal. Under Louis XI. they were used upon his coins. Gunther Zayner, of Reutlingen, was the first who adopted them in printing, in 1742. Nicolas Jenson was the man who established the forms and proportion of the Roman types as they are still used.

The remainder of this volume relates wholly to Flemish printers, and the titles and dates of their publications. M. Lambinet has treated the subject with industry: to make it either interesting or useful was impossible: it is exclusively calculated for bibliographers.

ART. LVIII. *An historical Account of the Discovery and Education of a Savage Man; or the first Developements, physical and moral, of the young Savage caught in the Woods near Aveyron in the Year 1798.* By E. M. ITARD, Physician to the National Institution of Deaf and Dumb, &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 148.

TO the philosopher these few pages present a most curious and interesting *morceau*; they exhibit the extraordinary, almost unique model of a human being completely savage; of a human being on whom no solitary ray of civilization had once beamed, and all whose faculties lay completely dormant. From a contemplation of the utter helplessness of this insulated animal, the philosopher is enabled to estimate justly the blessings and advantages of society: and he finds his knowledge enlarged of the natural history of man.

It is a circumstance extremely fortunate, that the young savage of Aveyron should have fallen into the hands of one who could appreciate the importance of his prize: whose judgment was actively employed in the development of his physical and moral energies, whose scientific eye detected the slow and almost imperceptible progression, and whose hand has recorded the interesting narrative.

We have had accounts of a few individuals, who, in the course of the seventeenth century and the early part of the eighteenth, have been found at different intervals, living in a state of solitude among the woods, where they had been abandoned at the most tender age: but

such, it is truly observed, was the tardy progress of science, the students of which were devoted to theory and uncertain hypothesis, and to the exclusive labour of the closet, that actual observation was reckoned of no value; and these interesting facts tended little towards improving the natural history of man.

This young savage was taken by three sportsmen as he was endeavouring to escape from their pursuit, by climbing a tree, in the woods of Caune, where he had been seen sometime before looking for acorns and roots, on which he subsisted. He appeared to be about eleven or twelve years of age, was deeply scratched and otherwise wounded in various parts of his body, by the bites of animals, and by the thickets among which he wandered. He was taken to Paris, where the curiosity which was at first excited by his appearance soon subsided. "In the midst of this general indifference, says Mr. Itard, the administrators of the National Institute for the deaf and dumb, and its celebrated director, did not forget that society, in drawing to herself this unfortunate youth, had contracted towards him indispensable obligations, which she was bound to fulfil. Entering then into the hopes which I had conceived from a

course of medical treatment they determined that he should be entrusted to my care."

When first taken,

"His eyes were without steadiness, without expression, wandering from one object to another, without fixing upon any thing; so little instructed in other respects, and so little experienced in the sense of touch, that he was unable to distinguish between an object in relief and a painting: the organ of hearing was alike insensible to the loudest noises and the most charming music: that of the voice was still more imperfect, uttering only a guttural and uniform sound: his sense of smell was so little cultivated, that he seemed to be equally indifferent to the odour of the finest perfumes, and to the most fetid exhalations; finally, the sense of feeling was limited to those mechanical functions which arose from the dread of objects which might be in his way."

His intellectual faculties were as completely torpid as his organs of sensation. His strange and violent gesticulations, together with his rapid and unaccountable transition from joy to melancholy, induced a strong suspicion of idiotism. M. Itard, however, was unwilling to accede to the inference: and anxious to make the most complete investigation of so singular a case, he arranged a plan which he hoped might effectuate his purpose.

I reduced, says he, to five principal heads, the moral treatment or education of the savage of Aveyron. My objects were,

"1st. To attach him to social life, by rendering it more pleasant to him than that which he was then leading, and, above all, more analogous to the mode of existence that he was about to quit.

"2d. To awaken the nervous sensibility by the most energetic stimulants, and sometimes by lively affections of the mind.

"3d. To extend the sphere of his ideas, by giving him new wants, and by increasing the number of his relations to the objects surrounding him.

"4th. To lead him to the use of speech,

by subjecting him to the necessity of imitation.

"5th. To exercise frequently the most simple operations of the mind upon the objects of his physical wants; and, at length, by inducing the application of them to objects of instruction."

The means employed for the accomplishment of these several purposes, and the degrees of success with which they were attended, constitute the subjects of the ensuing sections. It is impossible too much to admire the maternal tenderness of Madame Guérin towards this hapless youth, or the skilfulness, the perseverance, and the humanity which Mr. Itard continues to exercise in the instruction of him. Let not the slow and reluctant development of young Victor's faculties, be assumed as an unpropitious omen: the sculptor can more easily form the human face from an unshapen block, than he could alter the chiselled features of an animal, and model them to the similitude of man. Mr. Itard has not only to instruct this youth in the art of remembering, but in the equally or more difficult art of forgetting: he must make him 'unknow his knowledge and unthink his thoughts:' he has not the mere unshapen block before him, but he has to work upon a hard marble which the hand of nature has already sculptured into the likeness of a brute. The long patience, and the delicate skill required for this operation, are scarcely to be conceived: and if it is contemplated with all its difficulties, we shall be rather astonished at the success of the present artist, than discouraged at the tardiness of his progress.

We flatter ourselves that Mr. Itard will continue to note down with accuracy, the gradual metamorphose of each successive feature, and, at intervals, report his advancement.

Among other slips in the translation, we have observed one which demands notice, viz. *Cretans* for *Cretins*!

ART. LIX. *Moeurs et Coutumes des Corses: Mémoire tiré en partie d'un grand ouvrage sur la Politique, la Législation et la Morale des diverses Nations de l'Europe.* Par G. FEYDEL. Nouvelle édition. 8vo. pp. 112.

*Manners and Customs of the Corsicans, &c. &c.*

CORSICA, which at different times has been under the dominion of different powers, has exhibited a singular contrariety of character. Whenever pos

sessed, then

"Fleecy flocks the hills adorn,  
And vallies smile with wavy corn:"

whenever lost, it is one of the most sterile, desolate, and uncultivable spots upon the face of the earth! Let us hear what M. Feydel says of it: out of 500 square leagues which the island of Corsica contains, about 160 are covered with forests! The pine and the larch are remarkable for their beauty and their excellence, particularly the latter, which seems to be a noble variety of the arch of the Alps, or the cedar of Lebanon. The oak is deceitful: in the lapse of ages it has, indeed, acquired an ample growth; but time has deteriorated its quality in augmenting its bulk. Animals of all sorts are of very inferior size: the largest horse has neither height nor strength to carry a dragoon; the ox scarcely arrives at half, and the hog at one-third of the weight which the same animals have in France: the ass is too small even to be ridden by a female. Wild animals are proportionately small; the wolf is so degenerated that the inhabitants take it for a great fox. Man himself is of smaller stature in this isle, than he is in either of the neighbouring continents. The native Corsican very rarely exceeds five feet (French) in height. Notwithstanding this degeneracy of all animals, Corsica is represented as one of the finest countries in Europe. Corn, grapes, and olives, are of the first quality; nature produces them spontaneously, and in abundance. It is not unusual to reap sixty, eighty, an hundred for one, and sometimes even more than that.

"When the ill-fated Theodore obtained for himself the crown of Corsica, he was urged to the measure by stories which had been told him of the fertility of the island, and of the facility with which he could open an extensive commerce with the countries which border the Mediterranean: he thought—and many superficial politicians and misguided philosophers have thought after him—that the Corsicans, if they enjoyed tranquillity, would yield themselves up to agriculture and commerce. But constitutive laws are what the Corsicans stand in need of; and since the theory of moral institutions is yet to be unfolded, the principles from which these laws are to be deduced, are not, even to this time, understood."

The following is a picture of the Corsican:

"He is lively, intrepid, ingenious, and adroit, but excessively indolent both in body and in mind: to act and to reflect are two fatigues, which he never submits to but in cases of extreme necessity. Agriculture, grazing, hunting, and fishing, are his only occupations, and to these he devotes no more time than is necessary to save him from starving either with cold or hunger. It is indolence confines his wants (according to the situation he holds in life) within the limits of strictest necessity. The husbandman, for instance, labours only about three months in the year, and passes the other nine in a state of shameful inaction; to which, however, he attaches ideas of honor. The Corsicans are at this day what they were thirty years ago, a miserable people on a luxuriant soil; a people by whom labour is even considered as a punishment, and reflection as a misfortune."

From time immemorial each *peuplade*, or *tribe* (of which there are five) has exercised the right of war and peace in respect to other *peuplades*; it has thence followed, that each family arrogates to itself the same right with respect to other families. The consequence is dreadful; assassinations are frequent, and almost every quarrel is concluded by homicide,

"The only sure guarantee of any treaty of peace concluded between two families, is an exact equality of the number of deaths on each side: on any condition but this, every treaty is reputed shameful for that family from which the greatest number has been killed; the other family, indeed, will assuredly, by fresh murders, equalize the number. Written laws are nothing which oppose this custom."

"An English general who commanded the garrison at Ajaccio, but whose authority extended no further than over his own troops, endeavoured to obtain the esteem of the Corsicans by reconciling two families of a village, between whom the death of a member had created enmity. The principal inhabitants of the village appeared to join with him in this kind office: they commenced a negotiation, during which time from thirty to forty armed men proceeded to Ajaccio. The English general had no occasion to trouble himself with any long exhortations; the parties consented to embrace each other, to drink together to the health of his Majesty King George, and returned towards home. They had scarcely left the town when a combat ensued; five men were killed on one side, and two on the other: peace was then concluded in good earnest."

"I cannot pass over in silence the following fact, which happened almost under my own eyes, and I relate it as an instance where the savage honour of the Corsican had

to contend against the sentiment of friendship; three men belonging to two families worked in one vineyard; a quarrel arises; the discharge of a musket kills one of two cousins upon the spot. The survivor, obliged to revenge his death, fires at the murderer; but the ball ill-directed, breaks a limb of his antagonist, and leaves him alive: touched with compassion, he completes not his revenge upon the wounded man, but takes the third musket, which is yet charged, goes into the village, and kills one of his children. The quarrel was thus terminated, and peace ratified the very next day. Antecedent to the revolution, to involve women in these wars of kindred was a thing unheard of among the Corsicans: a man would have been ashamed to have slain a woman with whom he had no connection either by marriage or by blood. Women used to carry messages from their husbands, their fathers, their brothers, and their sons: they marched

before them, visited suspected places, reconnoitred the enemy's posts, carried proposals; and, in short, went every where without danger, *screened by the contempt in which they were held.* But now all is changed! The doctrine of the equality of sexes fills up the measure of cruelty to the Corsican: the sister, the mother, the wife of the enemy, are no longer inferior to the enemy himself. In virtue of this equality, the massacre of them is legitimate warfare. Thus does it too often happen, that the abstractions of rash and imprudent moralists make a false and dangerous impression on the minds of those who receive them." P. 76.

We can dwell no longer on the disgusting features of Corsican savages: they who are desirous of further information respecting their manners and customs, will consult the original.

ART. LX, *Memoirs of the Bastile: translated from the French Registers, Records, and other authentic Documents found in the Archives of the Castle at the Time of its Surrender, on the 14th of July, 1789; and published under the Sanction of the National Assembly of France. Interspersed with Anecdotes of the most remarkable Prisoners who have been confined in that Fortress; particularly that Person usually styled, the Man in the Iron Mask.* By FRANCIS GIBSON, Esq. F. S. A. 8vo. pp. 140.

"HAVING lately met with a work," says Mr. Gibson in his preface, "published by authority of the national assembly of France, giving an account of the surrender of the Bastile, totally different from those hitherto received as genuine, I thought it highly worthy of a translation. Its title is the Bastile unveiled; or a recital of authentic pieces, useful in forming its history, &c. &c." The first fifty pages contain all the history of the Bastile, and the narrative of its demolition: the rest of the pamphlet is devoted to anecdotes of the prisoners who have at different times been confined there. Not having seen the original, we are not able to compare notes, but are inclined to think that Mr. Gibson has occasionally incorporated with the text, an observation of his own.

We shall state, in a few words, the principal circumstances in which this account differs from those which have been generally circulated. The first and most important one, respects the character of M. de Launay, the governor, who seems to have been falsely accused of having *decoined* a great number of citizens into the inner court, and after drawing up the bridge behind, of having ordered the garrison to fire upon them. This charge is resisted on the testimony

of some of the surviving invalid soldiers who composed the garrison of the Bastile. About a quarter of an hour after M. de la Rosiere and the first deputies from the city had quitted the Bastile, the garrison was a good deal surprised at the approach of a vast crowd of people, armed with musquets, sabres, swords, and hatchets, vociferating 'surrender the castle,' and 'down with the troops.' Melting with the sympathies of humanity, "we spoke to them," say these unprejudiced evidences—all honourable men—"in the mildest manner possible, endeavouring to make them sensible of their danger, and requesting them to retire." In vain: the crowd penetrating to the great draw-bridge endeavoured to seize it, and at the same time poured a full discharge of musquetry upon the garrison, who were now reduced to the necessity of returning the fire. But we are not come to the jet of the business: about an hour afterwards, an immense crowd of armed citizens planted a flag in the court de l'Orme. A small number of the multitude remained to guard this flag, and the rest advancing, desired the garrison not to fire, as they were deputies from the city and wished to speak with the governor. Under an assurance of safety, the depu-



ties entered by the wicket into the court of the passage: here they remained about ten minutes, *without offering to advance to speak with the governor.* There is something strikingly singular in this, as their personal safety was assured. The deputies retired to the court de l'Orme, where they remained in consultation about a quarter of an hour, and *then went away!* As soon as they were gone, the people came in crowds to the attack of the second draw-bridge: the subaltern officers upon the towers, urged them to desist, but they were deaf to entreaty.

The conduct of M. de Launay was called in question on the event which followed: he chose to infer from the tumultuous and increasing violence of the crowd, that those who had presented themselves at the gates, could not be the real deputies from the city, and on this hasty inference gave the word to fire. The people, however, were not *decoyed* into the inner court: De Launay paid with his head the penalty of his temerity; and if the distinction here made will relieve his character by a single shade, so let it be. How much the governor merited this well-meant solicitude in his favour, may be estimated by the following anecdote, illustrative of the mighty vengeance which he meditated in the hour of defeat.

"We ought not here to pass over the names of Ferrand and Bequard, who rescued the city of Paris from the most terrible of disasters. About four in the afternoon, the governor, strongly solicited by the subaltern officers to surrender the Bastille, seeing that, for want of provisions, he could not long hold out, seized a match from one of the cannoneers in the inner court, with intent to set fire to the powder contained in the tower la Liberté, which he had inevitably done, and blown the castle, the suburbs of St. Anthony, with every contiguous building into the air, had not these two subaltern officers prevented his design, by presenting their bayonets and compelling him to retire. Ferrand repulsed the governor at the door of the magazine, and Bequard acted in the same manner at the entrance of the tower la Liberté."

The next circumstance, in which this account differs from those in circulation, is the manner in which the fortress was delivered up. These invalids of the

garrison, jealous of their honour as soldiers, defy any one to prove that the last breach was made, and therefore pride themselves not a little in asserting, that the Bastille was not taken by storm. An idle nicety of distinction: A Swiss officer addressed the people through a loop hole, and demanded permission to retire with the honours of war, which was refused him: he then wrote out a capitulation, concluding in these terms: "We are in possession of 2000lbs. of powder, and will blow up the castle and the whole quarter if you refuse us those conditions." The answer to this was, "Lower the bridge and no harm shall happen to you:" in consequence of this, the gate was opened and the bridge was lowered; and these valiant invalids flatter themselves, and would fain make us believe that the fortress which they had the honour to defend, was not taken by storm truly! That the popular fury could not be restrained, is much to be lamented, but surely not much to be wondered at.

The last circumstance which we have to mention is, that M. de Lolme, the major, was not slain while defending the fortress, but was murdered after its surrender by the ferocious multitude at the Place de Greve.

The anecdotes of the "Man in the iron mask" are such, as we have seen in different narratives before. The compiler leans to the opinion, that this mysterious personage was the twin brother of Louis XIV. Mr. Gibbon's Dissertation on this subject, inclines us rather to believe that he was the offspring of an amour between cardinal Mazarin and Anne of Austria.

The anecdotes of remarkable prisoners who have been confined in the Bastille, occupy a large and very interesting portion of these pages. Those of the comte de Panades, in particular, form a curious historical memoir, exhibiting at once the hostile temper of the old French government, and the weakness by which it was restrained.

A plan of the Bastille is annexed, together with two miserable engravings, one representing the fortress in all its glory, and the other exhibiting the attack on the 14th of July, 1789.

ART. LXI. *Paris Delineated, from the French of Mercier; including a Description of the principal Edifices and Curiosities of that Metropolis.* 8vo. 2 vols. about 300 pages each.

IT is surely singular that the *Tableau de Paris* of Mercier, a work so full of anecdotes, so full of information, should have been locked up in its original language for so many years, and that it should not have been exhibited before the English public till many of the manners and customs which it delineates have been changed; till many of the prejudices which it attacks have vanished; and till many of the idle fashions and amusements which it satirizes have passed away. But so it is; at least we know of no other translation than this which is now on the table before us.

The original work, which was published about ten years ago, occupies twelve volumes; the present, therefore, it is obvious, can only be a selection; and the editor informs us in his preface, that the principal object has been to adapt it as much as possible to the present times. "Buildings which have been destroyed, or customs which have been abolished since the revolution, it was proper to omit, and where any remarks are retained which are applicable to the old regime, it was because they contained some useful or interesting information which was worthy of being remembered."

Notwithstanding this insinuation, that although some portion of the present selection refers to the state of society anterior to the revolution, yet that more is applicable to the present state of Paris, he who expects to view in these pages a picture of modern manners in that metropolis, will be greatly disappointed. Indeed, as M. Mercier has published a *Nouveau Tableau de Paris*, descriptive of the state of that city since the revolution, and as that work has been translated into English, we do not see in what respect the insinuation we have alluded to can be considered as at all recommendatory. So multiplied are the mirrors which reflect the shifting scenes of the present day, that an additional one, of whatever lustre and intrinsic excellence, has less value than one which preserves to us the representation of scenes which have no longer an existence, and which afford by their contrast, to those which have succeeded them, a subject of the most interesting and serious contempla-

tion. On this account we should have been glad to have seen, not a selection merely, but a complete translation of the original work.

That convulsion of nature by which Pompeii and Herculaneum were overthrown and buried in the earth, was not greater in degree than that mighty, moral, and political convulsion which has destroyed the ancient laws and customs of a numerous and a polished people. At some distant period, perhaps, relics which shall have been rescued from the desolation produced by the one, may be as highly prized as those are which have been dug from the subterranean ruins occasioned by the other.

If we had room to extract twenty chapters from these volumes, the task would be easy; but it is difficult to select a solitary one with judgment. Since however, there will be some of our readers who have never seen the original, we must offer them a specimen which, perhaps, it may be as well to take at random.

#### PALAIS ROYAL.

"An unique point on the globe—visit London, Amsterdam, Madrid, Vienna, you will see nothing similar to it. A prisoner might there beguile the sense of captivity, unmindful of his liberty, till after the lapse of several years. It is precisely the spot which Plato would have assigned the captive, in order to retain him without a jailor, and without violence, by the voluntary chains of pleasure; it is called the capital of Paris, and the commodities of the whole world are found there. A young man of twenty, with fifty thousand livres per annum, will be unable to quit this fairy scene; he will become a Rinaldo in the palace of Armida, and if the Italian hero lost in the bewitching labyrinths of the enchantress his time and almost his glory, our young man will also here lose his honour, and, perhaps, his fortune; here alone will he feel enjoyment; other scenes will appear tasteless and insipid. This enchanting abode is a small luxurious city inclosed within a greater; it is the temple of voluptuousness, in which every thing inspires delight, and where dazzling vices have banished every vestige of modesty. Whatever the heart can wish, or fancy suggest, is here realized. The serious and the gay, the learned and the frivolous, will here recognize the objects of their pursuit. Physiologists,

poets, chemists, anatomists, linguists, read their courses. Women, who have renounced the pedantic gravity which distinguished the dames of the old hotel Rambouillet, sport with the sciences, which serve them for playthings, and amuse them as much as their spaniel or paroquet.

"In the capital of the Chinese empire there is a comic fair, which consists of a miniature representation of cities in the space of a quarter of a league; all the trades, noises, entrances, exits, and even the rogueries of them, are imitated by a crowd of actors—one is a merchant,—another an artisan,—this is a soldier,—that an officer,—the shops are opened, their contents displayed—purchasers appear—one quarter is for silk, another for cloth, a third for porcelain, a fourth for varnish—clothes, furniture, female ornaments are exhibited, with books for the inquisitive and learned—there are inns and taverns, whence issue hawkers—salesmen pull your sleeve and tease you to buy, contention ensues, the archer arrests the disputants, who are taken before the judge, and condemned to the bastinado. In executing this pleasant sentence the actor is slightly touched, and the pretended culprit imitates the plaintive cries of a sufferer, to the infinite diversion of the spectators. The pickpocket is not forgotten, he is permitted to exercise his adroitness at the expence of the bystander; the whole city is, in short, imitated, and the emperor is confounded with his subjects. The idea of this picturesque fair appears so fanciful, that I would fain suggest the introduction of a panorama of the good city of Paris at Petersburg. It would afford an opportunity of presenting to a great sovereign, and to a nation for whom it would possess the attraction of novelty, the faithful image of a far-famed and far distant capital. Imagine the laughter which would be excited at Moscow, Madrid, and Vienna, by the costume of the Parisians; the confusion of all orders of people, the variety of colours, the immense multitude, would form a scene not unworthy the pen of a new Lucian. Nor should the markets be omitted—what could be more diverting than the sight of those waves of men of all ranks, sizes, and complexions! Conceive a Volanges acting the lieutenant de police, and Dugazon personating the prevost des mar-

chands; other comedians should play the sheriffs, the life guard, the inspector, the commissary, the spy, and if to these were added the embarrassments of the streets, the ludicrous effect would be complete. The fête should close with a somewhat of theatrical spectacle! Paris being under a rainy sky, a copious shower should descend on the people, which would lead to a display of the fiacres; the coachman with a grave mustachio should figure with the coachman in a spruce frock; chaises, coaches, carts, and drays might intermingle, and the general confusion or dismay, would produce a fund of merriment to the mischief-loving spectators. The Romans had their saturnalia; a fête of a similar nature could not fail to amuse the Parisians, and might eventually correct many of their absurdities.

"The Palais-Royal is admirably calculated for the scene of action here described: it contains within itself an inexhaustible universe of pleasure and luxury. When Lucullus, the vanquisher of Tigranes and of Mithridates, the conqueror of Pontus and Armenia, the disciple of Epicurus, the imitator of Sardanapalus; that Lucullus, who in the hall of Apollo welcomed Pompey and Cicero to feasts in which Asiatic luxury was surpassed; though the empire was at his beck, and the land and water laid under contribution, yet could not even Lucullus himself have procured his illustrious guests the enjoyments to be purchased by a young modern prodigal in the Palais-Royal, who combines at his splendid table a greater sum of pleasurable sensations, than in the most flourishing epoch of Roman greatness had been called into existence."

Painters can embody imaginary beings and represent substantial ones; they can give colour and expression, but here their art is at an end; they cannot give motion. From the short extract which we have just given, it will be seen that M. Mercier's art begins, where the painter's fails him; he exhibits Paris, as it were in a camera obscura: besides light and shade, he superadds to every object which he represents, life and motion.

A neat and well executed plan of Paris, is annexed to this work.

ART. LXII. *A Relation of several Circumstances which occurred in the Province of Lower Normandy, during the Revolution, and under the Governments of Robespierre and the Directory; commencing in the Year 1789, down to the Year 1800. With a Detail of the Confinement and Sufferings of the Author; together with an Account of the Manners and rural Customs of the Inhabitants of that Part of the Country called the Bocage, in Lower Normandy; with the Treatment of their Cattle, Nature of Soil, Cultivation and Harvesting of their Crops, domestic Management, &c. By GEORGE GREENE. 8vo. pp. 306.*

THE author of these pages was driven by the loss of his fortune, to seek a

maintenance for a large family in France. He was recommended by Lord Adam

Gordon, to his Serene Highness the Prince of Monaco, who was looking out for a land-steward, and in this capacity Mr. Greene engaged himself. The prince's castle was situated in the town of Torigny, and his estate in the neighbourhood consisted of large territorial domains, extensive forests, and fee-farm rents: here Mr. Greene was employed to introduce the English husbandry, so much of it at least as would suit the nature of the soil, and the circumstances of the estate, which it was his object to improve. The period at which he commenced his operations was extremely critical; it was the summer of 1789, that memorable summer which witnessed the destruction of the Bastille. The spirit of insurrection had gone abroad, and the turbulence of the lower classes of people was growing every day more and more ungovernable; the high price of corn was a plea for their loud murmurs; the property of the nobility began to be invaded, and their persons insulted. Two singular instances of the effects of ignorance united to jealousy, which occurred at this time, are here related: In the month of April, Mr. Greene folded some stock upon a piece of wheat; the populace immediately exclaimed that his highness, fearful that he should not have it in his power to keep from them the corn when it was ripe, had engaged an Englishman, at a very great expence, to come over and destroy it while it was in vegetation. On seeing a chimney made in the middle of the hay-stacks, their murmurs broke out afresh: perhaps, said some of them, it is for a depôt of arms; and nothing could convince them to the contrary, till they saw the roof covered over with thatch!

The prince's castle was at length converted into a maison d'arrêt, and Mr. Greene and his family were unwilling inmates: however they lived very jollily. "Though we are three hundred and sixty prisoners, we appear but like one great family, so much union reigns throughout the whole."

In another letter Mr. Greene says, that their month's captivity had in no degree diminished the flow of animal spirits among the female prisoners; indeed their constant patience and composure under the deprivation of accustomed comforts, their courage in cases of danger, their silent unrepining submission under pressing misfortune, and their general

equanimity, must have imparted consolation and cheerfulness to the most desponding prisoner, and must impress every man with the love and admiration of that sex which is capable of shedding so bright a lustre over life, as to dispel even the gloom of captivity.

The innocent amusements which were at first allowed, are at length prohibited: some galling restriction is every day enforced, and as we proceed in the narrative, some murderous mandate issued.

"The carts are now made (July 10) for the transporting many of the prisoners of this house to the fatal tribunal at Paris. They stand in a court just under our windows, ready to take their death-devoted passengers. The list of proscriptions, on which the names of sixty of our unfortunate companions are inscribed, is hanging about within our walls. The day before yesterday, at about five o'clock in the afternoon, some of the prisoners had left their rooms to enjoy in the court a little fresh air; they had hardly made two turns, when the officer of the guard presented himself, and gave orders to the sentinel to fire upon them if they did not retire immediately."

A few days afterwards the death of the monster Robespierre was announced in the prison with the liveliest joy: the liberation of the prisoners rapidly followed, and that of Mr. Greene and his family at last. This gleam, however, was transient; the reign of the directory was a counterpart to that of the bloody tyranny which preceded it. Mr. Greene was confined in the citadel of St. Lo, and obtained his final liberation on the return of Bonaparte. He is returned to England, impoverished by the expences of his long and distressful imprisonments, and publishes this narrative to obtain some support for himself and family.

At the conclusion of the narrative, is an account of the state of French agriculture and peasantry, as it was before the revolution.

ART. LXIII. *A new Itinerary of France; or, correct Delineation of all the great and cross Roads throughout the 103 Departments of the French Republic. Also, the existing Laws respecting Posting. An exact List of all the Places where Post-Horses are stationed. The respective Distances of such Places. The Departure and Arrival of the Mails. Time of High-water at the Sea Ports. And an Explanation of their*

*Division of Time. With copious Indexes, and a Map of the Post Roads through the whole 103 Departments. Translated from a new Work, published at Paris by Command of the Directors-General of the Post-Office. To which are added the Roads of Italy and Spain. Small 8vo. pp. 212.*

TO announce the publication of this work is sufficient: the ample title page explains its contents, and we have no doubt that it will be found extremely serviceable to English travellers in France, Italy, or Spain. A neat map of the French republic is annexed, in which the post-roads are laid down.

**ART. LXIV.** *A Practical Guide, during a Journey from London to Paris; with a correct Description of all the Objects deserving of Notice in the French Metropolis. Illustrated with Maps and useful Tables. The second edition corrected. 12mo. pp. 224.*

AS this little work has already come to a second edition, any recommendation which we can give to it is, perhaps, superfluous. It would be unjust to the editor, however, not to acknowledge that he has spared no pains to collect, from various quarters, whatever information relative to Paris, its places of amusement, its hospitals, gardens, libraries, museums, public buildings, manufactories, restaurateurs, &c. &c. which can be serviceable to an Englishman. The plan of Paris, and the map of

France, which are annexed to this volume, are neatly executed.

**ART. LXV.** *An Essay on Abstinence from Food as a Moral Duty. By JOSEPH RITSON. 8vo. pp. 236.*

THE stupid absurdity of this book is a sufficiently efficacious antidote to the mischief that it might otherwise have been productive of. We should else have thought it our duty to expose the singular derangement of our author, who can eagerly search out, and receive with implicit credit, every thing that he finds in the Pagan authors of Greece and Rome, and is only incredulous with regard to his Bible. He believes mankind to be nothing but a variety of the Oran-Otang, deteriorated by feeding upon flesh. He considers animal food as an unnatural, unwholesome, and unnecessary diet, the cause of cruelty and ferocity, of human sacrifices, and of cannibalism; and looks upon the whole animal creation as a "system for the express purpose of preying upon each other, and for their mutual misery and destruction." This libel upon man and his Maker, is also made the vehicle of a new mode of spelling, which, when the author is a little more practised in, so as to become tolerably consistent, may entitle him to rank with Mr. Elphinston, and the grammarian of North America, Noah Webster.



## CHAPTER XI.

## NOVELS AND ROMANCES.

ALTHOUGH it is an essential part of our plan to give an account of all the productions of British literature that have been published during the last year, yet there are clearly some which we may be justified in omitting, on account of their furnishing no proper subjects of criticism. This is particularly the case with the innumerable volumes of novels and romances that are continually issuing from the press, in uninterrupted succession, to supply the demand of our boarding schools and libraries, the direct and inevitable tendency of which is, to debilitate the minds, and loosen the morals, of our youth of both sexes. But as the readers of novels form so large and important a class of the community, this mode of writing has been made of late the vehicle of some animated, and we believe not unsuccessful attacks on the civil and ecclesiastical constitution of the country. The institution of marriage has been blasphemed, as a narrow and unjust monopoly; female chastity has been undermined; the natural affections have been weakened, under the miserable pretence of inculcating universal and impossible, instead of partial and practicable benevolence; the high spirit of patriotic enthusiasm has been palsied, and political institutions, long tried and long revered, have been represented as radically mischievous, and incapable of being ameliorated. To counterbalance the pernicious effects of these works, some able writers have had recourse to the composition of novels of an opposite tendency, and we are happy to find have displayed equal skill, and excited equal interest, in the defence, as others have in the violation of the laws of morality, and the dictates of sound sense. In this honourable career Mrs. West has eminently distinguished herself; and among the novels of the past year, her "*Infidel Father*" is entitled not merely to the first place, but to a superiority, which is not even approached by any of the rest.

ART. I. *The Infidel Father.* By the Author of "*A Tale of the Times*," "*A Gossip's Story*," &c. 3 Vols. About 864 Pages.

THE "*Gossip's Story*," and "*Tale of the Times*," fixed Mrs. West in a high rank of novel writers; and the work before us demonstrates the author to possess still greater abilities than her former productions had called into action.

An introductory address manifests a just sense of the value of public approbation, for which she has been a successful candidate, with a very mo-

dest estimate of the literary efforts which have earned such a powerful sanction.

"Before," she says, "I address my readers with the quaint familiarity of a fictitious character, let me, in my own person, gratefully acknowledge the candid treatment that my former works have received from the public. On this head I could be diffuse; but I will only briefly observe, that though

their approbation may have been bestowed on more deserving candidates, none ever were more truly solicitous to earn the meed of *honest praise*. Fearful of forfeiting the good opinion of my patrons, it is with real anxiety that I again appear, at what I feel to be an awful tribunal. *All* my reasons for thus frequently troubling the world with my reflections, need not be divulged; but one motive, though it favours of egotism, I will not conceal. The rage for novels does not decrease; and, though I by no means think them the best vehicles for 'the words of sound doctrine;' yet, while the enemies of our church and state continue to pour their poison into unwary ears, through this channel, it behoves the friends of our establishments, to convey an antidote by the same course; especially as those who are most likely to be infected by false principles, will not search for a refutation of them in profound and scientific compositions."

Our author proceeds to the scope of the present work.

"The particular design," she says, "of the present work, is to show the superiority which religious principle possesses, when compared with a sense of honour, moral fitness, or a love of general applause. The story is confessedly subordinate to this aim; and those who dislike it will observe, that the *argumentative* part is not affected by the faults of the *narrative*. The episodic characters have a use, besides relieving the sombrous hue of the principal personages. I wish they may be considered as an *overcharged* picture of the vanity, extravagance, and self-importance, that have for some years infected the middle classes of society, threatening destruction to the sound sense, decent propriety, and manly virtues, of this most important portion of the community."

The Infidel Father shows the different effects which proceed from a religious and a deistical education. The following are the outlines of the fable. The Earl of Glanville having passed his juvenile years in pursuits which the Christian code by no means sanctioned, instead of relinquishing the practice, renounced the rules by which it was condemned, and at forty was an infidel, with all the delusive reflection of false philosophy, while his manners and conduct were framed according to the model which the paternal affection of the Earl of Chesterfield has recommended to his son.

Between forty-five and fifty his lordship married, and his mind being perturbed with gloomy retrospections, domestic felicity was not the consequence. The issue of the nuptials was a daughter,

who proved intelligent, and endowed with strong and ardent feelings, and a very agreeable person. The death of her mother left this young lady, at an early age, under the sole direction of her father. Constant in general infidelity, his lordship varied his particular system with the mode of impiety that happened to be most in vogue. Formerly the votary of Hume, Voltaire, and Rousseau, he of late was become the disciple of the modern regenerators, male and female, of human society.

Lord Glanville was a member of a political party, and proposed to strengthen his interests by marrying his daughter to a very powerful nobleman, in the same interest; but the young lady herself had cast the eyes of affection on a retainer to the nobleman in question. On this subject my lord found reason to regret that he had instructed his daughter to despise established rules, and to follow her own inclinations, whichever way they might happen to lead. But another obstacle arose to the completion of the family compact between the two political partizans.

Glanville, before he was twenty years of age, had made great progress in the seduction of credulous beauty. Among the objects of his pursuit, and the supposed victims of his artifices was Sophia Aubrey, of Oxford. On this young lady he, through the assistance of a tutor, imposed, by a marriage which he conceived unlawful, and soon after deserted her who had trusted to his honour. Shame and grief deprived Sophia of her reason. Her brother, an officer in the army, demanded redress, and fell in an encounter with his lordship. Sophia, now mother of a son, found refuge with Mr. Brudenel, a clergyman, where she remained till she died. The son arriving at the years of manhood, became a soldier, and married Miss Brudenel, the daughter of his benefactor. He fell young in the service of his country, leaving an infant daughter, to whom he gave his mother's name Sophia O'Faughn, who had been the agent of Lord Glanville in his conceived imposition upon Sophia Aubrey, had really procured a legal licence, and an established clergyman, and the marriage had been performed with all the proper solemnities; and the Glanville estate being entailed, young Sophia, the granddaughter of the earl, was thus the heir of

the fortune. O'Faughn's motive had been to command the earl's purse, but after many years were elapsed, Glanville becoming less apprehensive of disclosure, was more tardy than formerly in answering the drafts of his worthy minister, and on one occasion reproached him with extravagance. Enraged at this return to his application, Mr. O'Faughn unfolded the whole circumstances to Mr. Brudenel, the maternal grandfather of young Sophia; this gentleman soon found sufficient testimony and other evidence for the fact, and applied to Lord Glanville to acknowledge his grand-daughter and heir. That nobleman tried to elude this application, but finding his artifices unavailing, at length received her, and at the same time published the illegitimacy of his daughter Caroline, with whose mother his marriage, of course, was void, and he now destined his grand-daughter to be the wife of the nobleman whom he had proposed for Caroline.

Caroline possessed, through her mother, a fortune of about forty thousand pounds, which she determined to bestow on Raymond, a profligate adventurer. Her father was inimical to the connection, but the opinions which, under his direction, she had imbibed, taught her the absurdity of filial duty. Sophia received from Mr. Brudenel a totally different education, and was a genuine Christian. Thus imbued, without having superior talents to Caroline, she had infinitely superior practical wisdom; and without having more ardent sensibility, very far surpassed her in the feelings and habits of virtue. Sophia saw the natural excellences of Caroline, and could not help regarding her with warm friendship, while she regretted the defects that sprung from a pernicious education. She very strongly cautioned her against listening to Raymond, but her remonstrances were unavailing, and the marriage was concluded. Earl Glanville was implacable to this conduct of his daughter, which originated in his own lessons. Thinking now only of his grand-daughter, he became very urgent for her marriage with his political friend, the Marquis of Montolieu. Sophia, before her aggrandizement, had gained the affections of an accomplished and estimable young nobleman, and was not insensible to his love; she, therefore, positively refused the Marquis Monto-

lieu, who having taken a great fancy to the charms of the Glanville property, persevered in his addresses, hoping that the authority of her father would procure her compliance. The Marquis was also a votary of libertinism, and while he assailed the grand-daughter of his friend with one species of love, he applied to his daughter by another. Caroline had become entirely disgusted with her husband, and the Marquis, by the connivance of that husband, endeavoured to win her affections, and not without success. In such sentiments he could meet no obstacles from her principles, but had to encounter difficulties in her pride. To remove this obstruction, he persuaded her that his intention was to procure for her a divorce, that she might become his wife: she at length yielded, found herself completely deceived, could not bear the degrading situation, and deeming suicide the only remedy for such evils, she resolved to lay violent hands on herself, but taking a hasty review of her education and life, she readily traced her misfortunes to the infidel father. She determined to wring his heart, by committing the deed in his presence, rushed into his apartment, and stabbed herself at his feet.

Callous as Glanville was, so dreadful a catastrophe tore up his conscience, and in a few days he followed to the grave the child whom his lessons had driven to destruction. The christian Sophia, now mistress of the Glanville estate, employed her fortune in promoting the happiness, the religious and moral improvement of all who were within the sphere of her influence, and agrees to give her hand to the deserving youth who had long possessed her heart.

Besides the principal train of events, there is also an underplot, not unskillfully interwoven, and intended, by adventures of a comic cast, to relieve the deep shades of the chief narrative. Here, however, the reader of taste will occasionally be disgusted with vulgar farce, instead of humour, and will find how much easier it is to succeed in a work of fancy, than in the delineation of real manners. But the author herself professes to have made the literary character of her work subservient to the inculcation of the important moral, that a religious and principled education is the only sure basis of virtuous conduct and peace of mind. By this test, therefore,

let these volumes be tried, and we are persuaded that Mrs. West will be universally considered as having been employed, during the composition of them, honourably for herself, and beneficially for the public.

ART. II. *Letters of a Solitary Wanderer; containing Narratives of various Description.* By CHARLOTTE SMITH. Vols. 4 and 5. 12mo.

HAD these volumes contained only the conclusion of a novel, begun in the three preceding ones, we might have contented ourselves with a simple announcement, which, joined to the well known name of the author, would have been sufficient to excite the curiosity of the public, but the present work contains, as the title informs us, various narratives, slightly connected by a general frame, and three of them are completely included in the volumes before us; of these, therefore, we are called upon to give an opinion. The genuine strokes of feeling, and lively tints of fancy, which embellish the style of Mrs. S. might lend an attraction to adventures in themselves uninteresting; we should still listen with pleasure to the writer, though the hero and heroine were incapable of moving our sympathy; in these tales, however, we are not put to the trial. The characters possess much interest, and some share of that novelty of which the situations, founded as they are upon the wonderful and striking revolutions of the age, have so much. It is true that we are surprised by some of

those singular rencontres, those almost miraculous combinations of fortuitous events, those flights of sentiment, and exertions of knight-errantry, which, amid many probable circumstances, and natural characters, invariably tinge, with an air of romance, even the most skilful attempts to delineate real life and manners, by fancy characters and fictitious adventures; but these objections the readers of novels must long have been in the habit of overlooking. In a writer of the eminence of Mrs. S. we stop to notice defects of grammar, and slight inaccuracies, which we should not deign to remark in authors of inferior note. Such are *an* preceding the *b* aspirate, as "an hope," "an Helen," &c. the accusative case of the pronoun used instead of the nominative, as, "her imperious master *whom* she thought violated the laws," "him *whom* she wished might be authorized;" and sometimes the nominative instead of the accusative, as "*him* among them *who* I took for the superior;" and a few sentences the conclusions of which appear to have forgotten their beginnings.

ART. III. *Memoirs of a Family in Switzerland, founded on Facts.* 4 Vols. 12mo.

HOW large a superstructure of fiction has been built on this foundation of facts, we are not informed: and were not truth itself sometimes improbable, we should conclude it to have had little share in forming the romantic plan of the work before us.

In style this novel is at least equal to the common run, though the ostentatious tumidity of the descriptions of nature with which it abounds, sometimes provokes a smile; and the laboured refinements of sentiment at which it aims, destroy all appearance of reality in the conversations and narratives. The epistolary form which our author has adopted, he is unable to manage with

grace; his characters all write in the same style, and in all it appears unnatural. Still, however, the work is not destitute of interest; and as it perfectly coincides with the most popular systems in religion and politics, as it contains strong passages on the danger of indulging jealous suspicions, and the impiety of suicide, and is chargeable with no other moral objection than that common to all novels, a tendency to exalt the imagination and inflame the passions, thus rendering common life tasteless, and more solid books insipid—we may venture to recommend it to circulating libraries, and sentimental readers.

ART. IV. *Tales of Superstition and Chivalry.* 12mo. pp. 144.

IT is not one of the least objections against these fashionable fictions, that

the imagery of them is essentially monstrous. Hollow winds, clay-cold hands,

clanking chains, and clicking clocks, with a few similar et ceteras, are eternally tormenting us.

The author of these tales is capable, we are inclined to think, of higher productions. The tale of Basil is well told,

and a few gems of poetry are scattered over it, which induces us to believe, that the mine which produced them is worth being wrought. This little volume is ornamented with plates.

ART. V. *A Series of Novels.* By MADAME DE GENLIS. 12mo. 4 Vols. pp. about 1200.

THE reputation of Madame Genlis, as a moral, instructive, and amusing writer, is well established. The collection which is now presented to the public in an English dress, is taken from La Bibliothèque des Romans, a work published by Maradan, at Paris, and which was conducted by Madame de Genlis, and other eminent French writers. We see in these volumes the same fertility of invention, correctness of sentiment, and propriety of language, which have stamped a value on the former productions of this author, and they certainly will in no respect derogate from her fame.

"*Apostasy: or the Religious Fair,*" is the first novel. Delrive, the hero, lodges in the same house at Paris with Madame d'Armalos, the widow of a rich Spanish banker, who had just lost his life on the scaffold, and the daughter, the beautiful and accomplished Caliste. Reduced to the most dreadful penury, Delrive, unknown to them, administers from motives of the purest benevolence to their necessities. The mother dies, and Caliste is denounced: Delrive, who had now formed an attachment, of which she was not insensible, to the unfortunate girl, flies to her prison, and obtains from her leave to assert that she is his wife, for the purpose of procuring her release, and a promise that she will actually become so immediately on enlargement. Delrive is obliged to attend a dying father, and learns that his friend Serilly had been a traitor to his interests, that he had released Caliste, who is base enough to marry her deliverer. Stung with disappointment and indignation, he calls in question the very existence of a Deity, and embraces the philosophy which had its reign for an hour in France. Delrive had been religiously educated, and the frequent conflicts between his new philosophy and his good old principles of virtue, exhibiting the uniform triumphs of the latter, are, doubtless, intended by Madame de Genlis to impress

upon the mind of her reader the high importance of inculcating, in very early life, the principles of morality and religion. Delrive, at last, receives the hand of Caliste, who had been ever constant in her affections, and returns to the worship of the God of his fathers.

"*Mademoiselle de Clermont.*" "No, let lovers and poets say what they will, 'tis not at a distance from luxurious cities, 'tis not in solitudes, or under a thatch, that love reigns with his most unbounded sway. He seeks noise and splendour; he maddens after all that gratifies ambition, and pants for praise, for pomp, and for grandeur. 'Tis in the midst of factitious passions, the offspring of pride and imagination, 'tis in palaces, and amid the most brilliant illusions of delight, that love starts into existence, and swells into violence; 'tis in such scenes that delicacy and all the refinements of taste embellish his offerings, preside at his feasts, and inspire his impassioned words with inimitable graces, and too often with irresistible seduction." Love in a palace then is the subject of this story: the birth of the passion, its adolescence, and maturity, under a meridian which has been esteemed but little favourable to the development of its energies, are here delineated with a delicate and spirited pencil.

"*The Herdsmen of the Pyrenees.*" In this short tale is exhibited a picture of the life of these mountain peasants, taken, most probably, from actual observation. The life of a peasant of the Pyrenees is divided into three distinct periods: when of eight or nine years old, yet unable to climb the rocks and cross the torrents, he guards his flocks on hills that surround the plains, and on pastures of easy access; as his limbs grow stronger, and his courage and activity increase, he ascends the loftier and more dangerous mountains. At the age of about fifteen he enters into the class of cultivators; abandons the mountains; quits the employment of a



shepherd; resigns his crook into younger hands; and shares with his father the stronger labours of the field. When old age creeps upon him, and his strength declines, he descends into the vallies, returns to the scrip and the crook, and passes the remainder of his days reclined on the soft turf of the meadows.

"The most brilliant of these epochs, is that at which a young man is elevated to the rank of cultivator, and this, therefore, is celebrated with solemnity. As soon as a shepherd of the mountain has completed his fifteenth year, his father goes in search of him, to conduct him into the fields, or into the vineyard, which he is thenceforward to cultivate. The memorable day is a festival for the young man's family."

"*The Reviewer*," a subject obviously of too great delicacy for us to enlarge upon. Of the two next novels, "*The Castle of Kolmeras*," and "*The Man of Worth*," the former is an unsuccessful attempt at humour; and the latter is tiresome and insipid, at least it has no charms for us.

The mystery of the "*Perplexed Lover*," is preserved with inimitable dexterity; and if the marriage of Melcy with Bathilda can be admitted—the revolution might, perhaps, afford a solitary fact on which to ground it—the story is happily conceived, and artfully told. In the character of Leontina are some delicate touches of nature—but we must not destroy the effect of the stories by babbling all their incidents.

"*Destiny, or the Unfortunate*." Fact, probably, and fable, amalgamated: it seems as if Madame Genlis had collected the misfortunes of an hundred emigrants, and poured them upon the devoted head of her unhappy hero, Kerkalis; his mild, amiable, and honourable character, excites a good deal of interest. But there is a tide in the affairs of men; the fortune of Kerkalis, however, always remains at ebb.

"*The Princess des Ursines*." The rise and fall of this ambitious mistress of Philip V. of Spain, are related with a sufficient regard to historical truth.

"*The Green Petticoat*" is a very pretty

story, which has its foundation in truth. The heroine is a young German, still living.

Shakespeare's Catharine and Petruchio furnished the idea of the tale entitled "*The Husband turned Tutor*;" such overstrained characters are not pleasing.

"*Pamrose; or the Palace and the Cot*."

The most interesting part of this little novel is not a fiction; but, in all its particulars, an absolute fact. It was communicated to the authoress by a person in every respect worthy of the highest credit, (Mademoiselle Itzig, of Berlin,) who was very well acquainted with a man who had resided at the court of this benevolent princess, and had been an eye-witness of the noble action here related. This interesting princess is no more." A great many scenes in these novels are laid in palaces. Madame Genlis lived in a court, and estimated keenly enough the characters which composed it. The frivolity and dissipation which frolic in the sun-beams of royalty, are often held up to contempt; and the truth is frequently revealed, that it is not in the power of splendid apparel and sumptuous festivities, to still the throbbings of an aching heart.

"*A Woman's Prejudices*" is the last story. The word *overcome* should have been added to the title. The anecdote which it relates, we are assured is "faithfully true." A circumstance from which it derives additional interest.

Too many of our modern novel-writers have no other means of preserving the attention of their readers than by keeping them in a constant bustle: incidents are crowded together without mercy, and without measure. The more able pen of Madame de Genlis is employed in the delineation of character: she has studied human nature, and the little traits which she introduces, without parade and forwardness, are oftentimes very striking.

If these volumes should come to a second edition, we recommend to the translator a careful revision of his language: he will detect some grammatical inaccuracies.

ART. VI. *The Farmer's Boy; a Novel, in Four Volumes.* By MISS GUNNING, Author of *Love at first Sight; the Gipsy Countess, &c. &c.* Small 8vo. about 220 pages each.

IT is a wise maxim in trade, which the booksellers have not disregarded,

to proportion the supply of a commodity to the demand for it. The increase of

circulating libraries, within the last twenty years, has constituted an immense market for novels; but great as the demand is, we see no reason to apprehend a deficiency in the supply. Where so many tastes are to be consulted, and *de gustibus non disputandum*, the articles must be variously flavoured, and, therefore, variously compounded. If one appears insipid, and a second be too highly seasoned, we must not make wry faces, and be out of humour at this diversity; the chief duty which devolves on us, who are called upon to taste most of the commodities, will be to give open warning should any thing tainted, any thing unwholesome be exposed to sale; this duty we will most scrupulously perform, if unhappily, it shall ever be required from us. On the other hand, it will give us pleasure to announce any thing of peculiar richness and fine quality; but on articles of ordinary goodness we shall not often give a very peremptory opinion.

Miss Gunning is versed in the art of novel-writing: she keeps up the mystery with considerable dexterity, and the present volumes have altogether amused us. We have, notwithstanding, many heavy faults to find; but, perhaps, they are rather the effect of haste and carelessness, than of incapacity or ignorance. In the first place, the grammatical blunders are almost innumerable: the rare deviations from orthography which we have detected, are, no doubt, to be attributed to the carelessness of compositors, and the oversight of the corrector of the press. Miss G. is not sufficiently

considerate in the language which her characters speak: When the Earl of Mount-Talbot is on the road to Fairy-Mount, bar-women, peasants, and footmen, are scarcely to be distinguished by their conversation from his lordship himself. The character of the earl is supported with consistency and spirit; the malevolence of Mr. Fitzgerald has no adequate cause; his character is extravagant, and, we believe, perfectly unnatural. The loves of Herbert and Rose,—a beautiful flower, not yet full blown—are delineated with delicacy and feeling; and the scene between Herbert and Lady Lismore, in the third volume, where the latter discloses the secret of her maternity, is managed with great address.

In her haste, Miss Gunning has committed an unfortunate anachronism: in the first volume, Lord Mount Talbot, in a conversation with Lady Lismore, concerning Rose, says "Does she not turn out handsome? I thought her an engaging child, but she must be now nearly a woman." "Almost sixteen—just two years younger than Herbert;" after this, in the second volume, Rose's father arrives, and says, that "sixteen years *has* nearly elapsed since his marriage."

We decline going into further particulars: had Miss Gunning submitted her manuscript to the revision of some friend, who would have corrected her grammar, chastened her metaphors, and pruned away some redundancies, the *Farmer's Boy* would have ranked respectably among modern novels.

ART. VII. *The Paternal Present: being a sequel to Pity's Gift. Chiefly selected from the writings of Mr. PRATT.* Small 8vo. pp. 107.

IN Mr. Pratt's novels, gleanings, &c. are scattered a great many tender little tales, and pathetic anecdotes: as these works are printed in too bulky and expensive a form to be put into the hands of children, a selection from them was thought advisable, and the speculation answered.

These stories are not addressed to the understanding: they impart no scientific information, but they are, generally speaking, likely to amuse children, and are all of them moral. The volume is ornamented with vignettes.

ART. VIII. *Isabel; or, the Orphan of Valdarno; a Florentine Romance, founded during the Civil Wars in Italy; by a Student of Trinity College, Cambridge.* 12mo. 3 Vols. about 300 pp.

THE family of Filippo, marquis of Fesole, consists of a wife, no less a personage than the daughter of Lorenzo de Medici, a son, a daughter, and the orphan Isabel. The mild virtues of Isa-

bel, and the manly ones of the son Lorenzo, were not lost upon each other: esteem soon softened into love: the marquis, jealous of the honour and ambitious of the aggrandisement of his

family, had long aspired to the government of Ferrara: it becomes vacant, and Cæsar Borgia, anxious to win the marquis over to his interest, obtains the vacancy from his uncle the pope, and offers it to the marquis, on condition that his son, Lorenzo, shall marry the daughter and heiress of Borgia. Is the great Cæsar Borgia to be foiled in his mighty projects by the loves of a whimpering boy and girl? *Hinc illæ lachrymæ!* Camilla, the daughter, *confiding in the generosity of Duke Borgia, who is on a visit at the castle of Fesole, relates to him the attachment between her brother and Isabel: affecting to compassionate their distress, he promises no longer to urge the connection, but in a few nights afterwards contrives to have the hapless girl carried off from the castle.* The ardent Lorenzo pursues the captive maid: *he falls into the hands of banditti, who conduct him to a cave, secured by massy and successive doors, locked, bolted, and barred.* Here, however, he is released in the course of the night, by an intrepid heroine, who, without any ceremony, assassinates the captain and lieutenant, seizes the keys of the cavern, and effects her escape. This lady is no other than Laura, the daughter herself of Borgia, who, together with her mother the duchess, had been taken by the banditti in their way to Fesole castle, in order to celebrate the nuptials. An unlucky rencontre! Lorenzo, who loses his horse in the conflict, and therefore could no longer continue his pursuit, very gallantly escorts the ladies to the castle of his father. He learns that his innamorata is immured in a convent: he contrives to scale the walls and pass the barriers, and by the bribery of two inferior monks, to lay a plan for the escape of Isabel. The plan is thwarted by the treachery of these agents, whose fear of Borgia afterwards induces them to make him acquainted with the meditated escape. Lorenzo is seized under the pretended suspicion of impious practices towards the church, and Isabel is conducted at the appointed time by the hireling Anselmo, not to the arms of her disappointed lover, but to a troop of armed men, who hurry her away to the strong castle of Valdarno. From this castle, however, where many tales of horror are related, she effects her escape by the assistance of Ernesto, a young Pisan nobleman, with whom Isa-

bel had passed the early years of life, and who also had long been imprisoned in this castle by the connivance of Duke Borgia. Lorenzo is also released from his captivity by the wife and daughter of Borgia, who learning that he had been arrested under a fictitious name, and ignorant that the duke had instigated the violence, invited the chevalier to their palace, where he excites at once the love and the revenge of Laura. Lorenzo soon learns the place of Isabel's confinement, and sets out with Benvolio (a page of the duke, but in the interest of Lorenzo) and with his faithful servant Jacopo, in order to effect her rescue. They are benighted at the foot of the Appenines, seek shelter at a distant castle, which is *tenanted by banditti*, where they are on the point of being murdered. By a fortunate accident—a novel writer, like a magician, by the waving of his wand, can bring about the most improbable events,—by a fortunate accident, Ernesto and Isabel, in their flight from the castle of Valdarno, had also sought repose in this house of robbers. A bloody contest ensues, the robbers are routed, and the travellers make their escape to Venice, where the ardent Lorenzo and the timid Isabel are hastening the anxious hour of their nuptials, when the persecuting spirit of Borgia once more finds them out, and dashes from their lips the full uplifted cup of happiness. Isabel is again hurried to the castle of Valdarno, where she learns the secret of her birth: that she is a daughter of Borgia himself, by Isabella di Medici! She makes her escape by exciting the compassion of a villain, who is sent to murder her: he conducts her to Rome, where she meets the Marquis de Fesole, whose interest had procured the liberation of his son and of Ernesto. The fate of the pontiff Alexander VI. who just at this time accidentally drunk the poison he prepared for his guests, and the flight of Borgia into Sicily, relieve the lovers from any further fears; they are married, and, to the best of our knowledge, lived very happily afterwards.

Such is the outline of this story. They who delight in battles, robberies, and murders, will have a treat indeed, in the perusal of these bloody pages. They whose simplicity of taste is offended at improbable adventures, marvellous discoveries, feeble descriptions, and

unmeaning soliloquies, will be astonished that any one, over whom the sacred academic groves of Cambridge had

thrown their venerable shade, should have so little chastened his imagination and refined his taste.

ART. IX. *The Heir Apparent; a Novel in 3 Vols. by the late MRS. GUNNING, revised and corrected by her Daughter, MISS GUNNING.* pp. 845.

THIS interesting novel was begun by Mrs. Gunning, who was attacked by illness during its progress, which increasing rapidly, she was with great reluctance prevailed on to lay aside her pen. It has, since that lady's decease, been revised and augmented by her daughter, Miss Gunning, who eminently possesses her mother's superior talents in novel writing. The Heir apparent, is the second son of a Lord Ormington, a most amiable youth, extremely handsome, highly accomplished, just arrived from Italy to console his widowed mother, and to attend with fraternal affection, his elder brother, languishing on the bed of sickness. The

character of our hero is beautifully as well as naturally drawn. In Alicia Arundal, a young lady to whom Henry (the heir apparent) is fondly attached, the author has been peculiarly happy in portraying the character of a most engaging female, the model of every thing desirable in a companion for life. The character of Doningfield too is drawn with much interest; the countess (our hero's mother) is a composition of pride, avarice and unbounded ambition, to the gratification of which she descends to the lowest meannesses, and by her diabolical machinations, causes the death of two most amiable and deserving persons.

ART. X. *Nobility run Mad: or, Raymond and his Three Wives, a Novel, in 4 Vols.* pp. 1120.

IN Raymond, there is a good deal to praise; and compared with the generality of novels, it certainly claims precedence. The invention, character, and language are, in many places above mediocrity, seldom below it. The plot is artfully contrived and the denouement shews great ingenuity. In old Filmore and his grandson, the operation of avarice is well displayed, and the contrast exhibited in the benevolent young marquis Raymond, appears more marked from so judicious a foil. If we except to any character in this work, it is to that of Lady Arpsia Ermington, the noble-

man's infidel wife: pictures of conjugal indiscretion coloured so strongly as this is, we conceive improper subjects for young and innocent minds. We would likewise recommend to the author to be more attentive to style. We have observed a peculiarity of phraseology, which frequently recurs, such as "mentally ejaculated he," &c. which she would do well in future to avoid. These are the only defects of any importance which we perceived. and they are counterbalanced by considerable beauties.

ART. XI. *Warkfield Castle: a Novel, in 3 Vols. By JANE HARVEY.* pp. about 930.

THE hero of Warkfield castle is a Lord Meldon, who, on account of his attachment to Charles I. and the subsequent success of the republican party, is obliged to quit his country and his paternal estate. His adventures during his exile of course form the prominent events in the work; and these, though they contain few novel or striking incidents, are by no means devoid of interest, nor do they, (which is seldom the case) in any instance, outrage pro-

bability. The auxiliary characters likewise introduced, are some of them happily delineated. Fanny speaks the true Northumberland dialect, and Meggison's faithful attachment to his master, is a pattern for domestics. The language is unaffected, and in many places above mediocrity. The sentiments inculcated throughout, are such as tend to amend the heart; and the volumes are not deficient in point of amusement.

ART. XII. *Hatred; or the Vindictive Father: a Tale of Sorrow, in 3 Vols. about 769 pp.*

THERE are some interesting incidents, together with an easy flow of language, and a laudable strain of morality in the novel before us; but we do not consider the story by any means happily chosen. It consists of a series of examples of parental tyranny and cruelty, most of which are as unnatural as we should hope they are rare. Such subjects do not strike us as calculated to promote filial obedience, which should always be the grand aim in a species of literature, more especially addressed to juvenile minds. Where fathers are represented as sporting with the happiness of their children, and capriciously and unjustly opposing their dearest wishes, we can see no other result than that the children will be taught to disregard

their authority; such at least will be the inference drawn by the giddy and the headstrong, who form no inconsiderable portion in the general mass of novel readers. As it is to be feared, that many in this class want but little inducement to make the case of persecution their own, and are ready, because their inclinations happen to be contradicted, to place themselves in the same situation with the ill-treated hero or heroine, to whose fate they imagine their own analogous; it is undoubtedly of the first consequence for authors, who wish to improve the rising generation, to weigh the tendency of their writings and the effects that they are likely to produce, as well as their general execution.

ART. XIII. *Scenes in Wales; or, the Maid of Llangolf. By a CLERGYMAN. 219 Pages.*

THESE scenes are delineated by no inferior artist; they are drawn from nature, and, true to their original, display none of the glare and false colouring so frequent in compositions of this class: nor, to pursue the analogy, do we see how they could have been well peopled by a prettier groupe than the good Mr. Sinclair, his amiable daughter, and the visitors at Llangolf vicarage. Works of this kind we can recommend with pleasure, for at the same time that they amuse the fancy, they make good and

lasting impressions on the young and ductile mind. Indeed this little production is calculated throughout both to touch the heart and amend it; and forms no unapt illustration of the object which the author professes to have in view in his preface.

“To exhibit calm and unostentatious fortitude, under the pressure of calamities to which human life is subject—fortitude, not such as is derived from the monstrous philosophy of the day, but the genuine offspring of true religion.”

ART. XIV. *Martin and Mansfeldt; or, the Romance of Franconia; in 3 Vols. By ANNA MARIA MACKENZIE, Author of Mysteries Elucidated, Feudal Events, &c. about 900 pp.*

TO those who are far gone in the taste of novel reading, such indigestible trash as Martin and Mansfeldt may be *relishing* enough, but from such kind of intellectual food—good Lord deliver us!—Not to mention such trifles as want of nature and probability, together with continual violations of dates and costume, we have scarce a perspicuous or sensible

period throughout the work. The whole is obscured by unconnected parentheses, misapplied images, or rendered ridiculous by affectation, insipid attempts at sentiment, and unmeaning breaks. It is a pity that writers will not study, at least, to render themselves *intelligible*, before they attempt to be *fine*.

ART. XV. *The Noble Wanderers: in 2 Vols. about 588 pp.*

THIS novel possesses a great deal of the improbability and high colouring of the Arabian Nights, but with little of the fancy and accurate picture of costume which pervades that work.

The scene is laid in Media, in days of

yore. The two noble wanderers are, Arsaces, a youth of rank of that kingdom, and his wife Ardisira. Arsaces is beloved by the king's daughter and compulsively betrothed to her, though already married, and attached to Ar-



disfranchisement. To avoid a union, so much against his inclination, at the instigation of the latter, he flies with her from the court, and in seeking an asylum they meet with a number of adventures and hair breadth escapes. These certainly

display invention, though they are not always consistent. Persons who wish merely to amuse a vacant hour, may find a considerable share of entertainment in these volumes.

ART. XVI. *Plantagenet; or, Secrets of the House of Anjou: a Tale of the 12th Century.* Written by ANNA MILLIKIN, Author of *Corfe Castle; Eva, the Casket, &c.* in 2 Vols. about 480 pp.

THIS little production is of a superior class; the story is well told, and the leading circumstances being drawn from historical sources, are more generally interesting than the insipid fictions which fill the pages of most modern novels.

The story principally relates to the history of the family from whom the authoress has borrowed her title, the Martels, dukes of Anjou; who, under the name of Plantagenet, made at one period, a conspicuous figure on the English throne. This appellation was assumed by the celebrated *Fulke*, as a penance for the murder of his brother,

and was derived from the *Planta-genet*, or broom branch, with which he submitted to be scourged. This he ever after wore in his hat, and enjoined to be used as the name of his descendants. The detail of this monster's enormities (which however black, we believe, are generally warranted by history) occupies the greater part of these volumes; other circumstances are however judiciously interwoven as a relief, and in many places with effect; there are some little inaccuracies in the language peculiar to the natives of Ireland, but they are neither numerous nor material.

ART. XVII. *Miralba, Chief of Banditti: translated from the French.* 2 Vols. about 528 pp.

A BRACE of Italian courtezans, with their auxiliaries, of a character, if possible, still more depraved than themselves; the keeper of one of the former, Lord Linsdale, who abandons an amiable wife, for the purpose of pursuing his intrigues abroad with the greater conveniency; Lord Bainborough, another married nobleman, who falls in love with the daughter of Lord Linsdale, not half his own age, and indirectly causes the death of his lady, to espouse Miss Linsdale; and finally, the hero from whom the novel takes its name "*MIRALBA*," a captain of banditti, form the prominent groupe in this picture, whose scenes are no doubt finely adapted for the contemplation of youth.

As we are determined to point out vice, under whatever specious disguises she may lurk, we think ourselves justified in saying, that the evident tendency of the present work, is to assist her depraved cause, by stripping her of that repulsive garb in which she ought ever to be exhibited, and holding up her followers as amiable characters, instead of portraying them in their true detestable colours. *Miralba* is said to be translated from the French: this we are, from concurring circumstances, inclined to doubt. It however resembles many novels in that language, in the loose character of its personages, and its libertine principles.

## CHAPTER XII.

## L A W.

THE law publications of last year exhibit a tolerably faithful picture of the state of this branch of knowledge. In ancient times, when the mass of the people was divided into lords and their dependants, and when that relationship was regulated by the kind of property they enjoyed, the courts and law writers were almost wholly occupied with the doctrine of tenures, and the learning which respected real estates. The law of merchants was treated as the obscure customs of men whose narrow minds had led them to forsake the halls of their forefathers, and the proud field of arms, for the mean and unworthy pursuit of wealth by industry and barter. In the advance of commerce to the present moment of its splendour, we trace with interest the progressive amelioration of those rules which, originating with plain and intelligent men, united in common pursuits and interests, have been approved by the tests of time and experience. The rapidity of this advance has, within the last century, been inconceivably great. Commerce has become the soul of the State: the occupations of the merchant lead to high civil honours, and the greatest of our Judges have endeavoured to found a permanent fame on the reduction of their principles to a regular and scientific system. Questions of commercial law are every day agitated in our courts: the student lays aside his Lyttleton for Bailey's Bills of Exchange; and the lawyer himself probably often postpones the study of black-letter law, and reposes his knowledge of real property in his abridgments, until some case in which he may have engaged compels him to become better acquainted with the learned labours of the ancient sages in his profession. It may be expected then that no one will undergo the fatigue of composing works on subjects which few study; or of publishing what would yield them neither fame nor emolument. If there should be defects in our ancient books, they will remain uncorrected: public convenience requires no new arrangements of their contents; and even the printed contractions of Norman-French are sufficient for the purpose of reference. Hence our best modern law publications merely respect commerce; aim at collecting the customs and decisions upon some particular branch of it, and arranging them in a luminous order; so as to fit them to the understandings as well of legal practitioners, as of commercial men. We do not, however, pretend to blame or condemn this. It must be expected that, noble as is the profession of the law, the writers in it will look to the immediate pecuniary profit of their publications, as well as to the honours and fame which they may hence acquire. But we make these observations as accounting for their so closely following the public wants;

adapting their productions to so extended a circle of readers; and exhibiting, so exactly, by them the present state of that branch of knowledge.

The books which we have reviewed in the following sheets are principally of three sorts. Those upon distinct branches of Commercial Law; Reports of determined Cases; and publications proposing to simplify certain matters of legal investigation, and render them attainable to the student without severe or extensive labour.

In the course of the year a very important subject of commercial law has been treated, upon by Mr. Abbot, a gentleman of great ability and experience at the bar; and Mr. Serjeant Marshall has published a work on Insurance, which has obviously received much consideration.

The Reports of decided Cases contain two or three decisions worthy of public notice, and we have accordingly particularly stated them. To go into reports more fully, and mark the changes in opinion of different Judges, would be perhaps invidious, and most certainly uninteresting to the general reader.

The publications which offer a relief to the long and heavy study of law, admit not of a very detailed discussion. We can say whether they approach to what they propose, but to follow a compilation and abstract quite through, and compare with it the original, exceeds the object, and perhaps the industry, of a reviewer. We doubt, besides, the value and ultimate good of such publications, and would rather caution the student against them, than recommend them to his use.

Lord Bacon has well observed, that labour is the price nature has put upon every thing that is valuable; and the person who aspires to such a knowledge of the laws of his country as will fit him to practise as a lawyer, with credit to himself and advantage to others, ought, of all men, to remember the maxim. To abridge faithfully is not more difficult than accurately to recollect an abridgment. If such a work is to be used by a young man at all, it should only be as an analysis or index, and even then cautiously; for the writer may have pursued an erroneous train of reasoning, or omitted many most essential cases and authorities. So much was Lord Coke of the opinion, that a frequent and laborious perusal of the more important books was necessary to make a good lawyer, that he is said not to have left any index to his invaluable commentary upon Lyttleton, because every student ought to make one for himself.

We have not noticed mere re-publications of books formerly edited, except where such alterations or additions have been made as rendered the work worthy to be considered as new. Of this description is the edition of Saunders's Reports, by Mr. Serjeant Williams; a book whose uncommon merit has been highly enriched by the long and learned notes of the present editor.

The various other works which have come under our notice, are all mentioned with that particularity which their respective merits or importance seemed to demand. We pretend not to have given an account of every thing which has appeared within the year which could be called a law publication; but we hope we have omitted none that deserved insertion.

The progress of a branch of literature is not to be calculated by the number of

publications in it; but by the valuable trains of novel reasoning, the useful discoveries, and the new and solid principles which these publications disclose. Such a progress is very slow where a science is already far advanced; and is not to be expected in the great mass of law publications, whose object is only to facilitate and extend the knowledge of which they treat. Yet, though they boast not the highest walk of science, they have the merit of inspiring a stronger confidence in the security which the law affords to life and property, by making it better and more generally understood.

**ART. I. *Statutes at Large, 42 George III. 4to.***

THIS is a publication in continuance of that edition of the Statutes at Large, which is called Runninton's. It contains all the public general acts of the second session of the parliament of the united kingdom; the titles of the public local and personal acts, with such general clauses as some of them contain; and the titles only of the private acts. A general index of the subject matter of each of the general acts, distinguishing those which relate to Ireland by a star, is given in the beginning, and greatly facilitates the reference to them.

Of 120 general statutes which this session produced, few have an importance which deserves particular notice. The 73d chap. contains several regulations relative to apprentices taken by manufacturers, and employed in their factories. How far these are calculated for beneficial effect to any material degree, can only be known by experience; but no one who has witnessed the squalid appearance which these factories generally exhibit in their infant servants, will

hesitate to praise the endeavour to relieve them.

The 83d chap. will be consulted with interest by the inhabitants of the metropolis, as containing many most important regulations respecting its police, and the administration of the office of magistrates near it.

It is impossible for any Briton to read the title of the 85th chap. without a feeling of pride in his country. It is an act for trying and punishing in Great Britain persons holding public employments, and committing offences abroad. It is worthy of our legislature to extend the arm of our English courts to the remotest corners of the earth, where the servants of the executive may abuse their delegated power, and tyrannize over those whom they ought to protect.

In the regulations enacted in chap. 92, concerning aliens, may be seen that jealousy of foreigners which the late war, and perhaps the late events in Europe, have engendered.

**ART. II. *Reports of adjudged Cases in the Court of King's Bench. By* EAST. 2d. Vol. pp. 241.**

AFTER having published a series of eight volumes, with equal credit to themselves, and advantage to the profession, Messrs. Durnford and East, the former reporters of the adjudged cases in the court of King's Bench, terminated their joint labours. The work has been continued by Mr. East alone, who by the cases of Trinity Term last, has completed, with undiminished ability, this, his second volume. How valuable such reports are has long been acknowledged. They exhibit the deliberate judgment of the court, upon whatever ingenuity can suggest to the advocates, who, on opposing sides, investigate the law, or comment upon the facts of the case brought before it for decision. Few of these

cases, however, are such as can yield amusement or instruction to a general reader, and the book itself is in the hands of every professional man. But the cases of the King against Higgins, and Haycraft *versus* Creasy, are worthy of extensive perusal.

The first of these was an indictment for *soliciting* and *inciting* one I. D. a servant of one I. P. to steal and embezzle a quantity of twist, the property of his master. The principal objection was, that the defendant was not charged with an indictable offence: for that a mere incitement to commit a felony or misdemeanour, without any act done towards the execution of that felony or misdemeanour, was only a moral offence, leav

ing a *locus penitentia* before the commission of the crime, and therefore not the subject of a prosecution at common law. The court, however; unanimously determined against the objection, which they held to turn upon this fallacy—that no act had been done. They admitted, that if the defendant had a mere intent, or wish, to commit an offence, he could not be indicted without some overt act of that intent; but they held that there was in this case such overt act in the incitement and solicitation itself.

This determination, if acted upon, will immensely extend our penal code. The gradations of crime are infinite. Is it to be wished that punishment by indictment should be co-extensive? We have principals and accessaries—are we henceforward to have inciters as a species of offenders, when the solicitation has not been attended with even the seduction of the person addressed? But was there any fallacy in the argument of the prisoner's counsel? They urged that no act was done—that is, no act in the proceeding of the ultimate felony. To attempt a felony is an endeavour to accomplish that offence; but that attempt must be a proceeding immediately and directly connected with the felony. To attempt to poison a man may be an offence indictable: but is it so to attempt to concoct the mixture; to buy the glass to put it in; or walk into the field to pick the poisonous herb of which it is to be made? The prisoner undoubtedly contemplated the felony of stealing the twist, and he intended to effect it by means of this servant: but first the servant was to be prepared. Can it be said, that this attempt to prepare, which might or might not succeed, be repelled, or be recalled, was an attempt, or equal to an attempt, to commit the felony itself?

The case of *Haycraft v. Creasy*, was discussed with much earnestness and attention; and the chief justice was left alone in the decision. Such a discussion had become necessary, from the frequent actions that had of late been brought upon the principle on which this case was alleged to be founded, viz. that the

person who gives a character to another for solvency, upon which he obtains a credit, but afterwards turns out to have been insolvent, and incapable of payment, shall be responsible for the said loss.

Until the year 1789 an action for such an injury had never been brought. The first case was one of the grossest fraud, and that perhaps mainly induced the court to give it support. The person who gave the character, gave it for the purpose of enabling the insolvent to get goods on credit, which he immediately laid hold of for his own benefit. But *Haycraft v. Creasy* was a case of a very different description. Creasy asserted the insolvent to be rich, and worthy of credit to his own knowledge; and it was clear that he believed her to be so; had many apparent evidences of it daily exhibited to him; had no interest in asserting what he did; and did not attempt to take advantage of the credit which was consequently given, though he had not knowledge of it in the strictest sense of that term; and the fact was untrue. The Lord Chief Justice held, that if a man (though not interested) falsely affirms any thing to be a fact to his own knowledge, when applied to for the purpose, in consequence of which the person to whom he makes the affirmation, acting in confidence of it, suffers an injury, he is answerable for the consequence; and that as the defendant here must have been conscious that what he was asserting, was not of his own knowledge, he therefore did it knowingly, and so, by inference of law, fraudulently.

But the other three judges were of opinion, that as fraud was the foundation of the action, one who was a mere voluntary, disinterested affirmant, and might be himself deceived, could not be the subject of it. And they held, that circumstances must appear to shew that he made the misrepresentation *malo animo*, in order to render him liable. In this case they thought the defendant did appear to have been himself deceived, and had intended only to assert his belief, in which sense his assertion of knowledge was to be understood.

ART. III. *Reports of Admiralty Cases.* By T. C. ROBINSON, 3 Vol. Part 2. about 96 pp.

IT is not a little surprising, that whilst England has maintained a most distinguished consideration amongst the pow-

ers of Europe, and risen in maritime consequence superior to every nation in the world, no work of any importance



has for many years appeared, from her writers, upon the subject of general law. The foreign jurists in this wholly bore off the palm, and our own rich stores of judicial decisions remained in their native ores. But the last war gave rise to circumstances and situations which called forth, in a peculiar manner, the learning of our courts upon the law of nations. At a moment when the greatest struggle was made by France, for some shew of maritime power, and new authorities were sought, by every pretext and stratagem, to be put into force, the present great judge of the court of Admiralty rose to the bench. His clear and powerful mind exercised with unexampled vigour the abundant treasures of legal information, which a long course of the highest professional practice had given him. It was at this important period that the learned editor of these reports adopted the task which has done himself so much honour, and been of so much importance to the whole profession—probably to all Europe. For the fame of English courts of justice could only be increased by such evidence of the Admiralty adjudications being equal to those of the courts of common law.

The present part is the second of the third volume, and compleats it. These reports are in general done on a different plan from those of the cases in the courts

of King's Bench and Common Pleas; and, in some respects, we think, not so good a one. The arguments of counsel are often omitted altogether, and very rarely put in at any length: on the other hand, many of the judgments of the court are given with such particularity as to include a repetition of the case, and the remarks of the judge upon the evidence; which, although in all instances it shews in him vast precision and acuteness, must in every case be limited in its application to the evidence then before the court, and add nothing to the value of the general object of the reports. There is, however, the strongest internal evidence, that the opinions delivered by the judge are most truly and accurately reported.

One of the most important and interesting decisions in this part, which includes some cases of 1800, and all those in 1801, is that of the *Gratitude*, p. 240, in which, after great consideration of the powers of masters of merchant ships, it was resolved, that they may hypothecate their cargoes as well as their ships in case of distress, and when the money is to enable them to prosecute their voyage. The difficulty contended with was, whether the captain should be considered as agent for the cargo, or the mere carrier\*. This part includes the Index to the volume.

**ART. IV. Reports of Sir Edm. Saunders, by WILLIAMS, Vol. 2. 2 Parts. pp. 423.**

ONE of the most valuable books of Reports ever given to the profession of the law, was that of Sir Edmund Saunders, Lord Chief Justice of the court of King's Bench in the reign of Charles II. It contains the record at length of each case before the court, and in a very concise and clear manner states the objections and arguments of the counsel, and opinions of the judges. As Saunders was deeply versed in the science of special pleading, and was himself counsel in most of the cases he reported, the points discussed are given with clearness, and with a truth to which a special pleader more readily attains, whose habits sharpen the mind to a quick perception of legal distinction, and discipline it in a close adherence to the severest logic.

These Reports were first published,

the records in Latin, and the arguments in French, in the year 1686. A superior edition came out in 1722. In 1799 the present editor, Mr. Serjeant Williams, published a first volume, and he has now completed his work by this second volume, in two parts.

This edition is not merely enriched with many references to new authorities, but the editor has added numerous and very long notes; in which he has discussed, with an industry, an accuracy of discrimination, and an extent of legal research and learning, rarely excelled, most of the heads of law connected with the subject of the reports. This second volume contains a dedication to Lord Eldon, a second preface, and a most useful index to the notes.

The skill with which these notes have

\* In the courts of common law, it was long ago decided, if the ships had been freighted on a charter party, the captain is the servant of the freighter, and of course the immediate agent of the goods: but it would seem that this had been a government ship. *Rev.*

been composed, has been correspondent to the judicious and excellent objects of them. The editor declares, in his prefaces, that they were written, as well with a view of inciting the student to a diligent perusal of the pleadings, and giving him a knowledge not only of the excellence or defects of those before him, but of the grounds and reasons upon which the rules of special pleading and practice were formed, and the variations which modern times had adopted from older forms; as of affording the more experienced a useful book upon the circuits, where many cannot be referred to. With these intentions, Mr. Serjeant Williams has digested into them the doctrine and authorities relating to most kinds of practice and special pleading, and many of general laws. Several are complete, though concise treatises upon their respective subjects.

To expatiate upon the utility of such a work is superfluous. Every lawyer will read it with interest and advantage. To the rest of the world, its confined and technical topics must ever keep it a stranger.

**ART. V.** *Digested Index to the Chancery Reports.* pp. 537.

IN consequence of the increased publication of reports of modern decisions, a general index to the cases contained in them became indispensable. The profession were supplied with one, of the reports of the courts of common law, by Mr. Tomlins; and this is another of the reports of Chancery cases, we believe in a great measure by the same gentleman.

**ART. VI.** *Bosanquet and Pullen's Reports in the Common Pleas, for Hilary, Easter, Trinity, and Michaelmas Terms, 1802.* pp. 309.

THESE reports are conducted upon the same plan with those of Mr. East, in the King's Bench. They include the cases determined in the court of Common Pleas, and in the court of Error in the Exchequer Chamber; and are executed with great care and ability. The numbers now under our review constitute part of the third volume.

**ART. VII.** *Vesey's Reports in Chancery, in Trinity and Michaelmas Term, 1801—Hilary, 1802.* pp. 825.

MR. VESEY has, by the publication of

these numbers, completed six volumes of reports of cases determined in the court of Chancery. The object is the same as that which governs the similar reports which have for many years been published of the decisions of the courts of common law; and the performance is now too well known to require any comment.

**ART. VIII.** *Forrest's Exchequer Reports.* Part 1. pp. 177.

THE court of Exchequer is less known to the public than that of either the King's Bench or Common Pleas, probably from its divided jurisdiction, in holding pleas both in equity and common law. The present work is to bring forward the decisions there, for the same professional use which has attended the publications of the reporters of the other courts of Westminster Hall; and when it is considered, that that court holds exclusive jurisdiction over revenue causes, and has obtained almost exclusive jurisdiction in cases of tythes, the importance of its decisions will readily be acknowledged. Mr. Forrest has begun his labours with great ardour; and from this first specimen, we are led to expect that he will execute it with a fidelity commensurate with the value of its object.

**ART. IX.** *Opinions and Memoirs of Lord Chief Justice Wilmot.* 4to. pp. 480.

REPORTS of adjudged cases are to the lawyer what experiments are to the chemist: they exhibit the application of principles for the solution of new combinations of fact, and accumulate his means for the deduction of further general principles to the enlargement and perfecting of his science. To both it is of infinite importance, that the records of these events, in their respective pursuits, should be accurate and authentic; and, therefore, whenever they come from the hand of the author himself, they are entitled to the greatest weight and attention.

The work now before us is a collection of seventeen cases, decided between the years 1757 and 1770. In that time Wilmot acted as puisne judge in the court of King's Bench, lord commissioner of the great seal, and lord chief justice of the court of Common Pleas; and delivered the judgments now published from his own MSS. They relate chiefly to cases

on real property, but some of them are of more general interest. The opinion on the writ of Habeas Corpus; the fining dissenters for not qualifying themselves to serve the office of sheriff; the granting attachments for libels on the court, and on punishments to commence at a future period, will be read with avidity by all who concern themselves in questions which affect public liberty. The editor (who we understand is the son of the lord chief justice, and the present master in chancery) expresses himself, in a note prefixed, to have been prompted to the publication by some of the judgments it contains having been seen by several eminent professional persons, and been thought by them too excellent to be kept private. This indeed greatly enhances their value. He has therefore given those which are no where else to be found in print, with others of which the general reporters of the day have taken some notice, but not equal to the MSS. of the lord chief justice himself. Though none of them, we are told, were prepared by their author for publication, they all are elaborate, perspicuous, elegant, and learned; and may be consulted with advantage for objects vastly beyond the individual cases on which they were delivered.

It is of no small consequence too, that the superior qualities which lord chief justice Wilmot always displayed as a judge, were fully sustained by his eminent virtues in private life. The memoirs which are now given of him are highly interesting, and honourable to his memory. He was, perhaps, a rare instance of the union of great legal talents with a most delicate humility; of an industry and capacity for the highest offices in his profession, with feelings that had no gratification in the rewards of ambition, or the exercise of power; of a fitness for the possession of the seals, which were offered to him, and a resolution to decline them. He accepted of his high honours rather in obedience to the urgency of his friends, than from inclination; and looked upon the advance in office as an accumulation of sacred and awful duties. Some of his letters to his sons, whilst young men, are printed in these memoirs, and give the highest idea of the purity and magnanimity of his

character. By gentlemen just beginning the arduous profession, in which their author so well and justly succeeded, they will, both from their sentiments and information, be found a most valuable acquisition.

ART. X. *Ellis's Practical Remarks on Proceedings in Parliament.* pp. 226.

THIS book has been published in order to facilitate the labours of those whose duty it may be to solicit any of the numerous private bills which are perpetually passing through the houses of parliament, respecting roads, canals, &c.

It contains practical instructions for these purposes; the rules of the houses, and a collection of forms. The chapters are—Of private bills in general; of inclosure and drainage bills; of turnpike-road bills; of navigation bills; of bills for building bridges; of bills for the more easy recovery of small debts; of bills for paving; of bills respecting letters patent; of divorce bills; and of estate bills: with a large appendix of precedents.

The knowledge it communicates seems to be ample, and collected with care; and it need hardly be observed, that such a publication is calculated, in the present day, for very extensive use.

ART. XI. *Marriott's Formulary.* pp. 388.

THE collection of forms here given to the public has the sanction of Sir James Marriott's respectable name. By the preface, (as far as it can be understood) it would seem that a principal object of the publication is to exhibit the excellence of the orders and proceedings of the courts to which it relates; but we hope its use will surpass the design expressed in the absurd composition by which it is preceded.

ART. XII. *Table of Tithes.*

A compendium useful enough to be fixed up in the kitchens of farmers, to remind them of the extent to which they are liable under this most heavy and galling exaction.

**ART. XIII.** *Original Precedents in Conveyancing, selected from the MS. Collection of the late John Joseph Powell, Esq. Author of the Law of Mortgages, Wills, and other valuable Law Treatises. Revised and corrected, with Notes and Remarks explanatory of the Nature and Efficacy of the several Deeds, and other Assurances, contained in the Collection. By CHARLES BARTON, of the Inner Temple, Esq. 8vo. 6 vols. pp. 2900.*

THE collection of precedents here presented to the public, is stated, by the publishers, to have been purchased by them from the late Mr. Powell's executrix. But, as a collection of precedents obtained solely from the opportunities afforded by actual practice, cannot be supposed to be entirely complete, the editor tells us he has supplied the defects arising from this source, either from his own collection, or by drafts expressly prepared for the purpose.

Wherever Mr. Powell has been led (by notions in some degree peculiar to himself) to the addition of forms not generally used in the profession, the editor has remarked upon them, and has explained the principles and views which guided Mr. Powell in his deviation from common practice. This the editor has been peculiarly enabled to do, from his long intimacy with Mr. Powell, and the frequent opportunities which that intimacy afforded him of becoming acquainted with his legal opinions. Nor has the editor confined himself entirely to this: he has introduced essays, or elementary dissertations, on the nature and use of the different species of as-

surances contained in the collection, and has added occasional notes and observations, explaining the operation and intention of the particular clauses inserted in them, with numerous references to the determinations which have taken place on questions relative to these clauses. The short essays, or treatises, prefixed to each class of precedents, on the following topics, viz.; on agreements, on appointments, on assignments, bargains and sale, bonds, deeds of confirmation, covenants, declarations of trust, deeds of demise, feoffments, grants, leases, deeds of lease and release, lease and release by way of settlement, and wills. These essays are, we think, executed with considerable ability, and possess the very great advantage of very full references to the various cases and determinations on the subjects of which they treat. The work extends to six very large octavo volumes, and from the various precedents it contains, and the other recommendations we have enumerated, it will, we think, be found to be a work of considerable professional value.

**ART. XIV.** *Elements of Conveyancing; to which are prefixed cursory Remarks on the Study and Practice of that Science; including a Course of Reading, and List of Books for the Use of Students and Practitioners, and a Syllabus of the Remainder of the Work. By CHARLES BARTON, of the Inner Temple, Esq. 2 vol. 8vo. pp. 1282.*

THE professed design of this work is to introduce the student to an acquaintance with the elementary principles of the science of conveyancing. The materials from which it was composed, were (we are informed by the author) originally intended to have been arranged into a course of private lectures for the instruction of pupils; a plan which was, however, afterwards abandoned. The subject is, of course, real property, its nature and incidents, and the several estates and interests which may be had in such property. The work is divided into five books, and each book is subdivided into chapters. Book I. treats of the several species of real property, their natures and incidents. Book II. of the estates and in-

terests which may be had in real property, with some of the chief incidents attending their enjoyment. Book III. of the injuries of which estates and inheritances in real property are susceptible, with the means of redressing them. Book IV. of the manner of transferring estates and interests in real property, from one person to another, by voluntary alienation. And book V. of the mode of transmission and descent of real property, on the involuntary dereliction, or the decease of the proprietor. Only one large octavo volume of the work, comprizing the first book, is yet published, but the author has presented the public with an additional volume, containing a prospectus of conveyancing, as far as concerns real property, and

which is designed as a syllabus to this work. But as such a prospectus will be of little use after the whole work is printed, it is the author's intention to substitute in its room, at the close of the publication, an essay on the rise, progress, and present state of conveyancing, which will be delivered gratuitously to

the holders of the syllabus. The volume which is now published, appears to us to contain much valuable matter, arranged in an agreeable form, and divested, as much as the nature of the subject will admit, of that difficulty and dryness so common in works of this nature.

**ART. XV.** *A Summary Treatise of Pleading: viz. of Pleading in general, and bringing the Defendant into Court—Of the Declaration—Of Pleas—Of Replications—Of Rejoinders—Of Profert.* 8vo. pp. 105.

IT may seem surprising, that with such excellent assistance as "Comyn's digest Title Pleader," "Buller's Introduction to the Law relative to Trials at Nisi Prius," and the "Reporters," no one should have composed a full and systematic treatise on special pleading. But it is a science only to be understood by long study, and considerable practice; and those who are fortunate enough to reach the possession of it themselves, have too little time to write for the instruction of others. Comyns applied extraordinary powers of mind, and great learning to it, and the outline he has drawn is comprehensive and masterly: as he has inserted, however, under his subdivisions, almost every authority for and against, ancient and modern, in an unconnected form—the student who attempts to peruse them, is bewildered and disheartened, and abandons the consideration of what he despairs ever to comprehend. The subject, indeed, has a wide range; to know it well a man must be equally acquainted with the practice of the courts, the com-

position of pleadings, both as they are governed by general rules, and as they apply to particular actions, and the circumstances attendant upon trials. When so much of this is built upon matter of positive regulation, it would be difficult to compose a treatise upon it, such as should be at once interesting, and so complete as to contain all useful authorities. Yet Mr. Tidd has, in his book of practice in the courts of King's Bench, shewn this to be practicable as far as he has gone.

The gentleman who has written the present tract, has not failed in the little he has attempted, but his work is too contracted in its scale to be of any material use. He has given an outline of the general doctrine of pleading, so far as it regards the declaration, plea, replication, and rejoinder, with something upon profert and estoppel, and given it, upon the whole, well. The student may read it with advantage; but to understand the science of which it professes to be a summary, he must sacrifice days and years of toil.

**ART. XVI.** *MAC NALLY'S Rules of Evidence, or Pleas of the Crown, &c.* 2 Vol. 8vo. pp. 668.

THIS work is, we understand, the production of a gentleman of great eminence at the Irish bar, and from this circumstance the public have a right to expect a performance of more than ordinary value. In this expectation we do not think they will be disappointed: the treatise before us containing all the most important matter on the subject of which it treats. The plan pursued is that of reducing the law of evidence to a body of rules, to each of which are added the cases illustrative of the rule, together with the observations and reasonings of the author. The work occupies two volumes, is divided into four books, and these books are again subdivided into chapters, in each of which

a considerable number of distinct rules are illustrated. The various matters about which this treatise is employed are very fully treated of, and the very words of the judges and lawyers who argued the cases are often abstracted, or given at full length. There are some literal errors, and other marks of haste, in some of the minuter parts of the work, for which the author himself apologises, attributing them to the pressure of his professional engagements, but it seems to us to be an excellent and practically useful treatise, as well from the full information it contains, as from the facility with which its reasonings and principles may be understood. As the rules of evidence, in criminal cases,



are essentially the same as in civil, differing only from them in some particulars expressly enacted by the legislature, the present production may be considered as a general treatise on evidence, and the profession of the law must feel them-

selves indebted to any gentleman who employs his talents in illustrating a branch of law which is yet so imperfect, and which is in its nature so difficult and abstruse.

#### ART. XV. WOODFALL'S *Landlord and Tenant*.

THE ground over which Mr. Woodfall has gone, has been so frequently trodden, and there are treatises upon separate parts of his subject, of such sterling merit, that nothing new could be attempted, except in the arrangement and bringing together of all their parts, and the addition of subsequent cases. These have been his objects, and he appears to have very well succeeded in them. He has collected the law, first upon the contract between landlords and tenants, then upon the incidents which arise out of that relation, and afterwards upon the reciprocal

remedies which the parties have against each other, and against third persons, for the injuries they may sustain in respect of their property. As this goes through all the rights and wrongs of landlords and tenants, it, of course, includes the doctrines relating to leases and covenants, waste, distresses, replevin, and ejection. The arrangement is very clear, and the new matter has been collected and interwoven with diligence and accuracy.

An appendix is added, of the usual precedents and forms.

#### ART. XVI. MARSHALL'S *Insurance*.

THERE is no subject of mercantile law which has undergone so much discussion, both in the closet and in courts of justice, as insurance. The more theoretical treatises of Valin Rother and Emerigon, have received the fullest and happiest illustration from those practical decisions which are to be found recorded in the pages of Park and Millar. The penetration of Lord Mansfield, the acuteness of Mr. J. Buller, the learning, and strong good sense of Lord Kenyon, upon this subject, have greatly exalted the character, and extended the fame of our judicial investigations. This work, which Mr. Serjeant Marshall now presents to the public, will be found not unworthy of the advanced state of our knowledge on this most intricate branch of law, and his character as a lawyer will, undoubtedly, induce every one who is interested in the question on which he writes, to consult it.

The author has addressed his attention particularly to the *principles* which govern this species of contract, and has given, with great assiduity, the opinions of foreign writers, as well as the decisions of our own courts upon them. He remarks, that those principles lie within a narrow compass, and are, in general, well defined, but that there is scarcely any contract which affords a

greater number of questions of doubt and difficulty, from its uniform tenor, and the infinitely various and complicated circumstances which attend it, and which require the application of those principles for their solution. He laments, that with us the real justice of the case has been sometimes permitted to supersede every other consideration, and that there are a few decisions of Westminster Hall, irreconcilable with the true principles of the law of insurance. The equity which should preside in all questions arising from commercial transactions, is not, our author says, "those loose and wild notions of right, in which no two men can agree, but the result of natural reason, enlightened and directed by the wisdom of the law."

Impressed with these sentiments, Mr. Serjeant Marshall has bestowed great pains in analysing his subject, and in sifting those principles which ought to govern every part of it. He differs from Park and from Millar, in giving a shorter abstract of determined cases, in adding an extended comment upon them, drawn, in a great measure, from the corresponding laws of other countries, and illustrated by the opinions of foreign writers: and he has calculated his book for easy reference, by simple, yet accurate subdivisions, and marginal notes.

The analysis which precedes the work, is so full as to exhibit at once the whole range of the subject. It is divided into the following books and chapters, having each numerous sections. First book, chapter 1st. Introduction. 2d. Of the parties to the contract. 3d. Of the subject matter of marine insurance. 4th. Of the interest of the assured. 5th. Of the voyage. 6th. Of the risks or perils insured against. 7th. Of the policy. 8th. Of warranties. 9th. Of representations. 10th. Of concealment. 11th. Of the ship. 12th. Of deviation. 13th. Of loss. 14th. Of abandonment. 15th. Of the adjustment of losses. 16th. Of the return of premiums. 17th. Of proceedings in actions on policies. Book the second treats of bottomry and re-

spondentia. Book the third, of insurance upon lives. And the fourth book, of insurance against fire.

It would exceed the limits which we prescribe to ourselves in the review of works containing rather novelty of arrangement than of matter, if we were to follow our author through the detail of his subject, and to shew, that the learning and knowledge which he displays in it are not less striking than the clearness and method of his analysis. From what we have already observed, the object of the publication, and mode of its execution, will sufficiently appear, and we have no doubt that it will be found a valuable acquisition both by the profession, of which the author has long been a member, and by the public.

**ART. XVII.** *A Treatise of the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen, in Four Parts.* 1st. *Of the Owners of Merchant Ships.* 2d. *Of the Persons employed in the Navigation thereof.* 3d. *Of the Carriage of Goods therein.* 4th. *Of the Wages of Merchant Seamen.* By CHARLES ABBOT, of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. 8vo.

IN the preface to this valuable book, Mr. Abbot states it to have been compiled not only from the text writers of our own nation, and the reporters of the decisions in our own courts, but also from the books of the civil law, the maritime laws of foreign nations, and works of foreign writers. In mentioning those authorities, he very justly expresses his surprise, that the subject should not have engaged the pen of any member of the profession of the law, for a very long period of years. Molloy wrote above a century ago, and since that time, not only have the principles of maritime commerce undergone the most masterly and extensive investigation, but the operation of the register acts have created a new system of laws, with which it is most important that the merchant and the lawyer should be acquainted, and, yet, which even the acuteness and industry of Mr. Abbot, are unable thoroughly to explain or reconcile. With this accumulation of matter, and the vast interest that it involves, it is very satisfactory, that the subject has been undertaken by a lawyer of maturer experience and learning. Mr. Abbot has not dismayed his reader by long cases, and a simple repetition of matter already before the public. "In the composition of this treatise, his object," he says, "has been rather to arrange

and illustrate principles, than to collect the decisions of courts, or the acts of the legislature."

The work is divided into four parts: 1st. Of the owners of merchant ships. 2d. Of the persons employed in the navigation of merchant ships. 3d. Of the carriage of goods in merchant ships. 4th. Of the wages of merchant seamen. And subdivisions have been adopted of chapters and sections.

In his first part, the author treats of the general rights and duties of owners of merchant ships, of the nature of their property, as regulated by the register acts, and of the peculiarities incident to partnership.

Amongst the important questions which these topics bring forward, are those of the liability of mortgagees, not in possession, to the debts of the ship, and of the charterers to the consequences of the captain's misconduct during the voyage. The opposing determinations are stated fairly, and though Mr. Abbot does not solve the difficulty, he, in a great degree, lessens the evil, by exposing it.

A consolidated view is then given of the several register acts regulating the ownership and transfer of ships, and afterwards of the several judicial decisions to which these statutes have given rise. It is impossible to doubt

that these navigation acts (as they are called) have been of service to our commerce: they occurred at a favourable period of its history, and, aided by other circumstances, mainly assisted in giving us that superiority in our commercial relationship with our colonies, which we have so long enjoyed. It might be well if the promoters of them would be content with this general effect, and would endeavour to revise the statutes now in force by the experience which we have had of their uses and defects, without straining the legislative regulations to an extent which involves this species of property in insecurity, and checks the national spirit of maritime adventure. This is an observation which every reader of this chapter will make, and which the slightest acquaintance with shipping interests confirms. The merchant, indeed, fairly cuts the knot, by altogether neglecting those regulations which he finds it difficult to comprehend, or impossible to follow. He trusts that good faith, or public character, will induce the person with whom he has contracted for a ship, to fulfil an engagement which these statutes treat as void. He waves the benefit of the law, rather than attempt to understand it; and depends more upon his general uprightness in protecting him from its penalties, than upon his knowledge of not having incurred them.

The interest of part owners of ships, is treated of: first, as with relation to each other; and, secondly, as with relation to strangers. In this discussion there appears a striking instance of the superiority in our laws over those of other countries. When the several owners differ as to the manner of employing the ship, the majority must govern: but with us the dissentient party may claim a security against loss on account of the risk from which they withdraw, whilst foreign laws make him abide by it, however inconvenient.

In the second part, Mr. Abbot has given chapters on the qualifications of the master and mariners, of their conduct, of the authority of the master, and of pilots.

The qualifications of persons employed in the navigation of British merchant ships depend on statutes, frequently varying as the necessity of the times may require. The object always is to enforce the employment of our

fellow subjects as much as possible, but as they are liable to be impressed in time of war, foreign seamen are then permitted in our ships. In the African commerce, particular regulations are adopted as to the master, who is required to have a certain experience in the trade before he undertakes a command, which will put the lives of a number of unhappy victims under his power.

The master's authority, by virtue of the trust reposed in him, in the navigation and management of the ship, is considered as to his contracts for the employment of the ship, and as to those for her repair. It is a pretty obvious rule, that the owners who invest him with this trust must be bound by whatever he justly and necessarily does in its execution. In these chapters the power of the master to hypothecate the ship in foreign countries (for he cannot do it at home), *i. e.* pledge it for the repayment of money borrowed by him for the use of the voyage, undergoes examination. That power has, however, rarely been used, since the more convenient practice of bills of exchange has so universally prevailed.

The conduct of the master and mariners to each other, and those for whose benefit they are employed, occupies the fourth chapter. This has been the subject of much legislative interference. Where so much power is to be exercised, and so much confidence is unavoidably reposed, it is to be expected, that men of such education and habits as sailors, will easily fall into tyranny and fraud. To correct those, and to promote honesty and valour in our seamen, many statutes have been passed; and it is not paying them an ill compliment to say, with much effect.

The longest and most generally important part of the book, is that which treats of the carriage of goods in merchant ships: and in this Mr. Abbot has distinctly stated the law relative to the contract for it, and its dissolution; the duties of the carriers and their servants, and of the merchants, with their respective limitations, and excuses for non-performance, together with the doctrine relating to the subjects incidental to it, of average, stoppage in transitu, and salvage.

A merchant ship is let out either wholly to one party, then that party

gains the temporary ownership, and exclusive management of it for the period of the contract, or the master undertakes separately, with different merchants, to carry the goods of each to the destined port, and continues to act through the voyage as the servant of his original owners, who remain the managers of the vessel, subject to these contracts.

In the first case, the ship is let by contract of charter party; in the second it is called a *general* ship, and the master only signs bills of lading, undertaking to deliver the goods mentioned in it, safe, upon being paid the freight and usual charges.

When the ship is delayed in pursuing or completing the voyage, without the default of the owners or master, or any thing remaining to be at that time done by them, the merchant is liable to pay a compensation for it to the owners, called *demurrage*. The terms of this are generally specified by the charter party, or, if not, are governed by the ordinary customs of the trade in which the ship is then employed. Our author mentions particularly the cases when the ship is delayed with respect to the cargo, and by waiting for convoy.

In the performance of their contract, it is the duty of the carriers to fit their ship for this voyage; to pursue it with every practicable attention to its accomplishment, with speed and safety, and to deliver the goods on board, in good condition, to the consignees. They are, however, invested with much discretionary power; they may deviate from the usual track, or even sell a part of the goods, in cases of necessity or when the welfare of all concerned, renders it advisable. They must be strict in the observance of their warranties or particular covenants; of which those relating to sailing upon a particular day, or with convoy, are here particularly discussed; but, on the other hand, are not compellable to part with their merchandize, except upon payment of the freight.

The extensive liability to which ship owners exposed themselves, by only excepting in their contracts, "the danger of the seas," occasioned, two or three years ago, an alteration in these ancient instruments, more for their advantage. "The act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and all and every other dangers

and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever," is now the form of the exceptions. These words have not as yet undergone any judicial examination, and, therefore, Mr. Abbot confines himself to observations on the meaning of the phrase "perils of the seas," and the implied exceptions of the acts of God and the king's enemies, and of the statement of the cases upon them.

It is pretty well known, that, by statute, ship owners are exempted from any loss beyond the value of the ship and freight, proceeding from the misconduct of their servants, without their knowledge, or from fire.

In his chapter upon the payment of freight, the author has stated the law with his usual precision: dividing the matter into, when the whole freight becomes payable; and where part only is due.

In many cases this will depend upon the terms of the contract. If it be not expressly provided for, in general the freight is not payable until the completion of that by which it has been agreed to be earned. But there are some exceptions. Where the goods are injured by the voyage, the consignee may refuse them, and avoid paying freight, but he cannot reject some part and take another. An apportionment of freight takes place in two cases; when the ship performs the voyage, bringing some of the goods, but not all; and where stopping, through necessity, at a place short of the destined port, the master delivers the goods to the consignee.

Whatever the master does in destruction of a part of the property under his charge, for the general safety, is to be paid for by a contribution from the proprietors of the whole. This rule, originating with the Rhodians, is called *general average*; and the different rules concerning it are laid down here under the question of who shall contribute: what articles shall contribute; and in what manner shall the contribution be made.

The doctrine of stopping goods in transitu, is introduced here for the purpose of affording direction to masters of ships how they must act, when that right has been exercised, and the consignee still demands the goods. It is now fully established by our laws.

that if the vender of goods hears of the bankruptcy or insolvency of the vender, he may stop them at any time before they have reached the hands of the vender. This is called stopping in transitu. But in sending goods by sea, there is this anomaly, that the bill of lading signed by the captain is negotiable, and assignable as a bill of exchange, and passes all interest in the consignment; and as it is generally sent to the consignee by the post, and arrives before the goods, the consignee may actually have assigned the bill of lading, and disposed of the cargo, before the ship gets to port. In this case, therefore, if the consigner wishes to stop the goods, he must agree to indemnify the master for acting contrary to his undertaking, or the master must deliver it to the assignee.

In his chapter on salvage, which is the recompence given to those who are the means of saving a ship or her cargo from impending peril, or after actual wreck, the author states the several statutes by which regulations have been imposed, with regard to the administering of such relief, the extent of the payment, and the mode of settling and recovering it. These statutes extend to cases of loss by capture, and by other means; and do not take away the old remedies by the courts of common law or admiralty. We wish that the knowledge of what is here communicated may decrease the numerous cases of fraud and oppression which every day disgrace our coast.

The dissolution of contracts for carriage of goods, are stated to be by consent of the parties, or by matter extrinsic; such as wars, or the passing of permanent laws, rendering such voyages illegal; but mere embargo or transferring causes will not annul them.

In the fourth part, the wages of merchant seamen are considered in four chapters; the hiring, the carriage, and payment of freight, the loss and forfei-

ture of it, and the proceedings to obtain the payment.

The mode of hiring is now matter of statute regulation, the particulars of which are here fully given.

As to wages, it is stated, that if a sailor is injured by accident in the voyage, or is unjustly discharged by the master, still he is intitled to his full wages: he is intitled to part if he be impressed during the voyage, and his personal representatives will be so, if he die before its completion. The general principle however is, that freight is the mother of wages, and that if no freight be earned, no wages are earned. If this rule be sometimes attended with hardship, it produces much benefit in uniting the interests of all concerned in the adventure, and inducing the greatest activity and zeal in the crew in cases of danger.

Desertion, or mutinying, deprive the seaman of his wages, and some cases may arise where injury having happened from their negligence, their wages may be applied to the payment of the damages. The contract may be enforced either in the admiralty or courts of civil law.

Upon the whole, Mr. Abbot has done great justice to the object of his undertaking. In a very clear manner he informs his readers of the English statutes and judicial decision upon the topics of which he treats, and the different doctrines that prevail in foreign countries, or are to be found upon them in foreign writers. He enters little into undetermined or speculative points, but aims at communicating what has been held to be the law. It may be hoped, that the many difficulties which remain in these subjects will be more easily solved by the public: and that, whilst it obtains for English laws their merited praise, it will lead to the essential improvement of those which regulate maritime commerce in every part of the world.

**ART. XVIII.** *A New and Complete Abridgment of all the Laws of Excise, from the Commencement thereof down to the present Day: Including full Instructions for Justices of the Peace and Officers of Excise, in every thing which relates to the Execution of these Laws; with an Appendix, containing approved and useful Precedents of Proceedings of every Kind on the Excise Laws, both before Justices of the Peace and in the Exchequer. By PETER JONAS, late Supervisor of Excise.*

THE excise laws bid defiance to every thing but a sort of index. The present work has not, however, the sole merit of

being the last upon a perpetually accumulating subject. It contains, first, an abridgment of the several acts of



parliament relating to the excise, alphabetically arranged according to their subjects; and then an appendix of nearly half the book, embracing a statement of all the different proceedings under those laws, with forms of information, warrants, orders, &c. and in very numerous cases.

To examine the correctness of such a work would be as laborious as to write it; but it bears the appearance of having had much attention bestowed upon it; and as the writer is stated in the preface to have had many years experience in the employment of an excise officer, and other considerable advantages, his book is, probably, as correct as such a work can be, and enough so for general pur-

poses. The precedents we presume to have been taken from those actually used in court. As to the observations upon general law, they shew that it is not necessary to be a lawyer in order to be a good exciseman. But, upon the whole, we agree with the author in thinking, that so general is now the operation of the excise laws, that the tradesman and gentleman are as equally concerned in knowing to what jeopardy they are daily exposed by an ignorance of them, as the excise officer and magistrate are, in being acquainted with the duties which they must perform, and the penalties that they have to enforce. To many his book will afford needful instruction, to all it will be a useful book of reference.

**ART. XIX.** *A Pocket Dictionary of the Law of Bills of Exchequer, Promissory Notes, Bank Notes, Checks; with an Appendix, containing the Abstracts of Acts, and select Cases relative to negotiable Securities, Table of Notarial Fees, Stamps, &c.* By JOHN TWING MAXWELL, Esq. of the honourable Society of the Inner Temple, Author of "The Spirit of Marine Law," &c.

THE principal object of this work is to afford to mercantile men a more ready reference to the various legal decisions on the subjects of which it treats. Hence is to be attained by means of these treatises, which, from their scientific arrangement, can be used with facility only by professional men. For this purpose the author has adopted an alphabetical arrangement, and has taken care to make the words sufficiently numerous, and to give references from one to another.

The work seems to us carefully executed, and well adapted to obtain its particular object, at the same time that it is not wholly unworthy of professional regard. The preliminary essay touches on such topics as are usually found in prefaces to works of this nature, and contains a quotation from Milton, which, besides the general impropriety of forcing poetical quotation into subjects to which it is so entirely unsuitable, is, we think, distinguished by its own peculiar unhappiness.

**ART. XX.** *Brown's Civil Law.*

IN order to make his book of more general interest, Dr. Brown has, in this second edition, greatly compressed that part which treated of the ecclesiastical law of Ireland, and has supplied its place by enlarging on the law of the admiralty, and showing its connexion with the civil law.

As the character of this work is now perfectly well known from the first edition, we will only here observe, that the alterations made by the author in the second edition, are extremely judicious. The ecclesiastical jurisdiction of

Ireland might, as an object of curious research, secure the attention of the antiquary; but the law of nations has become doubly interesting by the convulsions it suffered during the late war, and the discussions which its events occasioned. In the additions made to his second volume, Dr. Brown has availed himself of all his own extensive reading, and the late decisions in courts of justice, to render his treatise on the admiralty courts and laws as valuable as possible.

**ART. XXI.** *Essays, on the Action for Money had and received, on the Law of Assurances, and on the Law of Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes.* By WILLIAM DAVID EVANS, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo.

THE volume here presented to the public is part of a plan for exhibiting a

view of the legal principles by which some of the more important commercial

transactions of this country are regulated, including however, besides subjects strictly commercial, such other topics as are of general application. This plan the author proposes to execute in a series of essays on each particular subject, of which three are now before us, viz. one on the action for money had and received; a second on the law of insurances; and a third on the law of bills of exchange and promissory notes. The work is rather calculated to display to the general reader the principles of the law on each particular head, than to afford practical information to the professional lawyer, though undoubtedly it may have its use even to him. Where principle is the great object of discussion, a very clear and distinct arrangement is more indispensably necessary than in works of minuteness and particularity;

and we are sorry to observe rather a defect of arrangement in these essays, an objection which further experience in compositions of this nature will, we hope, enable the author to avoid. It may, perhaps, be proper to mention to the general reader, that the opinion entertained by Mr. Evans, that where no moral obligation intervenes, an action might be maintained to recover back money paid under a mistake of law, cannot, since the case of *Bilbie and Lumley*, (2 East. 469) which was determined subsequent to the publication of these essays, be considered as just, though it is certain that Mr. Evans had not formed his opinion on light grounds; for until the above case, there is no direct decision on the question, and even the *obiter dicta* of some judges are to be found in favour of the action.

## CHAPTER XIII.

## COMMERCE.

IT is not easy to draw the line between commerce and political economy: perhaps the plan which we have adopted is, upon the whole, as good as any, namely, to throw by themselves into a separate chapter, such books as treat practically upon trade, or consist for the most part of tables for the use of the exchange and counting-house, and to refer all works, on the general principles of commerce, or speculations on the subject, to the latter subdivision of chapter III. *On History and Politics.*

There are three books on this subject that have come under our notice; but one of them, the "*Dictionnaire Commerçante*" of Peuchet, has been, by inadvertence, placed at the end of Chapter III. the two remaining are as follow.

ART. I. *Tables calculated for the Arbitration of Exchanges, both simple and compound; with an Account of the Currencies and Monies of the principal commercial Cities in Europe.* By J. R. TESCHEMACHER. 4to.

A VERY curious work was published in 1779, at Madrid, entitled "*Memorias historicas sobre la Marina, Comercio, y Artes de Barcelona*," which establishes the curious fact, that from Barcelona the modern commercial world has derived its maritime law, and its bills of exchange. How far these things are borrowed from the regulations and practices of the ancient world may be doubtful; but it is evident that the Barcelonese are likely to have learned them at Constantinople, as their intercourse with that city was so great, that they still possess a privilege, or mercantile charter, of the emperor Andronicus II. dated 1290, and drawn up both in Greek and in Spanish.

Wheresoever bills of exchange originated, they are become astonishingly numerous; so that to deal in them, either as broker or banker, is itself one of the most important branches of commerce. They are, however, multiplied beyond the bounds of equity, by the too frequent practice of drawing and re-drawing; and the law concerning them, which, in cases of bankruptcy, permits the holder to make his election against

which indorser he will prove the debt, instead of compelling him to prove only against the immediate transferrer of the bill, gives to them an artificial value, very favourable to this mischievous multiplication.

The number, therefore, of brokers, merchants, and bankers, to whom good tables of exchange are convenient, must undoubtedly be immense. Before the war, Hahn's table was much resorted to, as a conveniently compressed catalogue of the monies of interchange; and Beawe's tables, as a lucid, orderly arrangement of the value in foreign monies of any English sum, from one pound to a thousand, at the several probable rates of exchange. These rates of exchange have greatly altered of late; so that the pendulum of *par* (to use the word in Mr. Teschemacher's sense), now oscillates between higher values in one set of intercourses, and between lower values in another set of intercourses, than was formerly usual. Hence the old tables omit some of the higher and some of the lower calculations, which are in daily use: it is necessary, therefore, to

republish them with extensions and improvements.

Whether this might not have been better accomplished by simply reprinting the old books, with the addition of the deficient reckonings, it is for the mercantile world to pronounce. To us it does not appear that the introduction is very clear or complete: a man of letters

would not easily learn from it the doctrine and practice of exchange. The tables have that sort of arithmetical merit which involves the praise of patience and accuracy: it will sound, and only sound, like panegyric if we add, that they record many of the observations of experience, and display much of the information of the cosmopolite.

ART. II. *System of Book-keeping, on a Plan entirely new.* By W. BOARDMAN. 4to. pp. 108.

BOOK-KEEPING, like most arts of life, is best learned by practice. A young man, who has been employed six weeks in a merchant's counting-house to post the books, will better understand the method than if he were to transcribe all the quarto volumes of Wicks, and Jones, and Boardman. In the work before us, the different models of books are not connected, so that the art of transferring entries from one book to another cannot be learned from it. It seems as if the publisher had obtained from one merchant an old waste-book, from another

an old cash-book, from a third an old ledger, and had reprinted a few leaves of each at random; whereas, the main thing to be acquired is the form, which the *same* transaction, the same receipt or payment, assumes in passing from the cash-book to the ledger, and so forth. No tradesman, no man of letters, no lady, previously ignorant of book-keeping, could from this system derive information enough to undertake a set of books in a correct and intelligible manner.

## CHAPTER XIV.

## MILITARY TACTICS.

BESIDES Professor Landmann's work, and Mr. James's military dictionary, there have been published two or three pamphlets containing the rules and regulations of the new royal military college: these, however, have been omitted; first, as not being proper subjects of literary criticism; and secondly, because we understand that considerable alterations have taken place, so as to render the regulations in question no longer a fair representation of the discipline of the institution.

**ART. I.** *The Field Engineer's Vade Mecum.* By J. LANDMANN, Professor of Fortification and Artillery to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. 8vo. pp. 123. and 3 plates.

THIS little treatise is a convenient introduction to that most important division of military science, the art of the field engineer. It is, however, merely an introduction, and by no means supercedes the necessity of more copious publications. The first part contains 53 problems of practical geometry, appli-

cable to the tracing out of field works, or permanent fortifications, together with the method of taking heights and distances, and of surveying, without any other instruments than the chain, cord, and staves. To this succeeds an *introduction to reconnoitring*, which is too brief to be of any very considerable utility.

**ART. II.** *A new and enlarged Military Dictionary, or alphabetical Explanation of technical Terms: containing, among other Matter, a succinct Account of the different Systems of Fortification, Tactics, &c. also the various French Phrases and Words that have an immediate or relative Connexion with the British Service; or may tend to give general Information on Military Subjects in either Language.* By CHARLES JAMES, Author of the *Regimental Companion, Comprehensive View, &c.* Thick 8vo.

WE have looked through this work, (for it will scarcely be demanded of a reviewer actually to read every article in such a publication) in order to gain a general idea of its contents, and have perused with attention some of the leading articles, the result of which is, upon the whole, a very favourable opinion both of the manner and matter. Not only are the technical terms of each language carefully explained, but a number of interesting and important details, practical as well as historical, are inserted, which this work, from the modesty of its title, would hardly be expected to contain. The *Memoirs of Marshal Saxe*, the *Dictionnaire Militaire*, and other respectable French authorities,

have been consulted, together with all the scattered documents, and acts of parliament, illustrative of the changes that the British service has undergone to the conclusion of the late war.

The article *MARCH* is particularly excellent; and displays, in a striking manner, the author's good sense and professional knowledge. *BATTERY* is another practical article, of which we shall quote a part by way of specimen.

"*BATTERY*, in military affairs, implies any place where cannon or mortars are mounted, either to attack the forces of the enemy, or to batter a fortification; hence, batteries have various names, agreeable to the purposes they are designed for.



"**Gun-Battery**, is a defence made with earth, faced with green sods or fascines, and sometimes made of gabions filled with earth: it consists of a *breast-work*, *parapet*, or *epaulement*, of 18 or 20 feet thick at top, and of 22 or 24 at the foundation; of a ditch 12 feet broad at the bottom, and 18 at the top, and 7 feet deep. They must be  $7\frac{1}{2}$  feet high. The embrasures are 2 feet wide within, and 9 without, sloping a little downwards, to depress the metal on occasion. The distance from the centre of one embrasure to that of the other is 18 feet; that is, the guns are placed at 18 feet distance from each other; consequently the *merlins* (or that part of solid earth between the embrasures,) are 16 feet within, and 7 without. The *agenouilliers* (or part of the parapet which covers the carriage of the gun,) are generally made  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet high, from the platform to the opening of the embrasures; though this height ought to be regulated according to the semi-diameter of the wheels of the carriage, or the nature of the gun. The platforms are a kind of wooden floors, made to prevent the cannon from sinking into the ground, and to render the working of the guns more easy; and are, strictly speaking, a part of the battery. They are composed of five sleepers, or joints of wood, laid lengthways, the whole length of the intended platform; and to keep them firm in their places, stakes must be driven into the ground on each side: these sleepers are then covered with sound thick planks, laid parallel to the parapet; and at the lower end of the platform, next to the parapet, a piece of timber 6 inches square, called a *hurter*, is placed, to prevent the wheels from damaging the parapet. Platforms are generally made 18 feet long, 15 feet broad behind, and 9 before, with a slope of about 9 or 10 inches, to prevent the guns from recoiling too much, and for bringing them more easily forward when loaded. The dimensions of the platforms, sleepers, planks, hurters, and nails, ought to be regulated according to the nature of the pieces that are to be mounted.

"The powder magazines to serve the batteries ought to be at a convenient distance from the same, as also from each other; the large one, at least 55 feet in the rear of the battery, and the small ones about 25. Sometimes the large magazines are made either to the right or left of the battery, in order to deceive the enemy; they are generally built five feet under ground; the sides and roof must be well secured with boards, and covered with earth, clay, or something of a similar substance, to prevent the powder from being fired: they are guarded by centinels. The balls are piled in readiness beside the *merlins*, between the embrasures.

"The officers of the artillery ought always to construct their own batteries and platforms, and not the engineers, as is practised in England; for certainly none can be so good judges of those things as the artillery

officers, whose daily practice it is; consequently they are the properest people to direct the situation, and to superintend the making of the batteries on all occasions.

"**Mortar-Battery**. These kind of batteries differ from gun-batteries, only in having no embrasures. They consist in a parapet of 18 or 20 feet thick,  $7\frac{1}{2}$  high in front, and 6 in the rear; of a berm  $2\frac{1}{2}$  or 3 feet broad, according to the quality of the earth; of a ditch 24 feet broad at the top, and 20 at the bottom. The beds must be 9 feet long, 6 broad, 7 from each other, and 5 feet from the parapet: they are not to be sloping like the gun-platforms, but exactly horizontal. The insides of these batteries are sometimes sunk 2 or 3 feet in the ground, by which they are much sooner made than those of cannon. The powder magazines and piles of shells are placed as is mentioned in the article **GUN-BATTERY**."

The following will show that our author's elucidations of the peculiarities of the French service are not confined to mere definition.

"**GARDE de la tranche**, fr. Guard for the trenches. Among the French, this guard usually consisted of four or six battalions. It was intrusted to three general officers, viz. one lieutenant-general on the right, one major-general on the left, and one brigadier-general in the centre. All general officers, when on duty for the day in the trenches, remained the succeeding night, and never left them until they were regularly relieved by others of their own rank.

"When it came to the turn of any particular battalion to mount the trench guard, it was the duty of the major of that battalion to examine the ground on which it was to be drawn up, to look at the piquets, and to see where the grenadiers were posted, in order to go through the relief with accuracy and expedition.

"The battalion was drawn up in the front of the camp; the grenadiers being stationed on the right, next to them the piquet, and on its left flank the body of the battalion. The latter was divided into different piquets, and formed in order of battle. So that instead of the several companies being posted together, the men were drafted out, and distributed in such a manner, that the whole battalion was separated into troops or companies, each consisting of forty-eight men, promiscuously thrown together.

"The advantage which was derived from this disposition of the battalion, and from its having been previously told off according to each company's roster, is manifest; for when a second or third battalion piquet was wanted in the trenches, the different detachments were already formed without going into the small detail of companies. The officers, in conformity to their roster, were

ordered to march, and the piquet moved out without a moment's delay.

"Add to this, that whenever it was found necessary to make a sortie, the loss of men did not fall upon one company, but was divided among the whole battalion.

"A general rendezvous, or parade, was fixed for all the regiments who were to do duty in the trenches; they assembled in that quarter, and were drawn up in-line, with all the grenadiers on the right, and the whole of the piquets upon the same alignment. At the hour appointed the latter began to file off, and each regiment followed according to its seniority. The lieutenant-general, whose tour of command was in the trenches, placed himself at the head of those troops who were to attack upon the right; the major-general at the head of those belonging to the left, and the brigadier-general took the centre; the oldest regiment headed the right, the next in seniority stood in front of the left, and a third preceded the center.

"As soon as the troops reached the tail of the trench, the men marched by Indian files, or rank entire, and each one took his post. Sentries were stationed, and the necessary detachments were made. The colours were planted upon the parapet of the trench. At night the adjutants of corps went to the head-quarters, to receive instructions relative to the projected attack, and got the parole and countersign from the general. The senior adjutant communicated his orders to the rest, who conveyed the same, first to their several colonels, and afterwards to the sergeants of each regiment.

"When on duty in the trenches, soldiers must not, on any account, quit their fire-arms; and the instant the least noise is heard, it is their duty to throw themselves upon the back of the trench, and there remain till the order is given to march. When an attack is directed to be made, the execution of it is always entrusted to the grenadiers. These are supported by the different piquets, and the main body of the corps follows with the colours.

"When the chamade was beat by the besieged, with a view to capitulate, it was a rule among the French, that the battalions which were posted in the trenches might refuse to be relieved, and could remain at their station until the garrison marched out. When the capitulation was signed, it fell to the oldest regiment belonging to the besieging army to take possession of the gate that was delivered up, and that corps remained in the town until a governor was named, and a regular garrison appointed."

Of the historical articles, INFANTRY is a fair specimen, from which we select the following quotation:

"Until the reign of Charles VII. the French infantry were extremely defective; so much so, that Brantome says, in one part of

his works, the infantry could not be considered as essentially useful to the security of the state. For it consisted in those days, of *marauts, belistres mal armés, mal complexionnés; senéans, pillards-et mangeurs du peuple*: which may be thus rendered in plain English: *lads, rascals and vagabonds, scoundrels ill-equipped, and ill-looking; filchers, plunderers, and devourers of the people*.

"Europe, however, is unquestionably indebted to the Swiss for a total change in the military system, particularly so with regard to foot soldiers.

"Dr. Robertson, in the first volume of his history of Charles V. p. 105, observes, that the system of employing the Swiss in the Italian wars, was the occasion of introducing a total innovation in the military custom. The arms and discipline of the Swiss were different from those of other European nations. During their long and violent struggles in defence of their liberties against the house of Austria, whose armies, like those of other considerable princes, consisted chiefly of heavy-armed cavalry, the Swiss found that their poverty, and the small number of gentlemen residing in their country, at that time barren and ill-cultivated, put it out of their power to bring into the field any body of horse capable of facing the enemy. Necessity compelled them to place all their confidence in infantry; and, in order to render it capable of withstanding the shock of cavalry, they gave the soldiers breast-plates and helmets, as defensive armour, together with long spears, halberds, and heavy swords, as weapons of offence. They formed them into large battalions, ranged in deep and close array, so that they could present on every side a formidable front to the enemy. (See Machiaval's Art of War, b. ii. chap. ii. p. 451.) The men at arms could make no impression on the solid strength of such a body. It repulsed the Austrians in all their attempts to conquer Switzerland. It broke the Burgundian gendarmerie, which was scarcely inferior to that of France, either in number or reputation; and when first called to act in Italy, it bore down, by its irresistible force, every one that attempted to oppose it. These repeated proofs of the decisive effect of infantry, exhibited on such conspicuous occasions, restored that service to reputation, and gradually re-established the opinion which had been long exploded, of its superior importance in the operations of war. But the glory the Swiss had acquired, having inspired them with such high ideas of their own prowess and consequence, as frequently made them mutinous and insolent, the princes who employed them became weary of depending on the caprice of foreign mercenaries, and began to turn their attention towards the improvement of their national infantry.

"The German powers, having the command of men, whom nature has endowed with that steady courage and persevering strength which form them to be soldiers, soon modelled their troops in such a manner, that they vied with the Swiss, both in discipline and valour.

"The French monarchs, though more slowly, and with great difficulty, accustomed the impetuous spirit of their people to subordination and discipline; and were at such pains to render their national infantry respectable, that as early as the reign of Louis XII. several gentlemen of high rank had so far abandoned their ancient ideas, as to condescend to enter into their service.

"The Spaniards, whose situation made it difficult to employ any other than their national troops in the southern parts of Italy, which was the chief scene of their operations in that country, not only adopted the Swiss discipline, but improved upon it, by mingling a proper number of soldiers, armed with heavy muskets, in their battalions; and thus formed that famous body of infantry, which, during a century and a half, was the admiration and terror of all Europe. The Italian states gradually diminished the number of their cavalry, and, in imitation of their more powerful neighbours, brought the strength of their armies to consist in foot soldiers. From this period, the nations of Europe have carried on war with forces more adapted to every species of service, more capable of acting in every country, and better fitted both for conquests, and for preserving them. See Robertson's View of the State of Europe, b. i. p. 105 and 107.

"*Infanterie, aventuriere*, fr. a species of French infantry, which succeeded to the legions that were established under Francis I. in imitation of the Roman legions. This infantry was kept up as late as during the reign of Henry IV. when the whole of the foot establishment was reduced into regiments.

"*Heavy-armed INFANTRY*, among the ancients, were such as wore a complete suit of armour, and engaged with broad shields and long spears. They were the flower and strength of the Grecian armies, and had the highest rank of military honour.

"*Light-armed INFANTRY*, amongst the ancients, were designed for skirmishes, and for fighting at a distance. Their weapons were arrows, darts, or slings.

"*Light INFANTRY* have only been in use

since the year 1636. They have no camp-equipage to carry, and their arms and accoutrements are much lighter than the common infantry, or battalion men. Wherever there is light cavalry, there should be light infantry to act in conjunction.

"*Foreign INFANTRY* (*Infanterie étrangère*, fr.) Foreign troops were taken into pay, during the old monarchy of France, at a very early period. In the reign of Phillip, surnamed *le Bel*, or handsome, treaties and agreements were severally entered into, for this purpose, with John Baileul, King of Scotland, Eric King of Norway, Albert Duke of Austria, and many other German princes, and with Humbert Duke of Viennois.

"Phillip of Valois likewise made use of foreign troops, and under Louis XI. the Swiss were taken into French pay; since that period, and until the revolution which was accomplished on the 10th August, 1792, several regiments were maintained under the different denominations of Swiss, German, Italian, Catalonian, Scotch and Irish corps or brigades. During the present war the same system has been more or less adopted by the British government. Independent of foreign subsidies, it has been judged expedient to admit foreigners of rank, and, we presume, of military merit, within those native limits from whence heretofore every stranger was jealously excluded. A reference to the official army list will readily point out the corps that come under this description. With respect to the 6th or Loyal American, it is necessary to observe, that the original principles upon which those battalions were established, have been totally altered. One battalion in particular, instead of being American, should be named German. For the colonel is a German by birth and education, and the majority of the corps are from that country."

Among so much worthy of praise, we were sorry to observe many short articles taken from Orme's History of Hindostan, which are wholly unconnected with military affairs, and only serve to swell the volume, such as Ganges, Geriah, Goa, Golconda, Lama of Tibet, &c. A similar objection may be made to geography, geometry, gothic architecture, hierarchy, magna charta, and many others.

## CHAPTER XV.

## RURAL ECONOMY

AND

## GARDENING.

THE only agricultural work of any importance, that has appeared in the time which our plan comprehends, is the volume of communications published by the Board of Agriculture, on the best methods of converting pasturage into tillage, and returning the land to its former state. These enquiries were instituted, as our readers will remember, in consequence of the defective harvest of the year 1800, and the ensuing scarcity. The Board, by their active exertions, have collected, and made public, much important practical information upon the subject of their enquiries, but ought, by all means, to have printed it in a cheaper form, if their intention was to suggest improvements to the only persons capable of ascertaining their practical value. The science of Horticulture has received an extremely valuable addition in Mr. Forsyth's book on the training and management of fruit trees, which, however it may contradict some ingenious theories on vegetable physiology, appears to rest on the firm basis of well substantiated facts.

ART I. *Essays on Agriculture; with a Plan for the speedy and general Improvement of Land in Great-Britain.* By BENJAMIN BELL, Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 549.

IT may appear a little singular, that the two first of a series of essays on agriculture should be solely occupied, one on the taxation of income, and the other on the national debt, the funds, and the sale of the land-tax. In explanation, Mr. Bell tells us that, "his chief object is to endeavour to place the importance of agriculture in that view to his countrymen which it appears to merit: but as it is his opinion that the agriculture of no kingdom can thrive if the taxes that the people pay are proportionably higher than those of other countries, and as this is evidently the case in Britain, it was part of his plan, from the first, to prefix these and some other essays on the revenue of the king-

dom to those that relate more immediately to agriculture."

Mr. Bell is of opinion that the quick reduction of the national debt is a matter of indispensable necessity to the improvement of agriculture, and the consequent prosperity of the kingdom; and he conceives that nothing can furnish funds for the liquidation of any part of that debt but some well-regulated tax on income.

This essay was written during the existence of the income-tax, which, however, from its partial pressure, could not meet with the approbation of our author, who suggested some modifications, which he thinks might render it palatable and useful. But it has been execrated

by the universal voice of the people: it is not to be modified, and it can never be submitted to: an inquisitorial investigation into every man's affairs must be instituted before any tax upon income can take effect. The plan which Mr. Bell suggests, in no degree obviates this insuperable objection.

"To oblige men to set forth their incomes, for the purpose of being assessed, is not only imposing a disagreeable task on all who may be liable to the operation of the scheme, but, by appointing every man to act the part of an assessor on himself, while powers are given to others to contradict what he may assert, as is the case in collecting our present assessment of income, individuals may be placed in very unpleasant situations, which, on a different plan, might easily be avoided: This might, with certainty, be guarded against, and, perhaps, all the advantages of the scheme retained, were this part of it to be reversed, by appointing assessors to affix the sums which incomes ought to pay, instead of obliging those who are assessed to mention their amount, if it be not for the purpose of adducing evidence of their being overcharged, when this should be the case; and as this would seldom happen, and never but as a voluntary act on the part of the individual, few complaints would be made against it."

What is meant by appointing assessors to affix the sums which incomes ought to pay? The sum which certain incomes ought to pay, in other words, the rate of assessment, must be established by parliament. Mr. Bell means, that these assessors should decide upon the amount of incomes, not upon the burden which those incomes are to bear; but it is obvious that he leaves the evil exactly where he found it: according to the manner in which the old income tax was levied, each man assessed himself: according to Mr. B's scheme, each man is to be assessed by his neighbours. Where is the difference? a disclosure of circumstances is the ground work of both, and must indispensably be the ground work of every income tax which imagination can devise.

But, says he,

"Were this even to be the general effect of it, there is reason to think that no public harm would result from it: nay, it might eventually answer a good purpose, by serving to detect the wild speculations of those, who, without funds of their own, enter rashly on extensive schemes of trade and manufactures, altogether on credit, thereby giving rise to many calamitous bankruptcies

which otherwise would not happen. In this manner it would afford the most essential support to fair traders, whilst those only would suffer by its operation who might do harm to others by continuing to do business longer."

The good which society would reap from the timely detection of a few mad speculators, would be absolutely nothing in comparison of the evil which, in a commercial country, would result from this *panopticon* system of investigation; Confidence, unbounded confidence, is the soul of commerce; it is at once the effect and cause of its activity. Without confidence there can be no credit; without credit, arts and manufactures, and consequently commerce, must languish and soon wither away. In some few instances, this vivifying sap may be distributed with a rash and injurious profusion: the leaf-buds may be numerous, and the flower-buds fail; the branches and the foliage may be too proud, too wide-spread and luxuriant to bear fruit, but withdraw the sap, and the tree itself dies at once, down to the very ground.

It is the fault of the second essay, that a great deal of it is founded upon the first. Mr. Bell is anxious to liquidate the national debt: his remarks on its injurious operation are perfectly just, and he repels the fallacious arguments which were once held to prove, that this national burden is a national benefit, with spirit and success. His animadversions on the funding system, and his observations on the price of stocks as indicative of national prosperity or depression, are quite correct.

"We now find, what not many years ago would have been very difficult to believe, that the nation has not only continued to thrive under the greatest depression of her funds which ever before happened, but in a degree, both with respect to her manufactures and trade, of which we have no example. It has even been found, during this depressed state of our funds, when the three per cents have fluctuated from forty-seven to sixty, that not a single complaint has been heard of its proving hurtful, while few will, probably, doubt of there being now more wealth in the nation than we ever possessed even at that period when the same stock sold at ninety-six. Nay, there is reason to hope, that the time will at last arrive, when all will perceive, that our national wealth and prosperity have so little dependance on the high price of the funds, that, *ceteris paribus*, we shall thrive in proportion as they become low; the causes of which, all who have con-



sidered the subject will understand; and, being one of the leading objects of these essays to explain, it will be found in different parts of them."

As in all other markets, the *commodity* at the Stock Exchange rises in proportion to the demand for it: it is a proof of confidence in the solvency and stability of Government when that demand is great, but it is at the same time a proof that there is a great deal of money in the kingdom which cannot find a more profitable employment. It is true, indeed, that the Stock Exchange is a gaming house, and that the hope of taking advantage of sudden changes brings much more money to it than it could possibly expect to draw in a fair marketable way. So much the worse: the greater the sums which are locked up in the funds, and the greater those which are held in reserve for the purpose of taking advantage of any alteration in the market price of them, the less capital is left to be employed in agriculture, manufactures, and so on. When the funds are high, the interest upon any specific sum of money in them is low: and when we take low interest, it is only because we cannot obtain a higher elsewhere. If the national debt were paid off—an extravagant postulat—can there be any doubt but that the money which is now locked up in stock, would infuse life and vigour into commerce and manufactures, and would improve to an incalculable degree the agriculture of the country?

By the temptation which speculation in the funds holds forth, a large proportion of the national wealth will, probably, continue to be attracted towards them; and Mr. Bell justly observes, that this money is employed to the most useless and baneful purposes, that of giving encouragement to a national spirit for gambling and dissipation. A plan, therefore, he concludes, should instantly be adopted, as well for putting a stop to this spirit of speculating in the funds, as for the ultimate extinction of our public debt. What is this plan for the extinction of the public debt? an income-tax! "The sum which at present is applied to the sinking fund, is upwards of four millions per annum. By a well-regulated tax on the national income, there is reason to think that twenty-six millions may be obtained yearly." We cannot enter

into particulars; but in order that this, or any other scheme, for the reduction of the debt "may proceed without interruption, a price should be fixed," says Mr. Bell, "by act of parliament, at which all quantities of stock shall hereafter be sold which government may be enabled to purchase, otherwise, as the quantity of stock would yearly lessen, by the very operation of the scheme itself, the value of the remainder might rise to more than the public ought to give for it." The difficulty then is to fix what this price should be: Mr. Bell proposes to enable government to purchase every variety of stock either at par, or the price at which it was originally sold by government: making some allowance to those purchasers who bought in when stocks were high. As stocks would never rise much above par, therefore, but on the contrary would commonly sell at less, this measure would have a tendency to put a stop to that spirit of gambling, which the fluctuation of the funds excites. Some good observations on the impolicy of proprietors purchasing their land-tax conclude this essay.

Essay 3. *On the Improvement of Agriculture.* "In the preceding essay I had occasion to remark, that landholders, instead of being desired to purchase their land-tax, ought at once to be relieved from it, and be put on the same footing with others, whose wealth arises from money or other property, producing income. In equity this ought certainly to be done; and there is reason to hope, that at no very distant period it will happen."

How humiliating is the reflection, that men who have devoted their honest and unprejudiced attention to the science of political economy, should have come to conclusions on the subjects of taxation and the improvement of agriculture, diametrically different from each other! Those celebrated French writers who are called *honoris causa*, political economists, have contended, that the essential cause of the wealth of any nation is the skill and labour bestowed upon the soil by its inhabitants, for the purpose of increasing its fecundity. The encouragement of agriculture, then, and its improvement progressively till it reaches a state of perfection, is with them a matter of the highest consideration. They contend, that manufactures, however beneficial to a state, and

they do not hesitate to acknowledge them beneficial in the highest degree, produce no positive augmentation of wealth: they contend, that the only income of a nation, is that which is produced by its land. The political economists do not shrink from the obvious and legitimate inference: if the produce of the soil is the only source of wealth, it ought to be the only source of revenue: in other words, there should be no other tax but a land-tax.

This must be an alarming doctrine to Mr. Bell: if he wishes to see its difficulties obviated, we refer him to a man who is as warm and able an advocate for the encouragement of agriculture as himself: to Dr. Gray, who, in his pamphlet on the essential principles of the wealth of nations, has clearly and briefly discussed the subject. This doctrine, he observes, "to the superficial has been a matter of drollery, to the serious a stumbling block, and to the half-knowing an inexplicable riddle. In France, Germany, and Holland, it has had a great variety of opposers as well as of approvers. The witty Voltaire attacked it in one of his most flimsy productions, "*L'Homme à quarante écus*," The serious Necker expresses his doubts of it, and argues upon its impracticability: but his arguments are such as clearly prove, that the subject had not been justly conceived by him. In Britain, Dr. Adam Smith views it askance, and cautiously shoves off the discussion of its merits:" Mr. Arthur Young has opposed it warmly, and Dr. Gray has refuted his arguments.

But this incidental passage of Mr. Bell has already led us too far astray: we must return to his plan for the improvement of agriculture. This plan is, that the sum of two millions, five hundred thousand pounds should be annually placed by government under the charge of the Board of Agriculture in London, and of provincial agricultural boards, which that board should direct, five hundred thousand pounds, or thereabouts to be distributed in premiums for various improvements, and the remaining two millions,

"To be lent without interest, for a period of ten years, to proprietors and farmers who might apply for it, possessed of grounds which the board of agriculture for the county would judge to be capable of improvement;

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the money to be entirely at the disposal of the county boards, who should be directed to see it properly applied, and to take sufficient security for the repayment of the principal sums: and as it should not be given in a greater proportion than ten pounds sterling for every acre to be improved; a sum which all improvers would most thankfully on these terms accept; two hundred thousand acres of land, which at present are nearly unproductive, would, by this expedient alone, be yearly brought to a state of cultivation, the very important advantages of which are so obvious, that they need not here be enumerated

"As two millions of this money, would, at the end of ten years, become due annually, were it then to be lent on the same terms to other improvers, two millions might be thus employed for this very essential purpose, yearly, without levying more on the nation.

But how is this sum of two millions five hundred thousand pounds to be procured? The easiest and best method perhaps, says Mr. Bell, *would be from the general assessment of income*. All these boards are to correspond with each other, and models of new instruments, which have proved useful in agriculture, are to be exhibited at the annual public meeting of the provincial society.

The fourth and last essay, is on the subjects of scarcity and dearth. It was written during the alarming scarcity which prevailed two years ago, and had it been published at that time, might have been serviceable to farmers, as it vindicates them in an able manner from the foolish, but dangerous charge which the ignorant brought against them, of having been instrumental to the evil. Monopolizers, as they are called, forestallers, and regraters, are also ably defended from the heavy charges which are brought against them. Mr. Bell is for repealing every statute which is continued against dealers in corn and other provisions. Let them be protected, let them be permitted to purchase and sell in all situations, and all circumstances, and whenever they may think proper. A perfect freedom of trade, he conceives, would ensure regularity to our markets, and thus be eventually of incalculable benefit to the public. We are not disposed to contend against this doctrine: it has recently been brought forward, and merits a most impartial and scrutinizing investigation. We are inclined to believe, that it is founded on sound principles of policy,

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and shall at all times be happy to see it discussed, in all its branches, with freedom and with temper.

A great many collateral subjects fall under discussion in the course of this essay, as reputedly connected with scarcity or abundance: the corn laws, bounties on importation and exportation, large and small farms, paper credit, enclosure of wastes, &c. These subjects have been so repeatedly and minutely discussed of late, that it is not necessary for us to enter upon them on the present occasion. Mr. Bell is an

advocate for large farms, an unlimited extension of country banks and paper credit: his reasoning on this subject is far from being satisfactory to us, and as to the enclosure of commons, he thinks, that an immediate reduction in the price of provisions would not follow such a system; and that the lands at present under tillage are amply sufficient, if properly cultivated, to supply the population of the kingdom.

Mr. B. has it in contemplation to publish a second volume of essays.

ART. II. *Essays on miscellaneous Subjects*, by Sir JOHN SINCLAIR. 8vo. pp. 467.

Essay I. "Observations on the nature and advantages of statistical enquiries; with a sketch of an introduction to the proposed analysis of the statistical account of Scotland."

We are sorry to learn, that the intention of the laborious compiler of the statistical account of Scotland, to have drawn up an analysis of the whole work, has been hitherto frustrated by his own indifferent state of health, and by occupations which interfered with his plan. As it seems to be uncertain whether Sir John Sinclair will ever have it in his power even to begin, far less to complete a work which is so loudly called for; he has explained the nature of the plan which he intended to pursue, and has thus facilitated the task to any one who shall engage in it.

In the preliminary observations are considered, 1st. The nature of those blessings, to the enjoyment of which, every individual member of a political society seems to be justly entitled; and, 2dly. What are the most likely means of rendering them as generally attainable as possible. The objects of human life are comprehended under the heads of, 1. Animal; 2. Social; and 3. Mental Enjoyments. The first consist of food, clothing, and shelter; the second arise from family connexions or personal friendship; from marriage or the union of the sexes; from the enjoyment of property; from useful occupations; and, lastly, from political institutions. The third, mental enjoyments, the highest of which man is susceptible, result from religious and moral exertions, and from the exercise of his mental faculties in general.

Such, on the whole, are the pleasures of which human nature is capable of partaking; and the investigation of them leads to the second and very important question, what are the most likely means of rendering the enjoyments of life as general as possible. Various attempts have been made, at different times, to improve the state of political society, sometimes by sovereigns themselves, sometimes by their ministers, and sometimes by philosophers, who, in their closets, have invented systems of policy which shrink from the touch of experiment. Indeed, the systems of these several philanthropists have never been built upon that stable foundation, which is necessary for legislative purposes.

"Real patriots and practical statesmen, can be no longer satisfied with impartial and defective views of the situation of a country, but must wish to know the actual state of its agriculture, its manufactures, and its commerce, and the means of improvement of which they are respectively capable; the amount of the population of a state, and the causes of its increase or decrease;—the manner in which the territory of a country is possessed and cultivated;—the nature and amount of the various productions of the soil;—the value of the personal wealth or stock of the inhabitants, and how it can be augmented;—the diseases to which the people are subject, their causes, and their cure;—the occupations of the people;—in what cases they are entitled to encouragement, and where they ought to be suppressed;—the condition of the poor, the best mode of exciting their industry, and furnishing them with employment;—the state of schools, and other institutions founded for the purposes of public utility;—the state of villages and towns, and the regulations best calculated for their police and government;

—and above all, the state of the manners, the morals, and the religious principles of the people; and the means by which their temporal and eternal interests can be promoted."

In one word, statistics should be the ground-work of legislation; that is the science which will point out to us the most likely means of rendering the enjoyments of life as general as possible.

The plan of the proposed analysis follows: it is arranged with judgment, and we sincerely hope, that Sir John Sinclair will enjoy sufficient health and leisure to execute it himself.

Essay II. "Observations on the means of enabling a cottager to keep a cow by the produce of a small portion of arable land." Sir John estimates the extent of land necessary for this purpose, at three acres and a quarter; all which, with the exception of the orchard, may be cultivated with the plough and the hoe without interfering with the usual labour of the cottager. The sacrifice required on the part of landlords is absolutely nothing: the advantages which the cottager must reap from such a little farm, in his own occupation, as to the independence he will feel, as to the sobriety and general respectability which will probably attach to his character, and as to the abundant comforts which his family will derive, are scarcely to be estimated. Sincerely is it to be hoped, that a class of the community so numerous, so peaceable, so respectable, and whose exertions are so immediately and eminently useful to society, may be recompensed by their landlords with that important accommodation, which is here so powerfully recommended.

Essay III. "Hints as to the advantages of old pastures, and on the conversion of grass-lands into tillage." This essay consists of mere hints, which however may be consulted with advantage. The subject has of late undergone so much discussion, that it is unnecessary to enlarge on it here.

Essay IV. "Hints regarding cattle." Without enumerating the various breeds of cattle which prevail in different parts of the kingdom, Sir John engages at once upon the great question to be resolved, namely, what particulars are essential to form a perfect breed: if these are once pointed out, there is no sort that may not be improved by attentive breeders, either by crossing with other

stock, or by selecting the best specimens of the breed itself, so as to acquire the qualities that may be wished for. The result of the enquiry is, that cattle ought to be, 1. of a moderate size, unless where the food is of a nature peculiarly forcing; 2. of a shape, the most likely to yield profit to the farmer, that is to say, that the form ought to be compact, so that no part of the animal is disproportioned to the other; that the carcass should be deep, broad, and that the head, the bones, and other parts of little value should be as small as possible; 3. Of a docile disposition without being deficient in spirit. 4. Hardy, and not liable to disease. 5. Easily maintained, and on food not of a costly nature. 6. Arriving soon at maturity. 7. Producing considerable quantities of milk. 8. Having flesh of an excellent quality. 9. Having a tendency to fatten. 10. Having a valuable hide. And lastly, calculated for working. At the conclusion of an appendix on the different kinds of cattle farms, Sir John laments the little attention which is paid to the diseases of animals. It has often occurred to us, that the institution of a society similar to the Veterinary, and which might be called a society for the improvement of comparative pathology, would be attended with very important benefits. The wretches, who disgrace the country under the name of cow-leeches, are, of all ignorant and unfeeling creatures, the most ignorant and the most unfeeling. Society suffers an incredible loss in the confidence which farmers in general repose in the skill and knowledge and experience of these stupid, assuming, contemptible fellows. It is to be regretted, that it is considered *infra dignitatem*, on the part of surgeons resident in the country, to employ their skill in curing the diseases to which cattle are subject. Village surgeons are in the habit of slaving very hard for a very insufficient emolument: many a farmer would pay as liberally for attendance on his stock, as for attendance on his children. Would gentlemen of scientific education, thus situated, agree to the condescension; or rather, would they agree, that it is not derogatory from their professional dignity, to bring their knowledge of comparative anatomy and nosology into action, and apply it to the relief of wounded and diseased animals, the public would be greatly indebted to them, and

they would probably be quite as amply remunerated for their time and trouble as they are now.

If our suggestion of a comparative pathological society meets the approbation of Sir John Sinclair, he may, perhaps, think it worth while to lay a foundation stone for its establishment.

Essay V. "On the Improvement of British Wool." This essay contains the substance of an address to a society, constituted at Edinburgh for that purpose, so long since as Jan. 1791. It is now reprinted, with some alteration, which a further investigation of the subject necessarily pointed out. The *breed* and *management* of sheep, for the purpose of obtaining fine wool, are the two subjects to which these observations are restricted. In consequence of the sound and judicious advice given in this address, as to the particular objects of attention, under both these heads, a society was constituted, which, in the first place,

"Roused a great spirit for the improvement of sheep and wool, and introduced those sheep-shearing festivals which are likely to be productive of so much public benefit. 2. Which improved so much, by premiums, the quality of the Shetland wool, and increased so much its price, as to add 3000*l.* per annum to the value of those remote islands; and 3. which after many enquiries, and much correspondence, and several surveys made, at last ascertained, that a breed of sheep was to be found on the border of England and Scotland, to which the society gave the name of the Cheviot breed; which was peculiarly calculated for a hilly or mountainous district, possessing great hardness of constitution, and a very valuable fleece. This breed is now extending itself over the most northern parts of the island, and will render those remote districts infinitely more valuable to the proprietors and occupiers, and much more useful to the public than otherwise they could have been."

Two appendixes follow: one containing observations on the proper system to be pursued for the improvement of British wool; and the other, containing a description of the Cheviot breed of sheep, with an analysis of a Cheviot sheep-farm.

Essay VI. "Address to the Board of Agriculture, on the Cultivation and Improvement of the Waste Lands of the Kingdom." The indefatigable zeal which Sir John Sinclair has exhibited in promoting the cultivation of the waste and

unproductive lands of this kingdom, and the various attempts which he made during his presidency to remove the legal obstacles which prevented their improvement, are too well known to be repeated. This address was presented to the Board in the year 1795: it was printed by their order, and afterwards annexed to a report, presented to the House of Commons by a select committee, appointed anno 1796, to consider the Means of improving the waste lands of the kingdom.

Essay VII. "Substance of a Speech in a Committee of the whole House, on the Means of improving the System of Private Bills of Enclosure, and the Resolutions of the Select Committee upon that Subject." This, like the former "Essay," has long since been before the public, who are deeply indebted to the perseverance of the author; who, after numerous defeats in his patriotic attempt to carry a general enclosure bill through parliament, at length succeeded in obtaining the adoption of a string of resolutions, regarding bills of enclosure, which greatly diminished the expence of passing them. Since this speech was delivered, and these resolutions were passed, the number of enclosures has so greatly encreased, and yet continues encreasing, that in a few years it is probable there will be little land left in the kingdom entirely waste, except such as is absolutely barren and uncultivable.

Essay VIII. "Hints regarding certain Measures, calculated to improve an extensive Property; more especially applicable to an Estate in the northern Parts of Scotland." Sir John Sinclair is possessed of an estate in the county of Caithness, consisting of above 100,000 acres of land. To carry on a system of improvement over so large a tract of country, in any part of the kingdom, particularly in the northern extremity of Scotland, where the climate is extremely unfavourable to the operations of husbandry; where commerce and manufactures are at a low ebb; and where the district itself is almost inaccessible, from the want of roads and harbours, may certainly be reckoned a bold and a noble undertaking. The interests of the public are deeply implicated in its success; for it is justly observed, that if such an undertaking can be carried through in so remote a corner, labouring as it does under numerous disadvantages, it can hardly fail to answer in other parts of the kingdom,



where the same sort of disadvantages and obstacles do not take place.

The importance of previously forming some regular plan is obvious; "the objects to which I have been under the necessity of attending are numerous; and, in fact, the plan embraces such a variety of particulars, that it resembles a system calculated for the establishment of a new colony, or the improvement of an extensive province. These particulars may be classed under two general heads, namely, 1. Agricultural. 2. Miscellaneous." Under the first of these heads Sir John has considered the means of carrying on a system of improvement in 1. Arable lands; 2. Grass lands; 3. Waste lands; 4. Cattle farms; 5. Sheep farms. All the improvements bestowed on these several subjects will soon repay the expence which has been incurred. But the next topic, 6. Farm-buildings, however indispensable, will not return to the landlord an adequate interest for his money: it is of importance therefore to discover what is the best plan, and the cheapest mode, of erecting such buildings. Sir John has annexed the plan of a farm-house and offices, built for a small farm in his possession, in the county of Caithness, which, without being attended with much expence, from its having the appearance of an ancient Gothic building, has become a distinguished ornament to the neighbourhood. 7. Leases; 8. Plantations.

"But agriculture is not the only particular to be attended to in the formation of a great system of improvement, more especially for a remote part of the kingdom: unless some means are also taken to rouse a spirit of exertion, and to secure a certain market, and regular demand for the articles produced, which is the necessary result of successful industry, and increasing population and wealth, it is impossible that the farmer can flourish; and though country gentlemen cannot themselves engage in commerce, manufactures, the fisheries, mining, &c. more especially when their capital is employed in agricultural pursuits, yet they may give so much countenance and encouragement to such undertakings, as may answer the purpose effectually. I shall proceed therefore to state those miscellaneous sources of improvement, the success of which, indirectly and circuitously indeed, but ultimately with great effect, tend to promote the rural interests of a district."

These miscellaneous sources of improvement, so essential to the prosperous

establishment of so large a territorial concern, are arranged under the obvious heads of Commerce, Manufactures, Mines, Roads and Bridges, Harbours, New Villages, and New Towns. "It is my intention," says our author, "to establish three new villages—one at Berriedale, to provide for a number of people who may have been deprived of their usual mode of subsistence, in consequence of the introduction of sheep-farming; another at Scarlett, where there is a tolerable harbour for boats, and where, under the auspices of Capt. Brodie, of Hopville, a very important fishery may be carried on; and a third at the Brig end of Halkirk, in the centre of a fertile country, where several roads meet together."

But the spirit of patriotic enterprize which animates the bosom of Sir John Sinclair, is not satisfied with the erection of a few villages. "I have ever been of opinion, that no district could reach any degree of prosperity without having a considerable town in it; and that countries are in general, powerful and prosperous in proportion to the size of the cities which are found in them."

"Impressed with these ideas, I was happy to find a town in my own neighbourhood, (Thurso) admirably situated for every species of improvement. There was an old town which contained about 1,600 inhabitants, but the houses were very irregularly built, and in many places crowded on each other; I was thence induced to resolve on building a new town, on different principles, and where regularity was more to be attended to.

"In forming a plan for that purpose, the reader will perceive, from the annexed engraving, (see plate ii.) how much the comfortable accommodation of the inhabitants has been attended to; and if that plan is carried into execution in the manner proposed, (which must require time to accomplish) there is every reason to believe, that, in point of beauty and convenience, it will not be surpassed by any erection of the same extent of which Europe can boast. The new town of Thurso, according to the annexed plan, will only contain about 300 houses; but when a town, so advantageously situated, is once fairly set a-going, it is impossible to say to what a height of prosperity it may ultimately be carried. Indeed no town can be better situated. It is built on the banks of a considerable river, where it enters a beautiful bay, at the entrance of the Pentland Firth, and opposite to the Orkney Islands. The soil on which it is placed is dry, and the new town proposed to be erected, is situated on a gentle slope facing southwards. The harbour,

in spring-tides, will, at present, receive vessels of about 100 tons; and when the proposed improvements in it take place, ships of a much larger size may enter. The harbour, it is true, must always be a tide one, but fortunately, it has within two miles of it that celebrated anchorage ground, called Serabster Roads, which is equal to any of its extent in Europe for security and convenience. No town can be better situated for manufactures or commerce, being within a few hours sail of the German and Atlantic oceans; and commercial exertions are much aided by the accommodation which a branch of the Bank of Scotland, established at Thurso, readily furnishes. The town is admirably situated for the fisheries, that important source of northern wealth; and at present the fishing smacks, which supply the London markets with cod, being driven from the Dogger-bank, rendezvous in its neighbourhood. Indeed such is the variety of fish in that part of the kingdom, that twenty-four different sorts have been put upon the same table in the course of one day, without any extraordinary exertion. Thurso has also the advantage of excellent sands, where a bathing machine has been lately erected; an academy is now forming, where all the principal branches of education will be taught by proper masters; a boarding school, for girls, has been already established, which has been conducted much to the satisfaction of the town and neighbourhood; and as Thurso will thus rival, in the important article of education, any town of its extent in Scotland, that, joined to the cheapness of provisions, and other conveniences, must be a great inducement to persons of moderate incomes to settle there.

"In forming the plan of a new town, I thought it extremely desirable to have it laid out, not only in the best manner that my experience could suggest, but also to have the various public buildings, necessary to be erected, planned out in the best principles and construction. The private houses are all to be built according to a plan laid down for that purpose, and from which no individual, who takes the ground, is permitted to deviate. Several private houses have been already built; and in the course of this year, (anno 1802) it is to be hoped, that about one-fifth part of the new town will be completed. The general form of that town will be seen from the annexed engraving, (plate ii). As the public walk is already made, and the bridge built, and as every spot fit for the plough, within sight of either, is inclosed and cultivated, the scene from the public walk, or the bridge, is unconjunctly beautiful."

To this essay are two Appendixes: No. 1. on the means of establishing the Dutch mode of catching and of curing herring; on the variety of fish caught in the northern part of Scotland; and

on the means of promoting the fisheries in the North. No. 2. contains some account of the encouragement given by Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, for promoting the internal improvement of his dominions. The liberal grants of the king of Prussia to those who were engaged in measures of public advantage, ought not to exceed the encouragement given to similar undertakings, by the government of this country. The plan of improvement which is laid down in this essay, and which is already in a state of progressive execution, ought not merely to receive the countenance, but the willing assistance of government, at least as to roads, bridges, and public conveniences.

The ninth essay is employed in giving "An Account of the Origin of the Board of Agriculture, and its Progress for three Years after its Establishment."

Essay X. "Proposals for establishing, by Subscription, a new Institution, to be called, THE PLOUGH; or Joint Stock Farming and experimental Society, for ascertaining the Principles of Agricultural Improvement." This proposed experimental farm was to have consisted of 400 acres; to have been divided into four equal departments, one devoted to the cultivation of various sorts of grasses, a second to grains, the third to fallow crops, and the fourth to miscellaneous articles. A plan is annexed. The proposals for this establishment were submitted to the public some time ago: "It will hardly be credited in future times," says the author, "that after having raised a subscription to the amount of 30,000*l.* which would soon have reached 80,000*l.* or any other sum that might be judged necessary, that a charter of incorporation should be refused." The advantages of such an experimental farm are too obvious to be enumerated; and why the plan should have fallen to the ground in consequence of the refusal of a charter of incorporation, we are at a loss to conceive. We are not advocates for the multiplication of chartered companies: these companies obtain some advantage from their charters, or they do not. On the latter supposition they are unnecessary; in the former case, the advantages they obtain are too often paid at the public expence. The use of a charter, in the present instance, is by no means obvious.

Essay XI. "Letter to the Proprietor

of an extensive Property, on the Means of promoting the Comfort, and improving the Situation of the People in his Neighbourhood." Useful hints to country gentlemen.

The subject of the twelfth and last essay is "Longevity." In this paper are briefly sketched the circumstances which tend to promote longevity; the rules which have been adopted by those who have attained great age; and the peculiar description of countries most remarkable for long life; to which are added, some tables of longevity, and the duration of human life.

In the advertisement which is prefixed

**ART. III.** *Communications to the Board of Agriculture, on Subjects relative to the Husbandry and internal Improvement of the Country.* Vol. III. Part I. pp. 291.

IN December, 1800, the Board of Agriculture received a recommendation "from the Lords Committee appointed to take into consideration so much of his Majesty's speech as related to the dearth of provisions," to publish the following advertisement.

"This Board having been required by a Committee of the House of Lords, to examine into, and report to their Lordships the best means of converting certain portions of grass lands into tillage, without exhausting the soil, and of returning the same to grass, after a certain period, in an improved state, or at least without injury, and being desirous that their information, on a subject of so great importance, should be complete, adapted to every sort of soil, and founded in the most ample experience, have come to the resolution of offering the following premiums for that purpose, viz."

Adding many particular and highly interesting queries. In consequence of this notice, the Board had information from various parts of the kingdom: from which the essays contained in this volume have been selected for publication.

**No. 1. Hints from Sir John Sinclair, Bart.**

In enumerating the advantages of old pasture, the writer contends and justly, that this is found to answer better for making butter and cheese, than artificial grasses; which, though they may give a greater produce of milk, are yet found not to give a proportionate quantity of cream, and that of an inferior quality. He gives the opinion of an old and highly respectable farmer, Mr. Culley, who says,

"Artificial grasses, suited to the different

to this volume, the author says, that he scarcely should have ventured on the publication of it, had he not flattered himself with the idea that any one who reads it, will on the whole, be inclined to say, "This is the work of an author, who seems to have directed his attention to subjects connected with public utility, and national improvement; and whose favourite object was not to have lived in vain."

After an attentive perusal, we cannot hesitate to accede most cordially to the judgment pronounced by the author on his own work. He has not lived in vain!

soils, will be found to answer better than old grass, for feeding cattle, ewes, and lambs, during the beginning, and for the greater part of the summer; and even during the autumn, artificial grasses will feed ewes and lambs better than old grass; whereas on the other hand, fogs (or after-maths as they are called in the southern parts of England) from old grass, will certainly feed cattle better in the autumn, the richness, luxuriance, and strength of such herbage, being better calculated for their constitutions."

*The preparation of the soil we think very judicious.*

"The preparation for the tillage crops may be considered under three heads: 1. Draining; 2. Paring and burning; and 3. Manuring.

"In regard to *draining*, it should be done effectually, before the land is attempted to be ploughed, for very possibly it may have been kept in pasture, on account of its wetness.

"As to *paring and burning*, it is certainly a useful practice, where old grass lands are broken up, for it destroys numberless eggs and larvæ of insects, which are extremely injurious to the succeeding crops, and it almost insures the tenant from any damage which he is otherwise likely to sustain from wire-worms, grubs, &c. If the land is not pared and burned, the best plan to adopt is, to *double plough it*, by means of two ploughs following each other, the first plough taking off a thin surface of about three inches, and the second going deeper in the same place; both furrows not to exceed six inches, Mr. Duckett's skim coulter does the work at one operation. This plan is certainly the best to pursue, where paring and burning, from prejudice or any other circumstance, will not be permitted.

"As to *manuring*, if the land is not to be pared and burnt, lime might be spread on

the surface, some time before ploughing, in order to destroy grubs and insects; but old pasture lands, are in general rich enough to be abundantly productive, without dung, until they are about to be laid down into permanent pasture."

We should, however, rather recommend paring and burning on every sort of land where it can be accomplished, that is, on all but very strong soils, as it is without doubt, an effectual means of destroying vermin and securing abundant crops: the course of cropping is good; as, however, we shall have occasion, in going through this work, to notice much on this subject, we shall content ourselves with saying so: but the detail of management is merely a *hint*. We cannot altogether agree to the mode of laying down to grass recommended here. In our opinion, ray grass and red clover are very unfit for laying down land; the former has not that constant annual succession of keep which is requisite for a good pasture; and the latter being at best only biennial, must certainly be rather detrimental than otherwise, since it will as it goes off, leave *bald places*, which, till they are filled up with the spontaneous growth of the soil, will much diminish the produce. We are of opinion, in order to ensure a complete turf in the least time, that it is absolutely necessary, to use *picked natural grasses*; and where these are not to be had conveniently, good *hay seed*, and a large proportion, ten or twelve pounds to an acre, of white Dutch clover. In concluding this paper, the writer says,

"On the whole, though it may not be advisable, to recommend the ploughing up of very rich old pastures, or water meadows, or land apt to be overflowed; yet with these exceptions, there is every reason to believe, that other sorts of grass lands may be rendered much more productive, by being occasionally converted into tillage; and for that purpose it is desirable, that the conversion of such lands, should be promoted as much as possible: by removing the obstacles to such conversion; by enforcing the necessity of commuting tithes, without which, no considerable tract of old pasture can be broken up; by pointing out to landlords, the conditions under which they may agree to such a plan, not only without detriment to the real value of their property, but also yielding a most important addition to their income; and above all, by explaining to parliament, and to the public, that the measure above recommended, is one which

may effectually tend to prevent future scarcities; and to render this country independent of foreign nations, in the important article of provision."

No. II. *Essay by John Walker, D. D. Regius Professor of Natural History, Edinburgh.*

Dr. Walker attempts to prove, that the late scarcity was not so much owing to causes of an occasional nature, as to the increased luxury of the times, which has induced a much greater consumption of animal food; and, of course, the appropriation of much land formerly in tillage, to the purpose of grazing. To remedy this evil, the writer recommends to the landed proprietors to permit a few acres on their estates to be broken up and cropped with corn for two or three seasons; this, without doubt, would go far to answer the end proposed: but as it is now clearly understood, that the late dearth was occasioned, principally at least, by untoward seasons, we hope that there is little probability of the plan proposed becoming necessary.

No. III. *By Mr. Dalton.*

Taking it for an incontrovertible truth, that the interest of the landlord and the tenant is the same, and believing that where this axiom is not acted upon, they may be *equally* blameable; we cannot but regret such general reflections as are cast upon tenants by this writer; to grant the assertion, would be to allow that farmers are, in general, both extremely ignorant of their business, as well as men of very little principle.

The mode of laying down land, recommended by this writer, is deserving attention; sowing the seeds with beans is judicious; the proportion of seeds too, is good; Mr. D. prefers laying his land down *without* corn in August; we think the loss of the crop a needless extravagance, especially if it be beans, which, being a pulse crop, cannot injure the land, and may be of essential benefit in shading the young grasses.

No. IV. *By Mr. Maxwell.*

After nearly forty years experience, this very able agriculturalist is enabled to give a most excellent system of management for these soils, viz.

"First, Fen lands should be pared about an inch deep with a plough-drawn by horses, and the ashes should be spread as soon as possible after they are burnt. The second

ploughing should be from three to four, or even five, inches deep, according to the thickness of the upper stratum, touching as little of the moor as possible. This ploughing ought not to be performed until the season arrive for sowing turnips or cole-seed, for either of which fen land is applicable, though the latter is generally preferred, but both turnips and cole-seed ought to be hoed and fed upon the land with sheep; the plants of the former should be set out at least twelve inches asunder, and of the latter six. Fen land, if well drained, affords drier lair for sheep than almost any other land whatever. After the turnips or cole-seed, oats ought to be sown, the first crop of which, in most cases, will be too rank to admit of grass-seeds being sown with it, and therefore oats or wheat should be sown as a second crop, and with that crop, white clover, commonly called Dutch clover, at the rate of 14lbs. to an acre. A good herbage is, by this means, secured. Fen land has a great tendency towards grass, and neither the common red clover nor trefoil will live under water, and there are few seasons in which fen lands are not inundated for a time, for want of constant winds to keep the engines at work. The new pasture should be fed in the first and second year, and the stock should be mostly sheep, with a cow or other neat beast to every two acres; and if no horses are mixed with them, so much the better. No manure will be necessary till after the land shall have been mown for hay; and the longer that mowing is deferred, the better the herbage will be.

"Secondly. Clay-lands should be pared by hand with what is called a breast plough, to the same depth, or thereabouts, as the fen-land; and the ashes should be immediately spread. This ought to be done as early in the spring as possible, and the land should afterwards be summer-tilled with two or three ploughings to the greatest depth that the soil will bear, and managed exactly in the same manner as old ploughed land. This sort of land not being fit for turnips to be fed off, though it will grow them to a great size, should be sown with cole-seed to be eaten on the ground with sheep. In the next spring, sow barley or oats, and twenty pounds of common clover to an acre, which may either be fed the year following, or mown twice for hay, but none of the clover should stand for seed. Upon the clover-ley sow beans in the following year, which should either be hoed or sheepsfed. After the beans, sow wheat; and after wheat, a summer fallow again for cole-seed, to be fed off as before; and in the spring following, sow either oats or barley; and with that crop again convert the land to permanent pasture, by sowing four bushels of mead w hay-seeds, eight pounds of trefoil, and eight pounds of Dutch clover, to an acre. Summer-feed the new pasture, as

before directed, with respect to fen-land; and defer the mowing for hay as long as convenient. No manure will be wanted while the land continues in pasture.

"Thirdly. The milder soils above described.

"These should not be pared and burnt, but ploughed to the greatest depth that the stratum will bear, without bringing up any stiff clay; and if this be done with a plough so constructed as to take up one furrow under the other, the land will harrow, and the turf will rot, more expeditiously, than if ploughed only one furrow deep. Harrow in oats or barley, and, the next year summer-fallow as before directed, (ploughing to the full depth of both furrows,) and sow cole-seed, to be fed off with sheep. After the cole-seed sow oats, or barley again, or spring wheat may be sown with good effect; and with this crop sow common clover, to be used as before stated: after clover, beans; after beans, wheat; after wheat, again summer-fallow, for cole-seed to be fed off as before. After cole-seed, a spring crop of oats or barley, and the land to be laid down to permanent pasture with seeds of the same sorts, and in the same proportions; to be sown, used, and fed as before-mentioned, the mowing for hay to be deferred as long as convenient. No manure will be wanted till that shall have taken place. The beans in both the above sorts of land will be very luxuriant; and I recommend that the tops of them be taken off with a scythe, as is usually done with garden beans, to prevent them running too much to straw."

"In all the above cases, the new pasture should be rolled with a heavy roller, and kept clear of stock of every sort during the autumn and winter succeeding." It is with great deference that we give an opinion contrary to this gentleman, but we think in laying down land such as he describes, the proportion of trefoil, eight pounds, is too great, and a similar quantity of Dutch clover too small; we should prefer twelve pounds of the latter and four of the former, and for this reason;—land of this description generally has a great quantity of trefoil naturally growing on it, and, moreover, Dutch clover sooner makes a bottom in the soil.

No. V. By Sir C. Middleton, Bart.

In this short letter, there appears to us a novel, and, apparently, valuable practice; that of shutting up the after-math for winter food for sheep, (to be folded off like turnips) with half an oil cake each sheep *per diem*.

The foregoing communications are not in claim of premiums.



No. VI. *By the Rev. J. H. Close.*

The first chapter of this essay treats of "The present state of agriculture; the most obvious obstacles to its improvement; and some plans proposed for removing those obstacles." Amongst the impediments, the writer enumerates "Tithes; the difficulty and expence of inclosing waste lands; expensive and injudicious leases; want of knowledge in the practical farmers; the great increase of Poors' rates; and the want of that energy which formerly characterized the labourers of this land." The two first of these are great, but, we trust, not insurmountable obstacles; and, perhaps, this writer's plan may be as efficacious as many which have been made public: the third is, certainly, a great evil; but surely, as far as regards the *expence*, not to the extent that the writer seems to suppose: the want of knowledge in the practical farmers, is an evil of which they are very rapidly getting the better by their own exertions. Mr. Close is not the first who has proposed the establishment of public schools: that valuable writer, Mr. Marshall, has long deplored their want, and formed a plan for conducting them. Surely the increase of poors' rates has not exceeded the additional value of agricultural produce; if there be (which we doubt) a greater want of energy in the labourers; if they be more dissipated, the increased luxury of the times would fully account for it; and we do not perceive the justice of subjecting this class of people to additional restraints, which do not reach their more fortunate brethren.

The second chapter is "on the management and improvement by tillage of old grass land on a direct clay." Well knowing how much the success in cultivating this kind of soil depends on the weather, we cannot agree with this writer in recommending a course of drill husbandry, which on the land in question, must be always uncertain; and, we believe, that after proper pains have been taken in making sufficient drains, the course of husbandry recommended by Mr. Maxwell, will be found equally advantageous as to produce, and much less expensive than the one under consideration.

The writer next treats of "Strong wet loams in which clay greatly predominates;" after sufficiently draining,

eighty loads of marl were laid on each acre.

"This marl was spread on the old sour grass, and left to be pulverized by the winter's frost, and incorporated with the surface by the feet of the cattle and sheep. Early in the spring, the lands thus prepared, received one clean deep ploughing, and were drilled with oats; produce about thirteen quarters per acre. The second year drilled with peas; produce seven quarters and an half per acre: ever since which time they have been cropped regularly, and the produce has been immense."

The value of the land, in this instance, was increased six fold.

In the following chapter we find, what is called a comparative estimate of the two methods of sowing grass seeds, with a crop, or in August without one: but here is no conclusive evidence. The grass seeds sown with the corn were only ray grass and clover; those sown in August were hay-seeds: as ought to have been expected, the former in two years were worn out, whilst the latter improved in value. But how would it have been, had the seeds been sown in both cases? We have no hesitation in saying that they would be equally good, or at least the crop of barley would well afford a sufficient dressing, to make up the exhausture of the crop.

When this writer next visits the fens, we would recommend him not to confine himself to the neighbourhood of Wisbeach, which is far from a fair specimen of fen farming. In many parts of the Isle of Ely, Cambridgeshire, Thorney, &c. he will find a system which will merit as much praise from him as the other has blame.

In all matters of agricultural practice, writers would do well to confine themselves to facts, the result of careful experiments. There are no two branches of practice, the utility of which is more disputed, than paring, and burning, and liming; we believe, the general experience is in favour of the former, notwithstanding the ingenious theories of the advocates for the contrary system: and the use of lime too is so apparent, that, where it can be procured at a reasonable price, we believe very few farmers of any information would forego its benefit.

No. VII. *By Mr. Davis.*

This essay is written by a man who is

evidently master of his subject. It contains much valuable information, and is free from local prejudices. We recommend it as a very useful treatise, free from vague theories, and distinguished by much real good sense.

No. VIII. *By the Rev. Arthur Young.*

This doubtless is the most laboured, and, as far as the statements and calculations can be depended upon, one of the most important papers in the collection. On the subject of paring and burning, the writer's observations are valuable :

" Before we come to the distinction of soil, it will be proper to offer some general observations on the diametrically opposite systems embraced by such numbers of persons on the general question, whether this practice (of paring and burning) be excellent, or worthless ; as two parties have decisively pronounced it.

" By one set it is pronounced, contrary to every principle, that it is a wasteful extravagant operation, which dissipates what should be retained ; annihilates oils and mucilage ; calcines salts ; and reduces fertile organic matter into ashes of very weak efficacy ; that the vegetable particles which are brought into play at once for the production of a single crop, by less desperate management, might be husbanded to the support of many. On the contrary, the advocates for this operation assert, that these objections are all founded on vain reasoning, and philosophical theory ; that practice the most decided, and experience the most extended, pronounce it to be an admirable system ; and that the mischiefs, often quoted as flowing from it, are to be attributed merely to the abuse of the method, and by no means necessarily connected with it.

" I must without the least hesitation declare, that the latter of these opinions is that to which I subscribe. To trust to reasoning in matters of agriculture is a most dangerous reliance : I shall leave others to detail their philosophical speculations ; and rest what I have to offer solely on the practice, various and extensive, of numerous agriculturists, and on the common husbandry of many spacious districts.

" These agree in declaring (and it is most particularly to be had in remembrance, for the enemies of the practice admit it), that by paring and burning you may command two or three good corn crops in succession : the fact cannot be denied ; for whether you examine the peat of the Cambridgeshire fens, or the shallow chalk soils of the downs and wolds of Hampshire, Gloucestershire, or the East Riding of Yorkshire, it is known, that bad farmers do act thus absurdly ; they get, in-

deed, great crops, but they too often take them in succession, to the injury of the soil, though not to its ruin ; unless that can be esteemed the ruin of land which enables the tenant to pay a double rent for it. Such farmers have been in the habit of burning for wheat, and then taking two crops of spring-corn ; all good : now it might be asked, how is it possible that the husbandry can produce all the evils detailed above, which enables a soil, naturally poor and weak, to give two or three good crops of corn ? Their argument evidently proves too much : the effect shews, that there is a powerful cause or agent in burning, which they do not understand ; which escapes from the retort of the chemist, and from the rationale of the theorist : that operation or manure which will give a good crop of wheat, will give a good crop of turnips or cabbage ; and he who having made this commencement for the food of sheep on the land, and knows not how to go on, preserving the advantage he has gained, is a novice in the art of husbandry. The farmers that are railed at know it as well as their philosophical instructors ; but avarice, united with the baneful effect of short or no leases, makes them practise against their judgments.

" Paring and burning will on all sorts of land give turnips or cabbage ; these fed on the land by sheep will secure barley, or oats and seeds ; the seeds, fed with sheep, whether for a short or longer duration, will secure another crop of corn adapted to the soil ; and in this stage of the progress the soil will have gained much more than it has lost.

" It has often been contended, that burning lessens the soil ; if this happen any where, it must be in peat ; yet in the fens of Cambridgeshire this husbandry has been repeated once in eight years for a century and a half ; and the proofs of a loss of depth are extremely vague in every instance I have met with, and hardly to be distinguished from that undoubted subsidence which takes place in drained bogs of every description. In all other soils the assertion may be safely and positively denied."

The proper course of crops to be followed on breaking up old grass land is a most important consideration. If the object to be attained be the relaying old worn-out pasture, for a permanent turf, we should prefer a five-years course for one round : if it be on land which is meant only to lie a certain time, it is immaterial whether the course be repeated twice or thrice. This will in a good measure depend upon the value of produce. The great point is to keep the land in good condition, and lay it down clean with grass most suited to the nature of the soil. The section on grasses by this

writer contains much useful information. We cannot, however, agree with him in his proportions and kinds of seed for the various descriptions of land. We think that too small a proportion of Dutch clover is allowed; and also that the *poa pratensis* should be in more general use, as we know it to be a very useful fine grass. In the management of grass for the first three years, we perfectly agree with this writer. The conclusion of this interesting essay, "on the effects which may attend a great increase of tillage," is important; and events have, in some measure, confirmed the writer's sagacity. He remarks, that

"The breadth of wheat sown is uncommonly large; should it please God to bless the nation with a productive harvest, and good weather, I should not be surprised at seeing wheat fall suddenly, as it did after the scarcity of 1796; but, at all events, two good successive years would give such a stock in hand as to render the millers and corn dealers masters of the markets, as they were (very much by means of importation) from 1771 to 1794; and, in that case, all encouragements of tillage would be futile: price would have a greater power; and, by discouragement to tillage, would infallibly occasion, under our rapidly increasing population, successive famines. I am here treading on what may be called legislative ground; but as the board demands information in consequence of a legislative requisition, it can hardly be deemed an impropriety to offer a few remarks on this very important prospect, which ought certainly not to be kept out of view.

"If it had been possible to ensure a steady price of corn, the desirable ratio would be, wheat at 7s. 6d. a bushel; barley half the price of wheat, or 3s. 9d.; and oats one third, or 2s. 6d.: the profits of the farmer, when under these prices, are too little; and, after poor-rates have been reduced from their present extreme, would probably be nothing at all. Now, by the present corn laws, the bounty ceases when wheat is 44s. the quarter, or 5s. 6d. the bushel, and export itself at 46s.; a most false datum being admitted, that any higher price would be an evil. Import at low duties (the same as being free) takes place if wheat be at 50s.; though, by the old laws, it paid a considerable duty till it was at 4l. in the home market. If such laws be continued, the kingdom must experience alternate cheapness and famine.

"A new system must be formed; and if, in the framing of it, due attention be not paid to the rise of poor-rates, and the price of labour, no efforts will ever command plenty.

"These considerations seem to indicate, that a much higher average price of corn, than what we have experienced for the last thirty years, is essentially necessary."

No. IX. By the Rev. Edmund Cartwright.

We have been much gratified with Mr. C.'s remarks on paring and burning. It is no small satisfaction to have the opinion of a man of his known experience so decidedly in favour of this practice. On the comparative produce of arable with pasture, he says,

"It admits not of a question, that an acre of clover, tares, rape, turnips, or cabbages, will furnish at least twice the food that the same acre would have done, had it remained in pasture; by any one of these courses, therefore, it follows that the land would maintain, at least, as much stock as when in grass, besides producing every other year a valuable crop of corn. No calculation is made upon the value of the straw, which, whether consumed as litter, or as food, will add considerably to the stock of manure."

It is further his opinion that land ought to be laid down with a crop of corn.

"It has been much disputed, whether land should be laid down with a crop of corn, or with grass-seed only. Which method would be attended with the more immediate profit, admits not of a question; and as that profit affects the public, as well as the farmer, and without any apparent injury to the proprietor, the argument preponderates in favour of laying down land with a crop of corn. Both methods, however, I have seen practised with success.

"The great error in laying down land to grass, still land particularly, is not allowing seed enough.

"Previously to its being laid down, the land should be got into very fine tilth, and well manured, with the addition of lime and vegetable ashes of any kind, if they can be procured.

"Various opinions prevail respecting the kinds and proportions of the different grass-seeds to be sown. I knew a gentleman, whose farm, which was an extensive one, consisted chiefly of strong rich clay, all of which I may assert to have known, at one time or other, in tillage; indeed, I do not recollect, scarcely a single field, except what was subject to inundation, which had not been broken up and laid down again more than once, within my own memory. His practice was to lay down with a crop of barley, and to sow fourteen pounds of white clover, a peck of rib-grass, and three quarters of hay-seeds per acre. By this liberal allowance of seed, he always secured a thick

coat of herbage the first year, which differed from old pasture only in being more luxuriant."

We feel it difficult to give a complete view of this essay, so well worth the attention of all strong land farmers. The writer appears to have been highly deserving of the confidence of that illustrious and munificent patron of agricultural pursuits, the late Duke of Bedford.

No. X. *By Charles Goring, Esq.*

This essay might have been well omitted.

No. XI. *By Dr. Campbell.*

Where we can have the result of the experience of farmers of many years standing, the information of persons young in the business is not so important. This essay details the result of the writer's practical knowledge; but does not, we believe, contain any new matter, as he, indeed, very candidly acknowledges.

No. XII. *By Dr. Wilkinson.*

This is a judicious paper, and chiefly valuable as the result of the *practical experience on a large scale* of a greater variety of manures than we have before noticed as used by one person.

No. XIII. *By John Boys, Esq. of Betsbanger.*

The sections in this paper treating on "the management of chalk lands and downs," and "poor sands and warrens," are deserving of attention as a register of a very spirited and valuable mode of management. Rib-grass (*plantago lanceolata*) of which Mr. B. recommends eight pounds to be sown per acre with other seeds, is doubtless a valuable plant; but if the land so laid down be intended for mowing, we think the proportion excessive, as there is no hay sooner damages by over heating than that which abounds with this plant: for feeding, the quantity does not appear too great.

No. XIV. *By Mr. Greenall.*

This writer sets out with an assertion which, we believe, that general experience will contradict. He says, "Land (like the appetite of man) becomes satiated by a continuance of the same

thing, and will not answer so well to a repetition of the same manures, nor bear the same crops so well, as if changed now and then." How does this agree with the fact, that the general system of management of the open fields has, from time immemorial, been the same, and we do not find the produce to be less than it had used to be?

Where that most destructive practice of taking tithe in kind is pursued, we cannot wonder at the superiority of the tithe farms over the others: it will well account for the high manuring the land receives, and the success of the occupier; a success, however, beyond the reach of any common tenant, even on a long lease. Where is the tenant who is able, even if he were willing, to expend fifteen pounds per acre in manure in the first year of his term? It is not very difficult to farm well, where a whole township is robbed to supply manure. The writer's management of compost is worth following:

"I have before observed, that too much attention cannot be paid to compost in its several stages and operations. I have found that the art of making compost should be studied with due attention, and that the difference of the value of compost properly managed, and that made in a common and negligent manner, is to a farmer a very serious consideration. The method of managing compost, which I have practised with profit and success, is as follows: I previously prepare the materials, and, according to the quantity of each material, proportion the thickness of each layer, not making any more than six inches, laying first a layer of one material, and then of another, and so on alternately, gradually decreasing the breadth of the heap, until it is reduced to a point at the top, forming an angle. If the materials are likely to be tardy in beginning to ferment, I put a few lumps of quick lime into each layer, and beat the sides of the heap with a spade to keep out the weather. I then attend its fermentation with as much care as a brewer does his liquor; and the moment I find that the heat begins to abate, I turn the heap over, and chop it very fine as I do it, and throw the outsides and bottom of it into the middle of that made by turning it, preserving the same form as before, and again beating the sides to keep out the weather. By turning it while yet hot, a fermentation takes place in the second heap, and by throwing the outsides and bottom of the first heap into the middle of the second, the whole mass becomes completely putrified; all weeds and extraneous matter are destroyed by the fermentations, and the compost is in a per-

fect state when it has lain about two months after the last turning, and presents a mass of matter superior as manure (in my opinion) to any other. Keeping the weather out of it is a very material point; but to keep up the fermentation, until the whole mass has thoroughly partaken of its effects, is the great object to be attended to.

"By making all manures into compost with earth (of which useless banks, copse, cleaning of watercourses, gutters, ditches,

&c. in general offer a sufficient quantity), the soil, which is lost by variety of means when lands are under tillage, is replaced, and the thickness of the soil rather increased."

This volume of communications is inscribed as a tribute of gratitude to, and testimony of regret for the death of, the late Duke of Bedford.

**ART. IV.** *Observations on the Conversion of pasture Land into Tillage, and on using Potatoes in manufacturing Starch and feeding Sheep.* By NEHEMIAH BARTLEY, Secretary to the Bath Agricultural Society. 8vo. pp. 42.

THIS pamphlet contains three essays or letters on the three subjects specified in the title; the first of which obtained a medal from the board of agriculture. Mr. Bartley is a great advocate for the use of the spade instead of the plough, thinks drilling much superior to the common practice of broadcast sowing, and esteems potatoes the most valuable crop that can be grown, either for the manufacture of starch, the keep of cattle, sheep, and pigs, or for human sustenance. Having learnt this, we have obtained nearly all the information that can be procured from this desultory tract.

In gravelly loam, which is the only species of soil that Mr. B. takes notice of, he would convert pasture land to tillage, by digging the piece once over, taking care to throw the sod to the bottom, and would sow, plant, or dibble wheat immediately after this operation is finished. He would relay the land to

pasture the succeeding spring by sowing grass seeds, either with or without a corn crop.

The second part is a letter of four pages, addressed to Mr. Addington; in which the author recommends the substitution of potatoes to wheat in the starch manufactories, because an acre of the latter yields only 12cwt. 3qrs. 16lb. of starch, whereas the former produces two tons.

The third part, entitled "of feeding sheep on potatoes," informs us, that Mr. Bright, of Hampne Green, near Bristol, has invented a method of preserving potatoes, for any length of time, by steam-boiling them, pressing them into cakes, and afterwards drying them in a stove, at a temperature not exceeding 86° of Fahrenheit; that cattle and sheep will thrive upon, and even prefer, raw potatoes to any thing else, and that pigs will do equally well on the same root when boiled.

**ART. V.** *Rural Recreations; or, the Modern Farmers' Calendar, and Monthly Instructor, &c.* By a Farmer. pp. 128, with Plates.

THE numerous publications which have within these few years appeared on agricultural subjects, are a sufficient evidence of the importance of the pursuit: but it has been frequently lamented, that the expence attending the purchase of every valuable work, would much impede the diffusion of this kind of knowledge. In some degree to obviate the inconvenience, works have at different times been published, containing an epitome of practical, as well as theoretical improvements and suggestions: amongst the works of this nature, monthly calendars have been conspicuous, as well as very useful. Perhaps the evil of

vague and difficult theories is in no science more apparent than in that of agriculture. Practical experiments alone can remove that mass of prejudice, that almost invincible attachment to old customs, which is so characteristic of the farmers of this kingdom. Next to the actual observation of new experiments and improvements, a plain detail of them seems to be absolutely necessary. It is always therefore a matter of regret, when we see what ought to be brought on a level with the understanding of the plainest farmer, delivered with all the pomp of a most recondite science. In the work before us we are concerned to find



much which is incomprehensible to the generality of farmers. Under the month of January for example; after devoting a very small portion to the business of a farm, and in this omitting many usual employments for that season, the author surprises and confounds a plain reader, by a long dissertation on manures, in all the terms of art. For instance,

"In the application of long and short kinds of dung, preference should in general be given to such as has most completely undergone the putrefactive process. Dung and urine newly voided are not in a putrescent state; they are only advancing towards putridity, or in a very small degree putrid. The further putrescency of these substances is promoted by a due degree of heat and moisture, particularly when aided by certain saline matters. The most powerful of these are the neutral salts, containing the sulphuric or vitriolic acid, such as vitriolated tartar, Glauber's salt, Epsom salt, and gypsum. These neutral salts, on being mixed with putrescent substances, are changed into the state of hepar: hence, the very offensive smell arising from dung and other matters containing such salts."

Agriculture and chemistry are, or ought to be, nearly allied; but until the study of the latter be made a part of the professional education of a farmer, we apprehend it is of no service to make chemical agricul-

ture, if we may be allowed the term, a prominent part of a work, whose object is professedly present use; and, at all events, when this is the case, great care should be taken that the facts produced, should be facts. "Coal ashes, as well as those of peat and white turf ashes, have been frequently found useful as manures; red turf ashes, however, are said to be not only useless, but generally hurtful." To our certain knowledge red turf ashes are very much used for, and are found to be exceedingly beneficial as a top dressing for clover, sainfoine, &c. more especially in parts of Herts and Bedfordshire.

This work is evidently not written by a practical farmer, which will account for the many errors it contains; and for many particulars of practice being recommended as almost new, which are familiar to the commonest labourer. We cannot but remark too, that the writer has made much use of a work entitled "The New Farmer's Calendar." He has hardly, in many instances, been at the pains of at all altering the style of his plagiarisms; and where he has, it has generally happened that the most valuable practical observations have been neglected for idle and fanciful dreams. On the whole, it is far from a valuable selection,

ART. VI. *A Treatise on the Culture and Management of Fruit Trees; in which a new Method of Pruning and Training is fully described. To which is added, a new and improved Edition of "Observations on the Diseases, Defects, and Injuries, in all Kinds of Fruit and Forest Trees:" with an Account of a particular Method of Cure, published by Order of Government. By WILLIAM FORSYTH, F.A.S. and F.S.A. Gardener to his Majesty at Kensington and St. James's, Member of the Economical Society at St. Petersburg, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 371.*

THIS valuable work will be read with deep interest, both by the practical gardener, and the vegetable physiologist; and few, we believe, will hesitate in placing it at the head of all the former publications on this important subject.

The object of the author is two-fold: first, to point out a new and effectual method of renewing old, and curing cankered trees; and, secondly, to recommend a plan of training and pruning them, much superior to that which has hitherto been sanctioned by the practice of the most skilful gardeners.

It has been long known that trees

which have received extensive wounds by the pruning knife, or by accident, were very liable to crack and become cankered at the part thus exposed, and that these ill-consequences were more or less prevented by covering the wound with a plaster, to defend it from the action of the air. The only object in the various plasters that have been used for this purpose, appears to have been to make them sufficiently adhesive, yet even this object has been but very imperfectly secured. The greater part are either gradually washed off by the rains, or crack and peel off when dry, or else become of a stony hardness, and thus

prevent the bark from growing beneath so as to cover the wound.

The composition invented by Mr. Forsyth, for which he received a parliamentary reward, is the following: Take one bushel of fresh cow dung, half a bushel of lime rubbish of old buildings, (that from the ceilings of rooms is preferable,) half a bushel of wood-ashes, and a sixteenth part of a bushel of pit or river sand; the three last articles are to be sifted fine before they are mixed, then work the whole together, adding a sufficient quantity of urine and soap-suds to make the mass of the consistence of thick paint. This mixture is to be applied with a painter's brush, after which a quantity of dry powder of wood-ashes, mixed with a sixth part of powdered bone-ash, is to be shaken from a dredging box over the plaster till the whole is covered with it; in half an hour a fresh quantity of powder is to be applied, and the whole surface is to be rubbed gently with the hand till it becomes dry and smooth. The advantages of this composition are, that it adheres firmly to the naked part of the wound, and yet easily gives way as the new wood and bark advance: it also acts not merely as a covering, but as a gentle stimulant, on account of the alkali that it contains, by which the wound is prevented from cankering, the nestling of insects within is effectually hindered, and the growth of the new wood and bark is greatly accelerated.

In canker trees, where the disease has not made very great progress, the whole of the cankered part, both bark and wood, is to be cut out, by instruments which are figured and described at the end of the volume, taking care not to leave a single brown speck, and to make the surface quite smooth and even; the composition is then to be applied in the manner directed, and in the course of a year the wound will be found to have healed over, to be filled with new wood, and covered with healthy bark; at the same time the composition will drop off of itself. Where the tree is so deeply injured as to render it unsafe to cut out all the decayed part at once, lest it should be blown down, only part of the cavity must be at first cleared of the dead wood, and overspread with the composition. As the edges grow, care must be taken not to let the new wood come in contact with that which is dead,

always keeping a hollow between them. When the new wood advancing from both sides of the cavity has almost met, the bark is to be cut off from both edges, and the composition is to be applied; by which management the lips of the wound will completely close, leaving only a slight seam in the bark. In cases of very great decay it is necessary to open the earth between the roots, and treat such of them as are diseased in the same manner. The wounds will thus become healed up, and the general vigour of the tree will be, at the same time, greatly improved.

"The first trials of its efficacy were made on some very large and ancient elms, many of which were in a most decayed state, having all their upper parts broken, by high winds, from their trunks, which were withal so hollow and decayed, that a small portion alone of the bark remained alive and sound. Of these trees I cut away at first a part only of the rotten stuff from the hollow of the tree, and then applied the plaster to the place where the operation had been performed, by way of an internal coat of the composition. In a short time, however, the efforts of nature, with a renovated flow of the juices, were clearly discernible in their formation of new wood, uniting with, and swelling, as it were, from the old, till it became a strong support to that part of the tree where the composition had been applied. I then cut away more of the rotten wood from the inside, applying the plaster in the same manner, with the same good effects, and continued to use the knife in proportion to the acquisition of new wood; so that, from the tops of these decayed and naked trunks, stems have actually grown of above thirty-feet in height, in the course of six or seven years from the first application of the composition; an incontrovertible proof of its good effects in restoring decayed vegetation.

"Many other elm trees, which had received hurts from bruises and other causes, and where disease and decay were already evident, after cutting away all the infected part, and duly applying the plaster, were so completely healed, that the outline of the wound is scarcely discernible on the bark, and the new wood is as perfectly united to the old, as if it had been originally formed with the tree."

Mr. F. has since applied the same remedy to the canker, gum, and other diseases of the wood and bark of fruit trees, and forest trees in general, with complete success.

The second point which Mr. Forsyth labours to establish, and in which he appears to be supported by the strongest

possible evidence of facts and testimony is, that a tree which, by a long course of bad pruning, or neglect, in addition to extreme old age, seems to be on the point of death, may, by proper management, be perfectly restored, and, in a very few years, become far superior, in size and fertility, to the most vigorous and healthy very young tree. The operation recommended is *heading down*, and is performed in fruit trees by cutting off all the cankered boughs, so as in some cases to leave only one or two buds above the place where the tree was grafted. After this is done, all the decayed roots are to be cut out, as well as any canker in any part of the trunk, all the wounds being well covered with the composition. In the course of the year, the buds that were left will have become long and vigorous shoots, and the whole tree will be in a state of rapid recovery. Out of a multitude of examples of the success of this practice, we shall select the following.

" Finding the pear-trees in Kensington gardens in a very cankered and unfruitful state, in the years 1784 and 5, I took out the old mould from the borders against the walls, and put in fresh loam in its stead; at the same time I pruned and nailed the trees in the common way, and left them in that state upwards of eighteen months, to see what effect the fresh mould would have on them; but, to my great surprise, I found that it had no good effect.

" After I had tried the fresh mould as above, I began to consider what was best to be done with so many old pear trees that were worn out. The fruit that they produced I could not send to his majesty's table with any credit to myself, it being small, hard, and kernelly. I thought it would be a great reflexion on me as a professional man, that after I had put his majesty to so great an expence, no advantage was likely to be derived from it. I saw that some method must be tried to restore these old trees, or that next year they must be grubbed up, and was loth to give them entirely up before I had tried some experiments. I considered that it must be between twelve and fourteen years before I could have any fruit from young trees; and therefore determined to try an experiment, with a view to recovering the old ones.

" I began with cutting down four old and decayed pear trees of different kinds, near to the place where they had been grafted: this operation was performed on the 15th of May 1786. Finding that they put forth fine shoots, I headed down four more on the 20th of June, in the same year (for by

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this time the former had shoots of a foot long), which did equally well, and bore some fruit in the following year. One of the first four that I headed down was a St. Germain, which produced nineteen fine, large, well-flavoured pears next year, and in the third bore more fruit than it did in its former state when it was four times the size.

" I left seven trees upon an east wall, treated according to the common method of pruning, which bore the following number of pears upon each tree:

" Epine d'hiver produced eighty-six pears, and the tree spread fifteen yards.

" A crasane produced one hundred pears, and the tree spread fourteen yards.

" Another crasane produced sixteen pears, and the tree spread ten yards.

" A virgouleuse produced one hundred and fifty pears, and the tree spread nine yards.

" A colmar produced one hundred and fifty pears, and the tree spread nine yards.

" Another colmar produced seventy-nine pears, and the tree spread ten yards.

" A l'eschasserie produced sixty pears.

" Seven trees headed down and pruned according to my method, leaving the fore-right shoots in summer, bore as follows, in the fourth year after heading.

" A louisbonne bore four hundred and sixty-three pears, and the tree spread nine yards.

" Another louisbonne bore three hundred and ninety-one pears, and spread eight yards.

" A colmar bore two hundred and thirteen pears, and spread six yards.

" A brown beurré bore five hundred and three pears.

" Another brown beurré bore five hundred and fifty pears.

" A crasane bore five hundred and twenty pears.

" A virgouleuse bore five hundred and eighty pears.

" The branches of the four last trees spread nearly in the same proportion as the first three.

" A young beurré, the second year after heading, bore two hundred and thirty pears; and a St. Germain four hundred.

" All the above trees stood upon the same aspect and the same wall, and the fruit was numbered in the same year. A great many pears which dropped from the trees are not reckoned. The trees that were pruned according to the old practice, covered at least one-third more wall than the others.

" By the above statement it appears, that the trees headed down bore upwards of five times the quantity of fruit that the others did; and it keeps increasing in proportion to the progress of the trees.

" On the 20th of June I headed several standards that were almost destroyed by the canker: some of them were so loaded with

fruit the following year, that I was obliged to prop the branches, to prevent their being broken down by the weight of it. In the fourth year after these standards were headed down, one of them bore two thousand eight hundred and forty pears. There were three standards on the same border with the above, two of which were St. Germain's; the old tree was of the same kind. One of these trees\*, twenty years old, had five hundred pears on it, which was a great crop for its size: so that there were on the old tree, which had been headed down not quite four years, two thousand three hundred and forty pears more than on the tree of twenty years growth."

When timber trees are cut down, very strong and rapidly growing coppice wood may be raised from their roots, by proper care and the application of the composition. The practice of heading down has been applied to young oak trees, by Mr. F. with singular efficacy.

*"The best Way of raising Oaks."*

"It is a generally received opinion, that when an oak loses its tap-root in transplanting, it never produces another: but this I have proved to be a mistake, by an experiment which I made on a bed of oak plants, in the year 1789. I transplanted them into a fresh bed in the forementioned year, cutting the tap-roots near to some of the small side-roots or fibres shooting from them. In the second year after, I headed one half of the plants down, as directed for chesnuts, and left the other half to nature. In the first season, those headed down made shoots six feet long and upwards, and completely covered the tops of the old stems, leaving only a faint cicatrix, and had produced new tap-roots upwards of two feet and a half long. One of these trees I left at the Land Revenue Office, for the inspection of the commissioners, and to show the advantage of transplanting and heading down young oaks, when done in a proper manner. By this mode of treatment they grow more in one year than in six when raised in the common way. The other half of the plants, that were not headed down, are not one fourth the size of the others. One of the former is now eighteen feet high, and, at six inches from the ground, measures fifteen inches in circumference; at three feet from the ground, ten inches; and at six feet, nine inches and a half; while one of the largest of the latter measures only five feet and a half high, and three inches and three quarters in circumference, at six inches from the ground. This is a convincing proof, that transplanting and heading down oaks is the most successful and advantageous way of treating

them; and by it they are sooner out of danger from cattle, as well as from vermin, which are frequently very injurious to young trees."

Besides these extremely curious, as well as important discoveries, the volume before us contains an ample and circumstantial account of a new method of pruning and training, with variations in the practice, accommodated to the different kinds of fruit-trees. Much of the merit of this part of the work depends on the minuteness of the directions, and the excellent illustrative plates by which they are accompanied; hence we are unable to give a satisfactory abstract of it, and can only inform our readers in general, that Mr. F. instead of training his trees fan-wise, spreads them as nearly horizontally on the wall as possible; and the branches of vines, besides being trained horizontally, are made to take a serpentine course.

A chapter is devoted to the subject of grafting, in which are many excellent practical observations: and three others on the situation and stocking of a garden and orchard, and on the best method of gathering, preserving, and packing fruit, evince Mr. F's minute and masterly acquaintance with his profession.

The latter chapters treat of the diseases and enemies to which trees are exposed, together with the methods of curing the one, and destroying the other. The diseases are canker, gum, mildew, honeydew, and blights. The enemies are aphides, acari or red spiders, cocci, caterpillars, earwigs, slugs, snails, ants, wasps and flies, birds, rats and mice, &c.

As the effects of Mr. Forsyth's method of training, are more conspicuous in vines than any other fruit tree, we shall select, as an interesting specimen, the following

*"Observations and Experiments on the training and pruning of Vines."*

"The following is the method that I pursued with some vines which were planted against the piers of a south wall, and among old peaches, nectarines, plums, &c.

"When I took them in hand, the fruit was so small and hard as to render it unfit to be sent to the table. The vines were trained upright, which caused them to grow so luxuriantly, that the sap flowed into the branches instead of the fruit.

"In the year 1789 I let two strong

\* This tree was about six years old when I planted it, fourteen years ago.

branches grow to their full length without topping them in the summer. In 1790, I trained them in a serpentine form, leaving about thirty eyes on each shoot, which produced one hundred and twenty fine bunches of grapes, weighing from one pound to a pound and a quarter each. Every one that saw them said, that the large ones were as fine as forced grapes; while the small ones produced from branches of the same vine, trained and pruned in the old way, were bad natural grapes, and not above twice the size of large currants.

"More fully to prove the success attending this experiment, I next year trained five plants in the same way, allowing the shoots intended for bearing wood to run to their full length in summer, training them wherever there was a vacancy between the old trees; where there was none, I ran them along the top of the wall, without topping them. In winter I trained them in a serpentine manner, so as to fill the wall as regularly as possible: they were as productive as those in the former year.

"After a three years' trial, I thought I was warranted to follow the same practice with the whole; and in the year 1793 I sent, for the use of his majesty and the royal family, 578 baskets of grapes, each weighing about three pounds, without planting a single vine more than there were the preceding year, in which I was able to send only fifty-six baskets of the same weight; and those so bad and ill-ripened that I was ashamed of them, as they were not fit to be sent to the table.

"In this year there was more than a

quarter of the crop destroyed by birds and insects, and rotted by the wet.

"Although the above statement is within the bounds of truth, it may appear to the reader like an exaggeration; but it is in the power of every one who will follow the directions here given to prove the advantage that will accrue from this method of training.

"The above experiments were all made on the natural walls, and I hope will be sufficient to convince every unprejudiced person of the great advantage that the serpentine method of training vines possesses above the common way.

"It may be proper to observe, that the shoots should be brought as near as possible from the bottom of the vine, that the wall may be well covered. When the walls are high, and the shoots from the serpentine branches strong, we sometimes let them remain; but if the walls are low, and the serpentine branches produce weak shoots, we cut them out in the autumnal pruning, and train up the strongest of the young wood in their room."

By all who duly appreciate the importance of the subject of Mr. Forsyth's work, the curious, the novel, and the interesting matter that it contains, and the weight and high respectability of the evidence brought forward in support of the facts alleged, it will be considered, and in our opinion most deservedly, as the most valuable present that the art of horticulture ever received.

ART. VII. *Some Doubts relative to the Efficacy of Mr. Forsyth's Plaster in filling up the Holes in Trees, &c. ascribed to it by Dr. Anderson and Mr. Forsyth. In a Letter to Dr. Anderson from* THOMAS ANDREW KNIGHT, Esq. 4to. pp. 16.

MR. KNIGHT has long been known as a scientific experimentalist on fruit-trees, and published some time ago a treatise on the culture of the apple and the pear, in which he supported, by various examples and experiments, a very ingenious hypothesis, that varieties of fruit when propagated by grafting, or by cutting, or by layers, partake of the gradual and progressive decay of the original parent tree. "I assert from my own experience and observation, within the last twenty years," says Mr. Knight, "speaking of the affection of the canker, that this disease becomes progressively more fatal to each variety, as the age of that variety, beyond a certain period increases; that all the varieties of the apple, which I have found in the catalogues of the middle of the seventeenth century, are unproductive

of fruit, and in a state of debility and decay."

Mr. Forsyth, on the other hand, as we have seen in the preceding article, considers the canker as a perfectly curable, though hitherto very fatal, disease, and therefore Mr. Knight's hypothesis becomes untenable. Mr. K. visited Kensington garden *incognito*, affecting total ignorance on the subject of Mr. Forsyth's discoveries; he published an account of what he saw there, which account Doctor Anderson, in the 37th number of his "Recreations in Agriculture," accuses as a misrepresentation of Mr. Forsyth's experiments. Mr. Knight, who seems easily irritated, has replied in a style of personal recrimination, equally disgraceful to him as a philosopher and gentleman. "Your accusation has been so weakly supported,"



says Mr. K. "that I certainly should not think it worth the attention I now give it, did I not believe, that you are actuated by some motive of private interest, with which the public are not acquainted. Is Dr. Anderson quite sure that he is not the concealed writer, either wholly or in part, of his friend Mr. Forsyth's book, and the intended sharer of his profits? And has not Dr. Anderson taken out a patent for a new kind of forcing-house, whose excellence his disinterested friend, Mr. Forsyth, stands forward to attest?" How gross and dishonourable are such insinuations as these! Mr. Knight, whatever may be his suspicions, ought not to have brought forward against these gentlemen a charge so heavy as that of combining together for the purpose of imposing upon the public, without, at the same time, bringing forward ample evidence for the substantiation of that charge: a charge, the truth of which, is peremptorily denied in the second edition of Mr. F.'s work, just published.

"You assert," says Mr. K. "that I could not fail to observe both plum and cherry trees in that garden (Kensington), which had been in such a state of decay as to have been all rotted away except about an inch of bark, restored to the greatest degree of health and vigour. I really did not see these; and you must allow me to say you did not see them; and that Mr. Forsyth never could succeed in such an experiment, for the following obvious reasons:—Every bud, as I, amongst others, have proved by very numerous experiments, draws its whole nutriment from the wood; and therefore, before the wood could have rotted away, as you assert it to have done, all the buds must have been many years dead. In inventing discoveries of every kind, it is prudent to keep within the limits of possibility. That Mr. Forsyth may have trained up a young shoot from the bottom of an old tree, that was partially hollow, and that such a shoot may have made a good tree, is nothing wonderful; for the roots of almost all our grafted trees shew no disposition to perish with the graft or bud, which they nourish; and a shoot thus trained, would certainly make, as I have often observed, as good a tree as any other of the same variety. But some trees do not readily emit young shoots of this kind; and I should like much to know how many peach or nectarine trees died under Mr. Forsyth's process of rendering them immortal."

To this Mr. Forsyth, in the second

edition of his book, has made the following reply.

"I consider myself much indebted to Mr. Knight for the very handsome compliment that he has here (unintentionally, it is true) paid to my practice. Could I be vain of any such thing, I should certainly be so of this; particularly as it comes from one who will not easily be suspected of any intention to flatter. It also places my composition in a much more conspicuous light than that in which I should otherwise, perhaps, have regarded it. I shall therefore answer him with pleasure. From the manner in which the question is put, it should seem, Mr. Knight thinks that the operation of cutting over a decayed *peach-tree* is of so dangerous a nature, as to render it impossible to prevent a large proportion of such trees as have been cut over from dying. A great majority of those gardeners who have tried it, by the common mode of practice, will, perhaps, coincide with him in this opinion. But I can with satisfaction assure him, that from the time when I first applied my plaster to such wounded trees, which is now many years since, it escapes my recollection, and that of many others who have been constantly employed in the royal gardens at Kensington, that a *single tree*, either apricot, peach, or nectarine, has died from being cut over, while under my mode of management; though that operation has on some occasions been performed under circumstances extremely unfavourable to its success: in particular, four trees, namely, three peach and one nectarine; which had been dug out of the ground and laid on a mould-heap, exposed to the rigour of severe frosts, &c. Those trees are now open to the view of Mr. Knight, or any other gentleman who may choose to inspect them. I find, however, that it is not a few only of such trees that have been headed-in by me; for, upon an investigation with a view to answer this question, I numbered no fewer than sixty peach, apricot, and nectarine trees, that have been so cut over and restored to a high state of health and fruitfulness, and which are now in as flourishing a state as I could wish trees of that sort to be. Neither were these operations performed in secret, or with any view to concealment; but openly, under the eye, and with the assistance, of the gardeners employed in the gardens, who have all had opportunities to observe the progress of the experiments. As to the idea of Mr. Knight, that if such decayed trees have actually put forth new shoots at all, it must have been from the roots only, and from no other part; the short answer to this is, that he is under a great error; for every gardener knows, that if this had been the case, the trees must all have been budded anew, before they had come into bearing: now the fact is, that

none of those trees have ever been budded again."

We wish not to enter into the particulars of a personal dispute, but scruple

not to affirm, that in our opinion Mr. Knight has the strong evidence of facts decidedly against him.

ART. VIII. *Rural Recreations ; or the Gardener's Instructor, &c.* By A SOCIETY OF PRACTICAL GARDENERS. 8vo. pp. 416. 13 Plates.

THIS work is in substance the same with that well known practical volume, published some years ago, with the names of Mawe and Abercrombie in the title-page. It differs from this last in

being more cumbersome and expensive, and in containing a few additions, principally relative to the management of bees.

## CHAPTER XVI.

## DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

**ART. I.** *The Domestic Encyclopedia, or a Dictionary of Facts and useful Knowledge: comprehending a concise View of the latest Discoveries, Inventions, and Improvements, chiefly applicable to rural and domestic Economy. Together with Descriptions of the most interesting Objects of Nature and Art, the History of Men and Animals, in a State of Health or Disease, and practical Hints respecting the Arts and Manufactures, both familiar and commercial.* By A. F. M. WILLICH, M. D. 8vo. 4 vols. about pp. 2000.

IT cannot be supposed, that within so small a compass as four volumes, the various and important objects to which this work is devoted, can be treated of entirely in the manner in which they deserve. Nor is it any disrespect to the industrious author, that induces us to declare, that we have remarked several important errors; for where is the individual possessed of an extent of knowledge, and opportunities of information, at all adequate to so vast an undertaking? Of all the kinds of human knowledge, there is none of such difficult acquisition as that which relates to trades, manufactures, and domestic economy: besides being perpetually changing, it can only be procured by personal conversation and inspection, and is opposed by the invincible obstacles of suspicion, jealousy, and self-interest, in the persons to whom application must be made.

The Domestic Encyclopedia is principally a compilation from other works, such as the Repertory, the Handmaid to the Arts, the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Manufactures, &c. It contains, doubtless, much valuable matter, and the plan is still better than the execution. Some German authorities have been freely resorted to, and furnish the most interesting part of the work to an English reader. The articles relating to rural economy, are the fullest and best, because our numerous works on agriculture and gardening, are easily accessible. We also find much information on the science of substitutes, a fa-

vourite topic with the German writers, by which a cheap substance, and really valuable, when applied to the purpose which Nature intended, is deteriorated and tortured into a miserable resemblance of a more expensive commodity. Thus we have a particular account of *acorn-coffee, carrot-brandy, potatoe-bread, turnip-bread, honey-sugar, beet-sugar, sloe-leaf-tea, treacle-beer.*

The chief errors and deficiencies that we have observed, are on subjects of chemistry, mineralogy, and mechanics. The natural history also contains many gross mistakes. In the article annealing, the liability of unannealed glass to fly in pieces, is thus accounted for, Glass increases in bulk in passing from a fluid to a solid state, when, therefore, the surface is cooled suddenly, the interior is prevented from expanding properly, so that it loses its fibrous structure. The fact, however, is precisely the reverse. Glass, like all other bodies, expands by heat, and the fragility of unannealed glass is owing to the mass not being allowed to contract to its proper dimensions, for, by subsequent heating, the glass becomes firm, and, at the same time, of greater specific gravity. *Ponderous spar*, or barytes, is confounded with Derbyshire spar, or fluor spar. The Lancashire asphodel, *narthecium ossifragum*, is erroneously stated to be a species of asphodelus. The old error of ants laying up corn is repeated, and the beaver is said to live chiefly on lobsters and other fish. The articles pile-driver, oil-mill, pin-making, are wholly left out: and steam-engine, stocking-frame, mill,

lock, pump, are done in so extremely slovenly a manner, that they might as well have been omitted also.

The two following articles of brick-making and hay-making, we shall quote as a favourable specimen of the work.

**“BRICKS.**—It is an erroneous notion, that bricks may be made of any earth that is not stony, or even of sea ouze; for those only will burn red, which contain iron particles. In England they are chiefly made of a motley yellowish, or somewhat reddish, fat earth, vulgarly called *loam*. Those of Stourbridge clay, and Windsor loam, are esteemed the most proper and durable bricks; such as will stand the greatest degree of heat without melting. In general, the earth for this manufacture ought to be sufficiently fine, free from pebbles, and not too sandy; which would render the bricks heavy and brittle; nor too fat, which would make them crack in drying. Nor should it contain too many calcareous and ferruginous ingredients; as the former prevent the mass from becoming firm in burning, and occasion the bricks to crumble, when exposed to the air; while the latter, or iron particles, retard the preparation of bricks, insomuch that it is sometimes impossible to give them due consistence; this inconvenience, however, may be remedied, by allowing the clay to lie for a considerable time under the influence of the atmosphere, then soaking it in pits, and afterwards working it well, in the usual manner. The common potters' clay, which is also employed for the manufacture of bricks, is opaque, imparts a slight colour, sometimes yellowish, blueish, greenish, but more frequently of different shades of light grey, excepting that of blue, which is always dark: by kneading and spreading such clay, it becomes smooth and glossy; it is soft, fat, and cold, though agreeable to the touch, slightly adheres to the tongue, and, when of the best quality, it should neither be too light nor too heavy. Its constituents chemically examined, are found to consist of *thirty-seven* parts of pure argillaceous or clayey earth, and *sixty-three* parts of siliceous or flinty earth.

“Whoever is desirous of producing the best and most durable kind of bricks, ought to attend to the following rules: 1st. Clay of every description, whether fat or lean, whether more or less mixed with particles of lime, iron, &c. must be dug after Midsummer, that is, between the beginning of July and the latter end of October, before the first frost appears: it should be repeatedly worked with the spade, during the winter, and not formed into bricks till the following spring. 2d. The clay, before it is put into pits for soaking, must be broken as small as possible, and allowed to lie at least ten days: every stratum of twelve inches should be covered

with water, as in this manner it will be more uniformly softened. 3d. Two such pits, at least, will be necessary for every brick manufactory, so that after having been suffered to remain for five days, the second may be prepared, and thus the manufacture carried on without interruption. 4th. The next step is that of treading and tempering the clay, which requires double the labour to what is usually bestowed on it; as the quality of the bricks chiefly depends upon the first preparation. If, in tempering them, too much water be used, they become dry and brittle; but, if duly tempered, they will be smooth, solid, and durable. Such a brick requires nearly as much earth as one and a half made in the common way, when too great a proportion of water is added; in which case the bricks become spongy, light, and full of flaws, partly through neglect in working them properly, and partly by a mixture of ashes and light sandy earth (as is generally practised in the vicinity of London), with a view to dispatch and facilitate the work, as well as to save culm or coals in the burning. 5th. Bricks made of proper earth, being more solid and ponderous, require a much longer time for drying than those made in the common way; they ought not to be removed to the kiln, till they have become lighter by one half, and give a hollow sound on collision; because the proper drying of bricks will prevent them from cracking and crumbling in the kiln. 6th. Of whatever materials the kiln be constructed, each burning of from 6 to 10,000 bricks, requires that the fire be kept for twenty-four hours, and double that time for a number of from 12 to 50,000. The uniform increase of heat deserves great attention; the duration of it should be regulated according to the season; and, during the last twenty-four hours, the fire should be uninterruptedly supported by means of flues; but afterwards the kiln must be suddenly closed, as there is always some danger of bursting the flues, or melting the bricks.

“It would be useless here to enter into particulars relative to the manner of burning bricks in the neighbourhood of London; we shall therefore only observe, that they are chiefly burnt in *clamps* built of the bricks themselves, after the manner of arches in kilns, with a vacancy between each brick, to admit the passage of the fire, but with this difference, that instead of being arched, the bricks project one over another in both sides of the space, for laying in the wood and coals till they meet, and are bounded by the bricks at the top. The place for the fuel is carried up straight on both sides, till about three feet high, when it is almost filled with wood, over which is laid a stratum of sea-coal, and then the arch is spanned over. Farther, sea-coal is also strewed over the clamp, between all the rows of bricks; and lastly, the wood is kindled, which also communicates with the coals; and when the whole is con-

sumed, the manufacturer concludes the bricks are sufficiently burnt.

"The reasons why the modern bricks are so very inferior to those made by the ancients, which, in their monuments, after having withstood the ravages of time for many centuries, are still in perfect preservation, appear to be principally the following: In the present expensive state of society, the price of manual labour, though far from being adequate to the pressure of the times, is so considerable, that the manufacturer is under a kind of necessity to make choice of those materials which are the cheapest and most easily procured: thus, a mixture of the most improper earths and clay is often employed in the manufacture of bricks, without reflecting, that two bodies specifically different in their nature, must necessarily require different degrees of heat in the kiln, in order to produce an uniform hardness, and an intimate combination of parts. On the contrary, the ancients not only selected the very best sort of clay, but combined it with other ingredients well adapted to form the most complete cement, such as coarsely powdered charcoal and old mortar, added to the clay. Of this description, likewise, were the bricks which Professor PALLAS, on his last journey through the southern provinces of Russia, discovered in the stupendous Tartar monuments, and which would scarcely yield to the force of a hammer. Another advantage peculiar to the bricks and tiles manufactured by our fore-fathers, arose from their method of burning them uniformly, after being thoroughly dried. There is no doubt, that if all the defects before pointed out, were removed, and modern brick-makers were to pay more attention to their art, by digging the clay at proper seasons, working it better than is done at present, bestowing more care on the burning of them, and, particularly, by making them much thinner than what is prescribed by the standard form, we might produce bricks of an equal strength

and durability to those of our less enlightened, but more provident and industrious, ancestors."

"**HAY-MAKING.**—In the county of Middlesex, whence the London markets are chiefly supplied with hay, all the grass mowed on the first day, before nine o'clock in the morning, is *tended*, that is, uniformly spread over the meadow, divided as much as possible, and well turned, before twelve o'clock, and, perhaps, a second time in the afternoon. It is then raked into wind-rows, and formed into small cocks.

"On the second day, the grass mown the preceding day after nine o'clock, and what is cut on this day before that time, is *tended*, and treated in the manner above described. Previously to turning the grass of the second day's work, the small cocks thrown up on the preceding day, are well shaken out into *straddles*, or separate plats, five or six yards square. If the crop be so thin as to leave large spaces between the plats, they ought to be raked clean. The next business is, to turn the plats, and also the grass cut on the second day, which is generally done before one o'clock, in order that all the grass which is mowed may be drying while the people are at dinner. In the afternoon, the straddles or plats are raked into double wind-rows, the grass into single ones, and the hay is thrown up into *field cocks* of a middling size, also called *bastard cocks*; the grass is then cocked, as on the preceding day.

"Similar operations are successively performed on the third day; the hay in bastard cocks is again spread into straddles, and the whole is turned previously to the people going to dinner. Should the weather have proved fine and warm, the hay that was made into bastard cocks on the second evening, will, in the afternoon of the third day, be fit to be *housed*. On the fourth day the hay is put into stacks. This method has, from experience, proved very successful, especially in favourable weather."

**ART. II.** *A Treatise on Brewing; wherein is exhibited the whole Process of the Art and Mystery of Brewing the various Sorts of Malt Liquor; with practical Examples upon each Species. Together with the Manner of using the Thermometer and Saccharometer; elucidated by Examples, and rendered easy to any Capacity, in brewing London Porter, Brown Stout, Reading Beer, Amber, Hack, London Ale, Windsor Ale, Welch Ale, Wirtemberg Ale, Scurvy-grass Ale, Table Beer, and Shipping Beer. Second Edition.* By ALEXANDER MORRICE, Common Brewer. 8vo. pp. 180.

**ART. III.** *Brewing made Easy; being a Compendium of all the Directions that have hitherto been published, with the Practice of Thirty-five Years in several Noblemen and Gentlemen's Families. Originally collected for the private Use of the Author, and offered as a useful Assistant to those who wish to brew fine, transparent, and high-flavoured Beer. With full Directions for the Management of the Cellar, &c. and Instructions respecting the making and Preservation of made Wines.* By WILLIAM MOIR, Butler to Sir Harbottle Wilson, of Leigh Hall, Derbysire. Small 8vo. pp. 40.

**ART. IV.** *The complete Family Brewer; or the best Method of Brewing or making any quantity of good strong Ale and Small Beer, in the greatest Perfection, for the Use of private*



*Families, from a Peck to a Hundred Quarters of Malt; together with Directions for choosing good Malt, Hops, Water, brewing Vessels; cleaning and sweetning foul Casks, brewing Vessels, &c. To make new Malt Liquor drink stale; with Directions for Bottling, and the most proper Time for Brewing, &c. &c. By THOMAS THREALE, Brewer. To which is added, an Appendix, containing the Art of brewing Porter, and making British Wines. 8vo. pp. 35.*

*Utrum horum maior accipe.* They all give directions, which the housekeeper may consult with advantage.

**ART. V.** *Observations on Beer and Brewers, in which the Inequality, Injustice, and Impolicy, of the Malt and Beer Tax, are demonstrated. By RICHARD FLOWER. 8vo. pp. 36.*

Mr. FLOWER is one of the trade, and he has taken up his pen in self-defence. "Finding himself and his brethren the objects of continued calumny and abuse from the House of Commons to the alehouse, and observing that the silence which has been preserved is construed into assent to all that has been said, he could no longer refrain from snatching a few hours from the

avocations of his counting house, and attempting to plead the cause of the poor, the publican, and the brewer."

It would have been well for Mr. Flower had he suffered his mighty anger to subside a little: if any of his observations have intrinsically the slightest value, the violence with which they are delivered will injure the reception of them.

## CHAPTER XVII.

# MEDICINE, SURGERY, ANATOMY,

AND

## THE VETERINARY ART.

WHAT tribute can the labours of a year be expected to bring to these important branches of human knowledge?

The structure, the functions, and the diseases of the animal body, furnish subjects of enquiry which no æra in the history of the science, could ever afford a prospect of exhausting, though the persons on whom these studies naturally devolve; have long been distinguished for a liberal spirit of enquiry, and for that active zeal in experimental pursuits, which is so often rewarded by brilliant discoveries. The venerable art of Physic is, indeed, rich, but it is with the slowly accumulated wealth of many centuries; so that if the addition made during the single year which has just elapsed, be in any degree respectable, the public will be satisfied, that this useful science continues to be cultivated with industry and success.

In the department of Physic, the posthumous work of the late excellent Dr. Heberden, may, perhaps, be considered as the most valuable of the publications of the year. It contains a summary of the long and extensive practice of an accurate and sagacious observer, characterised by skill in the use of the accustomed and accredited methods of art, rather than by a genius fertile in resources: by a caution sometimes approaching to timidity, and by a degree of diffidence in the powers of art, bordering on the utmost verge of scepticism. The well-known, and highly respectable character of the author, gives a stamp of authenticity to the observations dispersed throughout the work, and sanctions the close aphoristic style in which they are delivered. Another posthumous work, which will claim some attention, is the treatise on Intermittent Fever, by a late eminent teacher, the continuation of a series of essays on a subject of great extent, and a most preponderating importance in Physic. Like Dr. Fordyce's other publications, it will be found to bear the marks of acuteness, and of originality, always in manner, and sometimes in ideas. The discovery of vaccine inoculation, belongs to a preceding period, but the reader will find some valuable materials for its future history and present elucidation, in the treatises of Dr. Thornton, and particularly of Mr. Bryce; to which we may add the curious paper of Dr. Loy, in Dr. Duncan's Annals, relating to the still disputed and questionable origin of this infection. A striking picture of the hospital practice in the camp of an enterprising army, at one time victorious and elate with hopes,

at another, struggling with accumulated hardships, and suffering under every privation, is presented to the reader in the Medical History of the French Oriental Army, by Citizen Desgenettes. The ravages committed by the most calamitous of all pestilential fevers, are forcibly, and, apparently, very faithfully exhibited; and if the means employed to check its ravages, proved much too feeble for success, we cannot but admire the professional intrepidity displayed in the hospital service of the army of Bonaparte, as hazardous as that of the field, and less supported by the animating motives of glory and renown. The use of the vapours of the mineral acids, in destroying the activity of animal contagion, must be considered as a most happy application of chemistry to the aid of physic, the eventual importance of which it is not easy to exaggerate. Mr. Guyton Morveau has here substantiated his claim to the discovery, and has added the results of many valuable experiments of the curious, but repulsive subject of animal putrefaction. We apprehend that M. Morveau's reputation throughout Europe, will still depend on chemistry much more than on medical philosophy.

In the department of Surgery, the expensive magnitude of Mr. John Bell's volume, and the justly acquired reputation of its author, must arrogate for it the first place on our catalogue. The student in the lecture room, may feel his fatigued and tripping attention agreeably diverted by a style of profuse amplitude, and lively digression, but the reader will expect, and the purchaser will calculate on, no small share of intrinsic merit, to atone for cumbersome bulk, and defective arrangement. A valuable addition to Surgery is made by Mr. Russel's treatise on the Diseases of the Knee Joint, a subject in which every aid that art can bring, is too often required, and too often unsuccessful.

Anatomy is unusually rich this year. The indefatigable Cuvier, the most eminent teacher of comparative anatomy in Europe, has given the outlines of a vast collection of facts on this curious subject, made in the midst of a large metropolis, and assisted by every facility that rich museums, extensive correspondence, and high patronage, can command. The publication of the last fasciculus, which completes Dr. Baillie's beautiful and interesting work, illustrative of Morbid Anatomy, entitles us to claim it to enrich our list. Mr. Blake has thrown much light on the difficult anatomy of the teeth, in his curious essay; and Mr. C. Bell has exhibited to the student so clear an insight into the anatomy of the brain, as most materially to assist, or, we had almost said, to supersede the research of the scalpel.

From the sample before us, we may fairly expect, that the Veterinary Art will in future exhibit that elevation in rank and respectability, to which it is so well entitled, and which it has of late been gradually acquiring, by the superior education and knowledge of its practitioners. As the anatomy of man illustrates that of other animals, so we find, that the principles of physic, as applied to the human constitution, are, with propriety, made the basis of the veterinary art, allowing, however, for some important distinctions arising out of the circumstances of the particular animal.

Policy, however, may perhaps suggest to the practitioners of this art, that, in by far the greater number of instances, the value of the life of a brute is only to be appreciated in pounds, shillings, and pence, and the cost of a cure will be

accurately weighed against the future serviceableness of the domesticated animal, a circumstance not always, we think, sufficiently kept in view.

Several publications, of inferior importance, will also be found in the catalogue of the year, some of a temporary nature, relating to the controversies of the day, others illustrative of a single fact, or variety of disease, and others, we may add, in which the motives which induced the writers to compose, have been much stronger than those which are likely to prevail on the public to become readers.

ART. I. *Gulielmi Heberdeni Commentarii de Morborum Historia & Curatione.* 8vo. pp. 417.

*Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases,* by WILLIAM HEBERDEN, M. D. 8vo. pp. 480.

THE circumstances under which these Commentaries have appeared, are peculiarly interesting. They are the posthumous works, published by his son, of a venerable learned and amiable physician, who sedulously employed himself during the active period of his life, in making the observations from which these Commentaries were compiled. The plan which he adopted to avail himself of the opportunities and observations which his practice afforded him, well deserves to be recorded and imitated. It was pursued with a perseverance and constancy highly creditable to the author; and if it were followed, in even a much smaller degree, by other medical practitioners, it seems to be capable of producing very important and lasting advantages to the profession. His custom was to take short and hasty notes in the chambers of the sick, which he afterwards read over at the end of the month, selecting such facts as tended to throw any light upon the history of a complaint, or the effects of a remedy. From this general repository he extracted all the particulars here given. The Latin and English copy appeared within a few months of each other; but though the author lived several years subsequent to their being finished, it was his wish that they should not be published till after his death. In the Latin edition, (which is preceded by an elegant dedication of the present Dr. Heberden, to his Majesty) there is a short account of his life; by which we are informed, that he was born in the year 1710, commenced practice in London in the year 1748, and began to withdraw himself from its fatigues after about thirty years active employment. He died in the year 1801. The following well-merited and appropriate compliment, by his son, concludes the slight sketch of

his life, to which we have now alluded. "Vir fuit singularis virtutis, modestiæque; non modo studiis humanitatis ac literarum ornatus; sed integritate vitæ, suavitate morum, pietate erga Deum, amore erga omnes bonos, præstans."

In the work before us, the author has not distinguished himself, and did not indeed seem to aim at distinguishing himself, by any important improvements in the theory or practice of his profession; but he has succeeded in giving us, in an easy and agreeable manner, with his own observations on the respective merits of such medicines as he employed, a concise, accurate, and interesting view of the principal phenomena of diseases, occasionally interspersed and relieved by a detail of cases. There are two extremes into which a physician may fall, in appreciating the value of those agents which he employs in his practice. He may estimate them too highly, or he may place too little dependance upon them. In the one case, he is likely to injure by doing too much; in the other, by omitting what may be serviceable to his patient. There are few who have seen much practice, who have not been frequently disappointed in their expectation of the effects of remedies, and who have not often had occasion to lament how little could be done, in various diseases, by the utmost resources of art. It however seems to be highly advantageous to professional improvement, that those who enter upon the practice of medicine, should have sanguine ideas of its efficacy. They are, by this means, led to observe the effects of a great number of medicines, and thus become accurately acquainted with their respective merits, in the only way by which this knowledge can be completely obtained.

Dr. Heberden seems to have placed

too little reliance upon medicine: he speaks with candour of its effects, and his observations will frequently be confirmed by experience; but, as coming from a man, whose character and learning placed him so high in the profession, they may tend improperly to weaken that dependence upon the efficacy of remedies, which is so necessary in order to prosecute the healing art with ardour and success. The chapters into which these Commentaries are divided, amount in number to one hundred and two; and, with the exception of the two first, which treat of diet, and the method of curing diseases, they are distributed alphabetically. From the number, and want of connection between the different parts, of which this work is composed, it will be found impossible to give any thing like an analysis of it. We shall, however, endeavour to select such parts as may particularly claim our notice, from their peculiarity or importance. An extract from the second chapter, which treats of the method of curing diseases, will serve to shew the general objects which the author had in view in his practice.

"One of the first considerations," says he, "in the cure of a disease is, whether it require any evacuations; that is, whether it has been the general opinion of practical authors, that emetics, cathartics, diuretics, bleeding (by leeches, cupping-glasses, or the lancet,) sudorifics, blisters, issues, sternutatories, or salivation, have in similar cases been found to be beneficial.

"Secondly. Whether it be a distemper, for which any specific, or certain remedy, has been found out. Many such, in all ages, and in every country, have been for a little while in fashion; very few of which have justified the promises of their patrons, and answered the wishes of physicians and patients.

"However, the honour of this title may be justly claimed by the Peruvian bark, for the use of agnes; quicksilver for venereal disorders; sulphur for the itch; and, perhaps, opium for some spasms; and Bath waters, for the injury done to the stomach by drinking.

"Beside the few remedies here mentioned, it may be doubted whether ten others have, upon any good authority, been reputed specifics, or certain remedies, for particular diseases, the reputation of which has afterwards been sufficiently confirmed by experience.

"Thirdly. Vomiting, purging, pain, and other troublesome symptoms, are in many cases so urgent, as to make some present relief indispensably requisite; for the procuring

of which opium is very commonly the most effectual means.

"Fourthly. In long and obstinate diseases, in which no particular remedy is found to have succeeded, it is often advisable to have recourse to the general means of strongly affecting, and of making considerable changes in the state of the body; in hopes, by this shock, of dislodging the cause of the disease. For this end, mercury, antimony, hemlock, and electrification, are sometimes employed.

"Lastly. Where there is no room for any thing else, there it is the duty of a physician to exert himself as much as possible in supporting the powers of life, by strengthening the appetite and digestion, and by providing that the stools, and sleep, and every other article of health, shall approach as nearly as may be to its natural state.

"There may be such a state of a distemper, in which the whole attention of the physician must be given up to the supporting and enlivening the vital powers; but there can be no stage of any disease which does not require some attention to this important point."

"Whatever animation be, experience has undoubtedly acquainted us with several means both of deadening, and of invigorating, its operations. Of the first sort is, in an eminent degree, the fox-glove, and all the narcotic poisons: to the second belong wine and spirituous liquors, all strengtheners of the stomach, aromatics, and every thing capable of irritating the senses. But vinous liquors, in a certain quantity, oppress; and some of the narcotics, in a small dose, exhilarate the powers of life.

"In all distempers it is one part of the physician's duty to remove or relieve, as far as can safely be done, the present inconveniences; but the mischief principally to be dreaded in every illness is its tendency to destroy life, and against this the patient is most solicitously to be guarded. Now, of the means before mentioned, by which the vires vitæ can be supported and strengthened, great irritations of the senses can only afford a momentary relief in sudden languors and faintings. Wine and aromatics will indeed make a more lasting impression on the stomach, and in many languid illnesses may be administered with great advantage; but they must be used with caution, as the vinous liquors may intoxicate, and both of them, in many distempers, may excite too great a degree of heat.

"A freer use may safely be made of the mild astringents and bitters, and there are perhaps few disorders in which they would not make very useful associates of other medicines. Chamomile flowers, in powder, are sufficiently grateful to the stomach; but light infusions of the barks, and woods, and roots, are preferable to their powders. Of this very numerous class of simples, a great variety of medicines may be made; but none



perhaps better than an infusion made by one ounce of the Peruvian bark, and one drachm of the root of gentian, put into a pint of boiling water. I hardly know that distemper in which two ounces of this infusion might not be taken twice a day with safety; and, I believe, with advantage.

"The Peruvian bark has been more objected to than any other of these medicines in cases of considerable inflammation, or where a free expectoration is of importance; for it is supposed to have, beyond any other stomach medicine, such a strong bracing quality, as to tighten the fibres still more which were already too much upon the stretch in an inflammation, and its astringency has been judged to be the likely means of checking, or putting a stop to expectoration. All this appeared much more plausible when taught in the schools of physic, than probable when I attend to fact and experience. The unquestionable safety, and acknowledged use of the barks, in the worst stage of an inflammation, when it is tending to a mortification, affords a sufficient answer to the first of these objections; and I have several times seen it given, plentifully, in the confluent small-pox, without lessening in any degree the expectoration. An asthma, which seemed to be near its last stage, became very little troublesome for several years, during which the patient took two scruples of the bark every morning and night."

On the effects of bark, the author's opinions are peculiar, and must be received with considerable caution, because they are contrary to the general experience of the best practitioners. His reasoning on this subject is by no means accurate; for between the early periods of active inflammation, in which blood-letting is necessary, and the more advanced state of it when mortification is coming on, there is a most essential and important difference. Nor do the leading circumstances of confluent small pox and asthma, in both which he has known bark given without injury, bear any analogy with the pathognomonic inflammation of pneumonia, or the affection of the bronchiz, which characterises catarrh.

Considering that the author's practice was almost entirely confined to the higher orders of society, we cannot expect to find that his attention has been much directed to the more severe of the acute diseases which are so frequent in the lower and middle ranks of life. Fever, in particular, seems to have but seldom come under his observation; and its history, and varieties, are not even attempted to be given. In this disease he strongly advises the careful and constant ad-

mission of fresh air; and, though he is silent on the affusion of cold water, which has lately been so beneficial in the early periods of it, but of which the author could not, from his long removal from practice, have any experience, he affords us a very good answer to some objections which have been made against the employment of that remedy, from the apprehension of the patient taking cold.

The following judicious observations on the gout, which the author of course has had many opportunities of witnessing, shew considerable observation and knowledge of the world.

"Though at first the gout return but rarely, yet at length it becomes familiar, returning oftener, and staying longer, and by the uncertainty of the fits interrupting all business, and disappointing all pleasures. During its presence the patient is helpless as an infant, and without those circumstances which make an infant so easily and cheerfully assisted. It can hardly be reckoned one of the disadvantages of the gout, that after destroying all the comforts of living, by this weight of misery, or by bringing on a palsy or apoplexy, it immaturesly extinguishes the powers of life. Yet people are neither ashamed, nor afraid of it; but are rather ambitious of supposing that every complaint arises from a gouty cause, and support themselves with the hopes that they shall one day have the gout, and use variety of means for this purpose, which, happily for them, are generally ineffectual.

"This seems to be the favourite disease of the present age in England; wished for by those who have it not, and boasted of by those who fancy they have it, though very sincerely lamented by most who in reality suffer its tyranny. Hence, by a peculiar fate, more pains seem to be taken at present to breed or produce the gout, than to find out its remedy. For so much respect hath been shewn to this distemper, that all the other evils, except pain, which the real or supposed gouty patient ever feels, are imputed most commonly, not to his having had too much of this disease, but to his wanting more; and the gout, far from being blamed as the cause, is looked upon as the expected deliverer from these evils.

"The love of life, or fear of death, makes most men unwilling to allow that their constitution is breaking; and for this reason they are ready to impute to any other cause what in reality are the signs of approaching and unavoidable decay. Hence, in a beginning failure or languidness of the functions of life, they easily persuade themselves that their complaints are all owing to a lurking gout, and that nothing is wanted but a just fit, to the re-establishment of their health. Now, to say nothing of the slight grounds upon which these fond hopes of a latent gout

are generally founded, is it as certainly true as it is commonly believed, that this distemper, when it comes to a strong fit, clears the constitution from all others; and that by creating, or exciting it, we should not superadd one more evil to those which were suffered before? The itch is supposed to be wholesome in some countries, where it is endemial; and an ague has been considered as a minister of health, whose presence and stay ought by all means to be courted. These opinions are now pretty generally exploded in England; and I hope the time will come, when a specific for the gout, as certain as those which have been discovered for these two disorders, will ascertain the equal safety and advantage of immediately stopping its career, and preventing its returns.

"If we ask what reason there is to consider the gout as a critical discharge of peccant humours, more than a rheumatism, palsy, or epilepsy, we can only be referred to experience for the proof; and some indeed, in the first attack of the gout, congratulate themselves upon the completion of their wishes; and, during the honey-moon of the first fit dreaming of nothing but perfect health and happiness, persuade themselves that they are much the better for it; for new medicines, and new methods of cure, always work miracles for a while. Of such we must not enquire, but of those who have had it their companion for a great part of their lives. Now, among those gouty which I have had an opportunity of seeing, I find by the notes which I have taken, that the patients in whom they have supervened other distempers without relieving them, or where they have been thought to bring on new disorders, are at least double in number to those in whom they have been judged to befriended the constitution; and it has appeared to me, that the mischief which has been laid to their charge, was much more certainly owing to them, than the good which they had the credit of doing. Other disorders will indeed sometimes be suspended upon an attack of the gout; and so they will by palsies, fevers, asthmas, small-pox, and madness, of which I have seen many instances; but then the gout has often come on when persons are labouring under vertigos, shortness of breath, loss of appetite, and dejection of spirits, without affording the least relief, and sometimes it has manifestly aggravated them; nay, these complaints have, in some patients, always come on with the gout, and have constantly attended it during the whole fit."

In the treatment of this disease, the author advises an antiphlogistic plan, and thinks that little disadvantage, if any, would be produced by bleeding in this complaint, though he is not certain of its propriety. He considers it unnecessary to do more than to keep off the sen-

sation of cold from the limbs, and has known many instances in which the happiest effects have been produced by resisting, instead of indulging, a fit.

"He has not been able to observe any good in arthritic cases from the external use of these waters, either when the distemper was present, or in its absence; on the contrary, it has rather appeared to increase the weakness of the limbs; and sea-bathing has contributed far more to recovering the strength of gouty persons, many of whom, in the intervals of their fits, have used it with safety and advantage."

The following observations on the use of wine and spirits are highly important, though they may not be perfectly palatable.

"Strong wines, and in no small quantity, have the reputation of being highly beneficial to gouty persons; which notion they have readily and generally received, not so much perhaps from a reasonable persuasion of its truth, as from a desire that it should be true, because they love wine. Let them consider that a free use of vinous and spirituous liquors peculiarly hurts the stomach and organs of digestion, and that the gout is bred and fostered by those who indulge themselves in drinking too much wine; while the poorer part of mankind, who can get very little stronger than water to drink, have better appetites than wine-drinkers, and better digestions, and are far less subject to arthritic complaints. The most perfect cures, of which I have been a witness, have been affected by a total abstinence from spirits, and wine, and flesh; which, in two or three instances, hath restored the helpless and miserable patients from a state worse than death, to active and comfortable life: but I have seen too few examples of the success of this method, to be confident or satisfied of its general utility."

We have no doubt that the attentive practitioner will receive, as we have done, many useful hints from these posthumous Commentaries, particularly on the diseases to which the higher orders are most liable. Before we take leave of them, we must not omit to express our surprise that the author should have any hesitation on the propriety of performing the operation for strangulated hernia, when those symptoms have appeared, under which it is, by every prudent practitioner of the present day, considered necessary. On this subject he seems to have formed a very hasty opinion, which appears to have originated from a very limited experience.

**ART. II. *A Fourth Dissertation on Fever; containing the History of, and Remedies to be employed, in irregular intermitting Fevers.*** By GEORGE FORDYCE, M.D. F.R.S. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Senior Physician to St. Thomas's Hospital, and Reader on the Practice of Physic in London. pp. 112.

SINCE the publication of this essay, we have to lament the death of its learned and venerable author, who, during a long and useful life, dignified the profession to which he belonged by his erudition and talents. His attention had been for many years directed to the subject of fever, and the plan which he laid down in prosecuting it was, at the time of his death, nearly completed. What remains in addition to this, the fourth dissertation, will, we understand, be published under the inspection of his friend and colleague Dr. Wells.

The former dissertations were on the nature and treatment of simple fever, regular tertian, intermittents, and regular continued fevers. The present resumes the subject of intermittents, by detailing the history of irregular fevers of this class, and the plan of cure to be adopted in removing them.

At the commencement of his essay, the author makes a few remarks on the division of intermittent fevers; on the intervals, intermissions, and length of their paroxysms; and on some of the phenomena which occasionally attend them, whether anticipating, or retarding. He then proceeds to enumerate the irregularities which are apt to occur in tertians, and treats at considerable length on the first of them, the prolongation of the paroxysm. This circumstance, he observes, may sometimes occur without any evident cause; but he thinks that it is, for the most part, to be attributed to general inflammation, commonly known by the name of inflammatory fever, or inflammatory diathesis. When this, says he,

“ Arises in a regular tertian, the pulse in the hot fit is not only foul, strong, frequent, and obstructed, but likewise hard; if blood be taken from the arm, the red particles fall from the surface before it coagulates, so that after the spontaneous separation, the coagulum is covered with a buff-coloured crust.

“ There is fullness of the vessels of the head shown by the vessels of the eye appearing more numerous, and the external jugulars appearing fuller. The pain of the head is greater, and is felt more internally, and there is sometimes delirium even in the first paroxysm of the disease. More particularly the hot fit is protracted. The paroxysm

often continues in a regular tertian, for thirty-six or forty hours before any critical symptoms take place. The crisis is not perfect, the pulse still remaining frequent, the appetite not returning, the tongue being still covered with a crust, and the head-ach remaining, though in other respects the patient is relieved, and falls into a quiet sleep for a few hours.

“ Sometimes again the relief is but trifling, and a practitioner would be led to suppose it a continued fever, excepting that the paroxysms attack the patient in the day time, not in the evening; that the exacerbations are greater; and that they observe very exactly the tertian type.

“ This is one of the cases of fever that was called by the Greeks hemitriteon, and by Celsus, semitertian, though certainly not the most frequent case to which they gave that name.”

In the observations which are given on the symptoms of general inflammation, the author particularly insists upon hardness of the pulse, and the uniform connection which exists between this symptom, and the formation of a buffy coat on the blood. Both these circumstances he attributes to the stronger action of the living power exerted on arteries, by which the coagulable lymph has a disposition to remain longer fluid than usual, and thus allows the red particles of the blood to sink to the bottom before coagulation takes place. His ideas on the nature of that influence which vessels are capable of exerting on the blood, are rather undecided. “ It may be conceived,” says he,

“ That the fluids of the human body, as well as the solids, have chemical properties, in consequence of their being alive, which they have not when they are dead. In this case, when the blood remains fluid for a long time after it flows from a vein into a bason, so as to allow the red globules to fall from the top before it is coagulated, and so as to give the appearance of buff to the surface of the coagulum, we must conceive, that the life remains in it for some time after it is taken out of the body.

“ Whatever may be the case, whether it be that this continuance of fluidity of the blood for a longer space of time is owing to the superior action of the arteries on the blood, or that the life remains in the blood itself, longer after it is taken from the body, its remaining long fluid, and in consequence,

a buff appearing on the surface of the coagulum, shows that there is a superior action of the living power in the body when there is hardness of the pulse."

Bloodletting the author regards as the best and most powerful means of carrying off general inflammation. He attempts to account for the action of this remedy by supposing, that the contraction of the blood vessels, which must necessarily take place after a loss of blood, to adapt them to the diminished quantity of that fluid, depends upon an exertion of the living power, and not upon their elasticity, as was formerly imagined.

"This diminishing the quantity of blood in the blood vessels will occasion an increased exertion in the sides of the vessels, in order to adapt them to the remaining quantity of blood, but will diminish all other action in the body, whether it be in the muscular or any other of the moving parts.

"This effect of diminishing the quantity of blood in the blood vessels, and, if it may be said, drawing the living power of the body into the sides of the vessels, diminishes all other action, and may go so far as to make all other action cease and be fatal. We see, therefore, that the loss of a certain quantity of blood kills."

Upon these principles he is of opinion, "that the increased action of the heart and arteries, which has been described as hurtful in fevers, may be diminished, and the general inflammation carried off.

"That the contraction of the vessels," the author observes, "so as to adapt themselves to the blood which is in them, depends on a power which arises from the life, is evident from these experiments and observations."

"If an animal be killed by any means which do not empty the blood vessels, such as breathing a quantity of air unfit for respiration, as soon as the body is dead, and without any exudation from the blood vessels into the other cavities, the blood vessels enlarge, and in consequence become in part empty. The arteries become so empty, that it was supposed by the ancients, that they contained only air when the animal was alive. The veins are no longer cylindrical, but flat. The paleness of all the parts in proportion to their floridness when the animal was alive, shows that the capillary vessels contain also a less quantity of blood in proportion to the diameter which they now assume.

"From these appearances it is evident, that the blood vessels have lost that power, which contracted them to the size they are

of in a living animal, and that, being left to their elasticity, is so far from being the power that contracts the blood vessels so as to adapt them to the blood that is in them in the living animal, that it is constantly endeavouring to counteract that power, and to distend the vessels."

When the symptoms of general inflammation have subsided, and the disease is reduced to a single tertian, it must be treated in the way directed in a former dissertation.

Sometimes the prolongation of a paroxysm, in a tertian intermittent, takes place without an apparent cause, with a pulse full, strong, and obstructed, but not hard, and when the blood does not shew a buffy coat. Should this occur in a temperate climate, we are to endeavour to convert the complaint into a regular tertian, by administering an emetic, and a moderate dose of rhubarb, or some other purgative, on the following morning. "After the intestines have been cleared of their contents," the author recommends that,

"Preparations of antimony or ipecacuanha, or such other medicines as tend to produce appearances similar to those which take place in the crisis of fever, should be exhibited at the interval of four, five, or six hours, so as to act constantly on the system. These should be continued for several days, until a perfect and longer intermission has taken place. When a perfect intermission has been procured, if it should continue but for six or eight hours, the bark of the cinchona should be given in powder to the quantity of a drachm or two drachms every hour, or even every half hour, or as much in quantity, and as frequent as the stomach will bear.

"The bark is to be omitted when the next paroxysm, if it should return, has come on, and repeated again in the next intermission, provided it is as perfect as the former one. If it be not, the medicines producing appearances similar to those, which take place in the crisis of fevers, are to be repeated until another intermission has been produced, in which case the cinchona is to be again exhibited.

"If the exhibition of the cinchona should have prevented the return of the paroxysm altogether, the practice should be followed, that has been pointed out in a regular tertian.

"Supposing that the exhibition of such medicines as produce appearances similar to those that arise in the ordinary crisis of fevers, should not produce a perfect crisis, nor shorten the paroxysms; and that the patient is so much weakened, that his life is endangered from the weakness taken place

in the disease; the cinchona is to be employed in the best remission that can be procured, and its exhibition regulated as has been already described in the management of a regular tertian."

The prolongation of paroxysms, particularly of the hot fit, happens frequently in warm climates, and constitutes what has been called yellow-fever, and even plague. Neither of these formidable diseases has the author ever had an opportunity of seeing; he is therefore unable to speak of them, except from the accounts of others. From what he has been able to collect on the subject of the former, he is of opinion that it may arise

"Sometimes from putrefaction, sometimes from cold, generated by small drops of water evaporating or dissolving in some or all of the vapours which constitute the atmosphere, sometimes though less seldom from infection."

On the infectiousness of this disease he observes, that the opinions are so various, and have been given

"By young and unlearned practitioners, with such positive and contradictory firmness, that it is very difficult to form any true conclusion of it."

Upon the whole, he thinks it extremely doubtful that this disease arises from imported infection.

The author now gives a detail of the phenomena of yellow-fever, and attempts a rationale of some of its more peculiar symptoms. The colour of the skin seems to him to arise rather from a greater secretion of the sebaceous matter prepared by its sebaceous glands, than from absorption of bile. With regard to the black vomiting, he is disposed to consider it as the separation of a matter formed upon the stomach, duodenum, or ilium, in some degree analogous to that by which the tongue is covered in violent fevers.

As almost every plan which has been adopted for the cure of this disease has failed, the author recommends a trial of the following one:

"To employ as great a dose of tartarized antimony as the patient could bear without producing nausea; that is, from a quarter to a third part of a grain, together with about half a grain of opium. The medicine should be repeated every four hours. The patient should be laid in bed, and covered with a light covering of cotton. Warm watery farinaceous and mucilaginous fluids should be drunk frequently. If this practice be not begun within six hours from the attack, the author should not expect much success from it. At any rate he proposes it with great diffidence.

"If by this practice, that moisture should be restored to the skin, with which it is generally covered in hot climates, it may be continued for two or three days: and if the symptoms of the disease should be so far diminished, as that any thing like a crisis should be brought on, and the stomach be quiet, the author then would recommend the exhibition of peruvian bark in substance, to the quantity of a drachm every hour, or as much as the patient's stomach will bear without producing sickness.

"The method which has been recommended of nourishing, supporting the strength, and treatment in other respects in a regular continued fever, while it is going through its ordinary course, should also be employed in this disease."

A plan nearly similar, he recommends when the fever is more completely remittent.

The other irregularities which take place in intermittents of temperate climates, the consideration of which the author resumes towards the end of his dissertation, are produced by their being conjoined with pectoral complaints, with enlargement of the spleen or liver, and with dropsies. In the first case, the accessory symptoms are apt to be increased by bark, which is therefore to be discontinued till their disappearance. Visceral enlargements, and dropsies, do not render it necessary to make any particular deviation from the plan to be pursued.

The author concludes this dissertation by some remarks on metallic tonics, which may be had recourse to when bark fails in producing a cure.

ART. III. *A Letter to Sir Walter Farquhar, Bart. on the Subject of a particular Affection of the Bowels, very frequent and fatal in the East Indies.* pp. 33. 8vo.

THIS disease, which the author (Mr. Francis Duncan) here describes to have taken place in India, is curious, and we

believe hitherto unobserved. It is an inflammation of the colon, attended with a severe fixed pain above the pubes,



extreme difficulty of making water, and often an entire suppression of urine. There is at the same time a violent and almost unceasing evacuation from the bowels, which the author compares to water in which raw flesh has been macerated. We do not exactly understand what he would describe by this comparison, or whether it is to extend to smell as well as general appearance.

The fever is very high, the pulse hard, strong, and frequent, and all the symptoms highly inflammatory. The peculiar diagnostic symptoms are, the fixed pain above the pubes, the evacuation from the bowels, and the suppression of urine. Tenesmus often occurs, but not the griping of dysentery; for the pain, which is fixed and pungent, is confined to the pubes.

This disease is very rapid in its course, and often terminates fatally on the fourth or fifth day, with all the usual symptoms of intestinal gangrene. It does not appear to be contagious, but is

sometimes epidemic, particularly to young recruits in the army. On dissection, ulceration, thickening, and mortification of the colon, in a greater or less extent, was always found; and splenated state of the omentum.

With regard to the treatment, the author found purgatives to be always hurtful, and often to do irreparable mischief. Bleeding was requisite to bring down the inflammatory symptoms, and *afterwards*, but not before, opiates were of the highest use. Emollient and anodyne glysters, and warm fomentations were also of signal benefit.

The author adds some very judicious observations on bowel complaints in hot climates, which shew him to be an accurate observer; and the whole narrative is related with that good sense, and freedom from theoretical bias, which entitles it to the attention of those whose professional pursuits may lead them to the burning climate of Hindostan.

ART. IV. *Essays on the Diseases of Children: with Cases and Dissections. Essay 1st, of Cynanche Trachealis, or Croup.* By JOHN CHEYNE, M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, pp. 72, Plates 5.

IN our investigation into the nature of the numerous and serious complaints to which children are subject, we are almost wholly deprived of the assistance which a description of sensations can afford us; and on this account it becomes the more necessary to be instructed by accurate and extensive observation in every external circumstance which can at all direct us in our inquiries.

The author of this essay early felt the want of some guides to the knowledge of infantile diseases, and with a laudable zeal for the improvement of his profession, determined, when he entered upon the charge of an extensive range of practice, in a place (Leith) where some of the most formidable diseases of children are peculiarly frequent and dangerous, to devote his chief attention to this subject.

We are now presented with the first fruits of his labours, which he means to carry in a systematic way, in separate essays, over the most important of the diseases of children, beginning with those, as less intricate, to which they are exposed after being weaned, and then proceeding to such as attack infants

at the breast. He was induced to commence with the croup, from being in possession of several cases and dissections which he felt some confidence in laying before the public. The author in characterising this disease, employs a definition very similar to that of Michaelis, who published an inaugural dissertation on the subject at Gottingen in the year 1778. He distinguishes it as "an inflammatory affection of the trachea, which, in the progress of the disease, is accompanied with an effusion which becomes a tubular membrane, lining the inflamed surface." If the ideas which we entertain of the nature of a definition be correct, the circumstances now mentioned can by no means be considered as necessary or sufficient to constitute one; for, according to the uniform practice of nosologists, a definition is intended to combine those external and characteristic features of the disease, which can be useful in practice, by distinguishing it from all others; while that which the author has given us, is derived entirely from the appearances which dissection lays open.

The following history he gives of the attack and progress of cynanche trache-

alis, principally taken from a very perfect case, attended by him some time previous to the publication of this work.

"The disease generally comes on in the evening, after the little patient has been much exposed to the weather during the day, and often a slight catarrh of some days standing. At first his voice is observed to be hoarse and piling; he shuns his play-fellows, and sits apart from them, dull, and, as it were, foreseeing his danger. His illness, indeed, does not prevent him from going to sleep, but soon he awakes with a most unusual cough, rough and stridulous. And now his breathing is laborious, each inspiration being accompanied by a harsh shrill noise, most distressing to the attendants: his face is swelled and flushed, and his eye bloodshot; and he seems in constant danger of suffocation: his skin burns, and he has much thirst; he labours more and more in breathing; still the ringing noise is heard, and the unusual cough: he tries to relieve himself by sitting erect; no change of posture, no effort gives him relief. Generally his sufferings are thus protracted until morning, when perhaps there is a slight remission; his breathing is a little easier, but the anxiety, the fever, and the cough remain; he is soon as ill again as ever; and these symptoms continuing, weakened by the violence of his illness, with purpled lips and leaden countenance, he dies in two or three days.\* In other cases, the disease, after continuing some time, appears suddenly alleviated: the breathing is free, the child soon becomes cheerful, his appetite for food returns, he amuses himself, and seems perfectly recovered, and the hope of every one is raised, only to make the disappointment more keen; for the child suddenly gets worse, and dies, his livid and swollen face and convulsive struggles giving him the appearance of one that is strangled.

"Upon dissecting the body, the cause of these alarming symptoms becomes sufficiently obvious. When the child dies after an illness of three, four, or five days, there is found lining the wind-pipe a white membrane, of considerable tenacity. It arises a little under the larynx, and is sometimes prolonged into the division of the trachea; and generally a quantity of a white fluid, like matter with which the lungs are filled, is seen gurgling up. The attachment of the membrane is slight, but the inner coat of the wind-pipe is inflamed. The inflammation, which is still perceptible, and which of

course must have been more violent before this fluid exuded, I hold to be the immediate cause of the bad symptoms in the first stage of the disease; as the adventitious membrane and puriform fluid,† the consequence of that inflammation, is in the conclusion of it."

The author is disposed to regard debility of the trachea as the predisposing cause of croup, from having observed that it seldom occurs in males after the age of puberty, at which time the voice becomes more firm and manly, from a change which takes place in the upper part of the wind-pipe. This inference, however, seems to be deduced from very partial observation. We are ignorant of the nature of those changes, which take place in the larynx, at that important period of life; and are, therefore, not warranted in saying, that they are produced merely by the accession of strength to that organ; but, if they were, the position would not be proved, since we have no reason to suppose that females and eunuchs (in whom no such changes occur) are more susceptible of the disease after the age of fourteen or fifteen, than those from whom the author deduces his argument.

With a view to the formation of a plan of cure, the author considers the disease as divided into two stages; the incomplete or inflammatory, in which the membrane has not yet appeared, and the complete or purulent, in which it is fully formed. In the first stage of the disease, he principally trusts to venesection, which, he says, is always easily performed in the jugular vein, and may be repeated according to the strength of the patient. When, from weakness, or any other circumstances, there is either an objection to general bloodletting in the first instance, or to its repetition, he recommends the application of leeches to the neck. The other parts of his treatment in this stage, consist in emetics, the warm-bath, purgatives, blisters, and antimonials.

"The second stage of the disease is known by some remission in the phlogistic appearances, such as a change in the countenance

\* There are very distinct histories of the disease ending fatally in twenty-four hours: of this Mr. Alexander saw four instances. Generally, however, the child does not die before the third or fourth day. Sometimes the disease continues much longer, for several weeks.

† I have added a case, where the membrane, observed on dissection, was not such as to impede the respiration; it was not more than a few detached crusts: but it would seem that the inflammation, the effusion in the lungs, and the general affection, had produced the same fatal effect.

from a florid to a leaden colour; by the pulse getting smaller; and by the difficulty of breathing continuing or increasing, the child frequently breathing easiest in postures which might be thought most unfavourable to respiration; and by a sediment in the urine. From having observed in dissections that the thyroid veins are very turgid, I have been induced, in this stage of the disease, to apply leeches to the neck; I have also used emetics, to procure, by the agitation which they produce, the expectoration of the membrane, should it occupy, as sometimes happens, only a small space in the trachea. The bowels are to be kept open by glisters; and the low regimen observed in the first stage is to be laid aside; and the strength of the patient supported."

On the general practice adopted by the author we shall only remark, that he appears to us, in his treatment of the first stage of this complaint, to place by far too little dependence on local blood-letting, which seems to be peculiarly adapted to this disease, and should, in our opinion, be among the most early remedies.

To the operation of bronchotomy the author is decidedly averse.

"Some physicians have proposed a scheme, absurd, because impracticable, namely, to pull out the adventitious membrane, after having performed the operation of bronchotomy. This operation cannot be done in the usual way, by making an aperture between two of the rings of the trachea; a longitudinal slit must be made, cutting the cartilages directly across. In the first instance, the bleeding from the thyroid veins is to be encountered, which, to my thinking, would suffocate the child. But suppose this difficulty overcome, and the forceps introduced into a tube not half an inch in diameter, (for such is the trachea at two years of age) the membrane may not, after the incision is made, be found to possess that tenacity which will enable it to bear the pulling out. Such I have found it after death, at the very place where the operation must have been done: and if we loosen the membrane from the trachea, without extracting it, it will meet the first inspiration like a valve, and the child must be immediately suffocated. But farther; is the child to be cured by extracting the membrane from the trachea? Certainly not; for there are instances where the child has sunk, even after the membrane had, by the use of eme-

tics, been expectorated. Not only the membrane, but the frothy and puriform matter with which the lungs are stuffed, must be removed before he can be saved; for this must be instrumental in the death of the child: I do not indeed believe, that any prudent surgeon will be found to perform this operation."

In giving his opinion of this important point, the author seems to speak in a tone by much too imperious and dogmatical; and though his arguments against the propriety of ever performing the operation of bronchotomy, may, *to his thinking*, appear irresistible, they by no means convince us, that it is not proper to have recourse to this practice, when every other method has failed in relieving the patient; or that there are not other grounds on which to perform it, independent of making an attempt to disengage the membrane itself. The obstruction of the trachea by this membrane, may not be complete, and yet the larynx may be so much affected as to endanger suffocation. It may be observed too, that a considerable part of the effused matter, as was the case in three of the four dissections given by the author, is frequently fluid; hence an opening into the trachea would afford it a ready escape, and thus greatly diminish the violence of the symptoms. The operation is certainly not a dangerous one, as the author intimates, and should a vessel of any consequence be divided during the performance of it, it might, *to our thinking*, be readily secured by a ligature before the trachea itself is opened. We may remark, that a successful case of this operation is mentioned by Burserius, in the third volume of his *Institutiones Medicinæ Practicæ*. In this case, a considerable quantity of pus came out of the opening as soon as it was made, and in two days afterwards, a portion of the adventitious membrane. The remainder was easily drawn out from the wound, and the child perfectly recovered.

The work is illustrated by five elegant plates, which give a very good view of the appearances discovered by dissection in this disease.

ART. V. *Observations on the Arguments of Professor Rush, in Favour of the inflammatory Nature of the Disease produced by the Bite of a Mad Dog.* By JAMES MEASE, M.D. 8vo. pp. 62.

IN considering the nature of hydrophobia, Doctor Rush was, some years ago, led to conclude, that there was a great analogy between this disease and tetanus, which is supposed to depend upon debility. From this circumstance he was induced to believe, that the most rational method of cure was the employment of invigorating and stimulant remedies, which he had found serviceable in the last mentioned complaint. He has since, however, given up this idea, and is now of opinion that both these diseases depend upon excess of action, and are to be cured by medicines which debilitate.

The author of these observations considers Doctor Rush as having relinquished his former theory of the disease, without sufficient ground, and therefore attempts to show the fatuity of the reasoning which induced him to adopt his present opinions and practice. He informs us, that he published an inaugural dissertation on this subject, in the year 1792; and to this he refers for the arguments of the theory once supported by Doctor Rush, and still regarded as conclusive by the author.

We have heard so much of the terms, debility and excitement, and are so satisfied of the small real service they have been in the improvement of the profession, that we feel little disposed to trouble our readers with any details on a controversy which has not led to one valuable conclusion; we shall therefore content ourselves with giving, in the author's own words, the plan of cure which he recommends in this complaint.

"In my inaugural essay," says he, "I recommended the use of opium, on the principle of its antispasmodic virtue, but in much larger doses than it had ever been prescribed in the disease, because I perceived that the small quantities which had always been prescribed, never in the least mitigated the symptoms. But from the examples stated of its inefficacy, even when given in larger doses than I thought the system could bear, I am now convinced, that it is losing time to trust to it. In its place I would recommend the use of the powdered leaves of stramonium, or their extract, in doses of two grains for an adult. By that quantity Doctor Cooper found the pulse 'increased in frequency at first, and that it afterwards became

full and quick, and produced giddiness, warm skin, moist hands, and sleepiness.' A defect of due energy in the heart, wakefulness, and cold skin, are symptoms that constantly attend the disease, and the two last are the sources of much distress. Hitherto no remedy has had the least effect in removing them. Their cure will greatly assist toward the removal of the whole complaint. This may be effected, in my opinion, by the *stramonium*, if given early in the disease. It should be exhibited in such doses as will powerfully affect the system, and repeated as often as a previous dose has ceased to act. During the suspension of the symptoms, bark and wine ought to be given, and the dose gradually increased, so as to keep up a regular excitement, and produce a permanent vigour in the system. The quantity of wine may be unlimited. Indeed the only rule that ought to be observed with respect to it, is to give it in as large quantities as the stomach will bear, and until it produces the desired effect. For this disease exhibits a singular instance of the concentration of sensibility in certain parts of the body, and of a great defect of it, nay, almost a total exhaustion of it in another.

"In case, however, the above remedies cannot be obtained or exhibited, I should have no hesitation in trying another plan, which has several arguments to authorize the experiment, although at first view it may appear to be attended with danger. It is to excite a strangury by means of *cantharides*."

This remedy, he informs us, was found useful in hydrophobia in Germany, has cured 'a desperate case of tetanus' in America, has been recommended in hooping cough in England, and moreover perfectly accords in its operation 'with the principle of the animal economy, first unfolded by J. Hunter, of one irritation curing another.'

From the above extracts, it appears that the author speaks confidently of the success of a plan of treatment, of the utility of which he does not bring forward a single fact. He afterwards urges, however, in its favour, what we should have some hesitation in granting, "that it is supported by a just theory, a close analogy, and," he adds, "if we admit German authority, is proved by experience."

There can assuredly be no impropriety in trying the effects of any remedies which have the most distant probability

of being useful in a disease which has hitherto baffled every attempt to remove it. Such trials are, indeed, praiseworthy, but we cannot admit the inconclusive speculations which have given

rise to them, to be dignified by the name of theories, and to assume the place, and arrogate the authority, of legitimate dictators of medical practice.

**ART. VI.** *A Treatise on Brown's System of Medicine. Translated from the German of H. C. Pfaff, M.D. Professor in the University of Kiel. By JOHN RICHARDSON, Author of "Thoughts on Education."* 8vo. pp. 80.

THE impression made by the Brunonian system in this country, seems to have been at no time very considerable. Its more serious and active partizans, were principally confined to a few of those gentlemen who had an opportunity, during their medical education in Edinburgh, of hearing the lectures of its celebrated author, and of thus catching a part of the enthusiasm with which he was inspired. It is not, indeed, extraordinary, that its influence at this distinguished school should have been much greater than in any other part of the united kingdom. Young, active, and intelligent minds, indignant of the authority of great names, were prepared to receive the strongest impressions from a doctrine which professed to rescue medical science from the restraints of erroneous systems, and by a bold effort of enterprising genius to found it on the basis of simplicity and truth. A more extensive acquaintance with practice, and more careful and dispassioned examination, has in this country nearly dispelled the delusion. In some parts of the continent, however, Brunonianism seems to have made a considerable progress. The zeal and assiduity of Professor Frank, we are informed, succeeded in introducing it into the university of Pavia, and extended it to Germany, where it has met with very numerous and respectable votaries. To stem the torrent of the enthusiasm which it has excited, and to induce his countrymen to examine carefully the foundations of its principles, are the laudable objects of Doctor Pfaff, in the treatise before us. The objections which he recommends to their consideration, are most of them such as have already been frequently employed on the same subject; we do not, therefore, think it necessary to do more than give a summary of them, which we shall abstract in his own words.

1st, "Excitability is a power not every

where equal, but differently modified in different organs and systems.

2dly, "The stimuli, which act on the excitability, do not affect it entirely in the same way, and their effect is various.

3dly, "The relation of stimulation is not the only one in which the external things stand to the excitability.

4thly, "The common natural stimuli, upon whose influence or operation life and good health depend, make up but a small insignificant part of the stimuli which act as causes of disease.

5thly, "The remote causes of disease act proximately or immediately, not only on the solid animated parts, but on the fluids.

6thly, "Increased or diminished excitement by no means constitutes the essence of diseases, which is rather determined by the united state of the solids and fluids in regard to motion, structure, and mixture.

7thly, "In diseases the excitement is seldom merely strengthened, or merely weakened, in the whole system, and the division into two principal forms of diseases, is by consequence a wrong one."

On the therapeutics of Brown, the author gives the following opinion.

"Many parts of his therapeutics merit, according to my conviction, full approbation; and in many diseases his prescriptions agree with those of the most eminent and most successful physicians; yet his method of cure seems to me to labour under several defects, and to have several chains. He has carried simplicity in his therapeutics a great deal too far, and adapted them too little to the real multifariousness of diseases; in many cases his two indications of cure do not at all suffice; so that at the sick-bed one is quite embarrassed with them, as well as with his few remedies; or, if one is not susceptible of such an embarrassment, he is led by them to the grossest empiricism. His mode of representation of the way remedies act, is far too limited; yet, in some parts, even quite erroneous; and some of his prescriptions are really dangerous, and proved to be hurtful by an impartial experience."

The translation seems to be executed by a person whose knowledge of English is by no means correct.



**ART. VII.** *Facts, and some Arguments, tending to shew that the public Decision may with Prudence be suspended respecting Inoculation for the Cow-pox.* By THOMAS LEE, a Member of the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 36.

AFTER the decision which has taken place in the imperial parliament, on the momentous subject of vaccine inoculation, the intention of this pamphlet is in a great measure done away. Whether or not, it actually appeared before this decision was made, we feel ourselves rather at a loss, from some passages contained in it, precisely to ascertain. At all events, however, the result could have been in no respect different from the weight of the facts and arguments here brought forward. In a question so contrary to all known analogy, and of such magnitude and importance as that involved in the examination of cow-pox, doubts were completely justifiable, both in a philosophical and moral point of view; but it must be granted that a man may doubt too long, and that by refusing his assent to evidence which would be sufficient to establish any other question of philosophy, he runs the risk of being accessory to that destruction which the adoption of the practice recommended would tend to prevent. The author does not confine himself to arguments and doubts in his endeavours to produce a suspension of public opinion on this subject. In order to prove that the insusceptibility of small-pox influence, does not continue during life, he has recourse to the common method of imposing on vulgar minds by the publication of an attestation; and that it may have additional force, informs us of his being able to procure three others of a similar kind. This formidable document has the signature of Robert Newman, who most

solemnly certifies (though he neither annexes his place of abode nor a date), that "he had the cow-pox, or what is commonly called the cow-pox, in Gloucestershire, early in life," and that several years afterwards he took the small-pox by inoculation. If the author is so completely convinced of the accuracy of this statement, as he appears to be, it seems to us rather inconsistent to propose the suspension only of public opinion on the merits of cow-pox. It would certainly be acting with more propriety to advise the discontinuance of this practice, since it is found to fail in the principal circumstance for which it is recommended. With regard to the attestation itself, if there were nothing more to be urged against it, its credibility is a good deal affected by the writer asserting, that he never heard that the cow-pox would prevent the small-pox, and thus endeavouring to insinuate that there must be an error in supposing there are any traditinary ideas on the subject in dairy counties. The author dedicates his pamphlet to the faculty of the university of Edinburgh, and signs himself an unworthy, because a truant son of that university. We shall not pretend to dispute the author's power of being able properly to appreciate both his own merits and demerits; a captious reader might, perhaps, however, be inclined, from a perusal of this publication, to allow him some claims for the title which he gives himself, independent of that of being absent from his alma mater without leave.

**ART. VIII.** *Practical Observations on the Inoculation of Cow-pox, pointing out a Test of a constitutional Affection in those Cases in which the local Inflammation is slight, and in which no Fever is perceptible. Illustrated by Cases and Plates.* By JAMES BRYCE, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 236.

THE author of these observations is a zealous propagator of the vaccine inoculation; and, if any confirmation were now wanted for the efficacy of this practice, the facts which he has accumulated would afford ample testimony in its favour. The account here given of the history and advantages of cow-pox, and the circumstances to be attended to in its inoculation, is accurate and judicious, but as it contains nothing which has not

been long fully established, we shall confine our observations to two or three particulars of his work, which are either new, or are still matters of controversy.

With regard to the origin of cow-pox, the author is induced, from the evidence of some cases published by Doctor Loy, of Aislisbie, to agree with Doctor Jenner, in supposing that it was originally produced from grease in the horse's foot, translated to the cow by means of men

servants, who were employed in milking them. These cases are certainly the most directly in favour of Doctor Jenner's idea of any which have yet appeared, but it must be observed, that the horse from which the matter of grease was taken, was not only affected with general indisposition, but with a pustular eruption over the whole body; which last circumstance, though it might, perhaps, be accidental, was never, we believe, observed even in cases of grease, which were not suspected to be spurious.

The author's attention has been very particularly directed to discovering some criterion by which the existence of constitutional affection could always be readily ascertained in the inoculated cow-pox, for in some cases which fell under his own notice, though the local affection seemed to go on in the usual way, yet from the want of constitutional indisposition, the patients were not freed from susceptibility to variolous influence. For some time he was disappointed in his endeavours to effect this object, but at last he succeeded, by the application of some striking experiments in small-pox inoculation, which he happened to recollect.

As the mode which he devised is new and ingenious, we shall give it to our readers in his own words.

"It was found," said he, "that if the same person was inoculated every day until the fever, induced by the first inoculation supervened, all the other punctures quickly advanced in their progress; and that, in the course of a day, from the time the fever or general affection began, even that puncture which had been last made, perhaps only twenty-four hours before, equalled in maturity the one first made, perhaps eight or nine days before, and from which the fever had arisen.

"In this case, it appears to me evident, and I think must be admitted by every person, that even had no other pustules appeared on the body, than those occasioned by the repeated inoculations; nay, had there been no fever observed in consequence of the inoculation, yet as the pustule occasioned by the last puncture had been suddenly accelerated in its progress to maturation, at the time the general or constitutional affection should have appeared, this alone was a sufficient proof of the variolous action in the system.

"Judging again from analogy, I expected that the same thing which thus happened in the small-pox inoculation, might also take place in that for the cow-pox; and the unex-

pected appearance of one or two vesicles upon children that I had inoculated, which vesicles were quite characteristic of the ailment, and the appearance of which I could only account for from a second and accidental inoculation, during the course of the disease, as mentioned page 106, strengthened my hopes. And certainly, if we find in our cow-pox, where the inflamed and hard areola does not take place, at least in the regular course of that affection, until the end of the seventh, or beginning of the eighth day from inoculation, that a second inoculation, performed for example at the end of the fifth, or beginning of the sixth day, is so much accelerated in its progress, about the time the general affection of the system usually takes place, as to have an areola formed within a few hours, or very shortly after the first, and that this areola increases with the first, and again fades at nearly the same time, we must be struck with the similarity, and forcibly led to draw the same conclusion in the one case as the other, viz. that although the inoculated affection had appeared very slight, and no fever had been observed, yet that a certain action had been excited in the constitution. That this was the true constitutional affection of cow-pox, may be judged by the acceleration of the second vesicle to a state of maturity, five days before this could have happened, had there been no consentaneous general action or change in the system.

"The truth of this opinion was also soon put to the test of experience; and I have now much satisfaction in declaring that the result appears to answer my most sanguine expectations."

The author gives us a detail of fourteen cases, in which the practice succeeded, and from these, and a great many others in which the second inoculation was performed at different periods of the primary affection, he concludes,

"That the most proper time for performing the second inoculation, is about the end of the fifth or beginning of the sixth day, from the first inoculation. If the second inoculation," he continues, "be delayed beyond the sixth day, the affection produced by it will be very indistinct, and of short duration, and if performed at an earlier period than the fifth day, the contrast between the progress of the two affections, with regard to duration, will not be so great as may be thought necessary."

The criterion recommended by the author, appears to us to be an unexceptionable one; to practise it, however, in every instance, would not only be attended with a considerable increase of trouble, but would in much the greater number of cases be perfectly unnecessary. The second inoculation too, would

be not unfrequently apt to fail, and whenever this was the case, doubts would be likely to remain of the success of the operation upon the mind of the patient and practitioner, which could not readily be removed. Inoculation, with variolous matter, would certainly determine whether the body was rendered susceptible or not of its influence, but this experiment would be attended with considerable danger, if the cow-pox inocu-

lation had really not taken effect. Upon the whole it does not appear to us that such a criterion is necessary, for no fair instances have come to our knowledge in which the person was not secured from all future attacks from the small-pox, when the vaccine pustule went through its regular course, and the areola presented the usual appearances at the proper time, though the constitution was not perceptibly affected.

**ART. IX.** *Facts decisive in favour of the Cow-pox; including an Account of the Inoculation of the Village of Lowther.* By ROBERT JOHN THORNTON, M. D. late of Trinity-College, Cambridge; Lecturer on Medical Botany at Guy's, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 240.

THIS work is divided into two parts, of which one treats of the natural and inoculated small-pox, the other of the natural and inoculated cow-pox. In the first is given a short history, principally from Dr. Woodville, of the antiquity, formal establishment and success of variolous inoculation, together with some just and forcible observations on the fatality of natural small-pox. He is decidedly of opinion that the inoculation of this disease, by introducing it in the natural way, has been productive of much more injury than benefit to society, and that unless a general inoculation were instituted, to which there are a great many obstacles, the evil would still continue.

The second part is appropriated to the history of the discovery and phenomena of cow-pox, and a detail of the evidence for its rendering the body completely unsusceptible of the variolous influence. The whole of this evidence, with the exception only of that which the author brings forward, has long been before the public. His own experience

in London, but more particularly in the county of Cumberland, fully confirms the efficacy, and utility, of this mild disease; and shews also, that by the influence of example, and the sanction of persons whose opinions are respected, the vulgar may, without much difficulty, be reconciled to the practice.

It will readily be seen from the general account which we have given of this publication, that though the additional facts which it contains would have been very acceptable at a more early period of vaccine inoculation, they have been rendered unnecessary by the immense accumulation of satisfactory evidence, which has long been before the public on the same subject.

The author ingeniously contrives to make his work a vehicle of compliment, not only to many of his medical acquaintance who happen to be mentioned in it, but to his late patron the Earl of Lonsdale, whose munificence, politeness, acuteness, and humanity, he seems to take much pleasure in celebrating.

**ART. X.** *An Examination of the Report of the House of Commons, on the Claims of Remuneration for the Vaccine-Pock Inoculation; containing a Statement of the principal historical Facts of the Vaccine.* By GEORGE PEARSON, M. D. F. R. S. Physician to the Vaccine-Pock Institution, Senior Physician to St. George's Hospital, Honorary Member of the Board of Agriculture, &c. pp. 188.

WE observe with regret, that one of the most important discoveries which has ever been made in the annals of medicine or philosophy, has given rise to unpleasant differences among those physicians to whom mankind are most indebted for their zeal and activity in introducing and disseminating it. The author of the present publication objects to the grounds on which the remunera-

tion has lately been made by the British parliament to Dr. Jenner, and thinks himself much aggrieved that his own strenuous exertions in the cause of vaccination, were not noticed in the report of the committee of the house of commons. He admits that Dr. Jenner possessed a claim to a reward, but he denies to that gentleman the merit of discovery, and at the same time considers the chief

credit of the improvement, and diffusion of the vaccine practice due to himself and Dr. Woodville.

Too much stress appears to us to have been laid both by the author, and two or three other gentlemen, whose evidence was given, or read, before the committee of the house of commons, on the facts which led them to suppose that vaccine inoculation is not a new practice. Unless there were some grounds for imagining that Dr. Jenner borrowed his idea from the observations and practice of other men, (which has never been distinctly and directly asserted, though we observe that it has been remotely insinuated,) his merit remains perfectly unaffected, by any previous experiments which were made upon this subject, particularly when no means had been taken to inform the public of their results.

Some individuals, whose evidence is stated by the author with considerable marks of approbation, even go so far as to say, that Dr. Jenner is not the 'only person,' is not 'exclusively,' entitled to a reward for the employment of vaccine inoculation, because it was invented and practised by them some years before. Such gentlemen, however, merit no share of that credit of which they appear to be envious: with a singular want of ambition and philanthropy, they concealed those experiments which might have obtained them a lasting reputation, and neglected the opportunity which they had of arresting some years sooner one of the most dreadful scourges of humanity.

The mere introduction of vaccine inoculation, it has been thought, must have soon taken place, if it had so happened that Dr. Jenner had not brought it forward at the time he did. This is by no means improbable, and the same has been observed of every important discovery which was ever made; but when we consider, as appears from many parts of the present publication, that the effects of casual cow-pox in preventing small-pox, were not only known to the peasantry, as well as many enlightened men of several counties of England, but were noticed by Adams, Woodville, and Beddoes, and even by the author himself in his lectures, though the application was overlooked by every one of them, it would be unfair not to

regard vaccine inoculation as a fortunate and creditable deduction.

We do not feel ourselves disposed to enter into an examination of the various objections to the report of the committee, and of the many other subjects of discussion brought forward in this work. They are all of them of a secondary nature, and do not affect the petitioner's claim to a reward, on account of the importance and utility of the practice laid open by him to the public. With a view to establish his right to a participation of credit, the author asserts, that he has completely disproved some facts mentioned by Dr. Jenner, which materially retarded the progress of vaccination, and has established others of considerable importance. With regard to the former, there is not yet that degree of decision which is necessary to support such a claim; and the principal one among the latter, that of the safety of inoculating children, is admitted by the author to have been once observed by Dr. Jenner himself. Whatever effect the facts may have had, which are stated by Dr. Pearson, as having been likely to retard the progress of vaccine inoculation at its commencement, it cannot be doubted that his own report, in which the frequent occurrence of eruptions and violent indisposition, is mentioned, could not but for a time, obscure the real nature of the disease, and render it in many instances doubtful, whether it was much to be preferred to the variolous. It was fortunately discovered, that those symptoms were not necessary to cow-pox, but, in the mean time, their effects were by no means favourable to its progress. On some of the objects of subordinate consequence, as the probable emolument which Dr. Jenner may have obtained by a concealment of his discovery, we are disposed to agree with the author in thinking, that it has been considerably over-rated by many of the witnesses; as the practice, if concealed, could hardly have become general, and would soon have been likely to be discovered. By a greater attention to his own immediate interest, Dr. Jenner might, however, have been much more likely to secure a handsome practice in London, than after a number of individuals had taken up the subject, and attracted public attention.

Dr. Pearson does not profess, in the

present publication, to have looked for a participation of reward with Dr. Jenner; he would have been contented if the importance of his exertions, and those of Dr. Woodville, had been simply acknowledged in the report which was presented to the house of commons, by the committee appointed to examine into Dr. Jenner's claims. But any acknowledgment of this kind, it appears to us, would have been misplaced. If Dr. Pearson, or Dr. Woodville, conceive that they deserve a public testimony of respect and approbation, they are at liberty to bring forward their claims; but when a committee is appointed for a definite purpose, that of ascertaining whether the grounds of a petition are well or ill-founded, their business seems to be, to confine themselves strictly to the object in question. Should it have even happened, that the whole of the merit which Dr. Jenner conceived to be due to himself, was

really found to belong to another, it is doubtful how far it would have been the necessary duty of a committee, to have done more than merely state the general result of their enquiry into the merits of the case, and to report that he had not made good the objects of his petition, leaving the proper appropriation of the credit, to the result of an investigation instituted upon another claim.

We are far from thinking meanly of Dr. Pearson's character and abilities, and are happy to admit, that he has not only contributed very essentially to the progress of vaccine inoculation, but that without his exertions, and those of Dr. Woodville, the practice would not, in all likelihood, have been in its present state of advancement; at the same time, however, we must observe, that the present work is by no means written with the candour and liberality, which is likely to impress the world with a conviction of the justness of his cause.

**ART. XI.** *An Account of an Ophthalmia which appeared in the second Regiment of Argyleshire Fencibles, in the Months of February, March, and April, 1802, with some Observations on the Egyptian Ophthalmia.* By ARTHUR EDMONDSTON, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 33.

THE disease, of which we have here an account, began first to appear among the Argyleshire Fencibles, during their voyage to England in the Delft troop ship, a short time after they left Gibraltar. This vessel, we are informed, had been employed two months before in transporting from Egypt a part of the guards, who were affected in the course of their passage with fever and ophthalmia. Every prudent measure was taken at Gibraltar to purify it, previous to the embarkation of any troops; and at the time it sailed for England both officers and crew, with the exception of one of the lieutenants, who was at that time affected with ophthalmia, which had attacked him in Egypt, might be considered in a state of health. The bedding delivered out was new, but almost all the hammocks had been occupied by the detachment of guards above-mentioned during their voyage. From this circumstance, and from the apparent insufficiency of other causes, to account for the origin of this disease, the author was led to conclude, that it was capable of being propagated by contagion, and that those hammocks served as a fomes, from which, and from the presence of the

individual under the actual influence of the complaint, the soldiers of his regiment were affected. This conclusion may appear plausible, but we cannot admit its propriety on the grounds stated by the author; for it appears to us, that we are by no means entitled, from our ignorance merely of the remote causes of any morbid affection, to make a deduction which militates so strongly against the analogy of other complaints of a similar kind, as that does which we have just mentioned.

During a period of little more than two months, viz. from the 18th of February, to the 24th of April, 133 cases, most of them very severe ones, occurred; but, fortunately, the termination of the whole of them was favourable. The following interesting account of the phenomena of this disease, we give in the author's own words.

“The symptoms were few, and strongly marked, sudden in the invasion, and rapid in their progress, beginning generally at night or towards morning, without the slightest preceding uneasiness; often when the individuals were on duty, or engaged in amusement. The patient felt all at once, as if something was rolling over the ball of the



eye, which he in vain attempted to remove, attended with a troublesome sense of itching. This was immediately succeeded by a copious discharge of a watery fluid, so acrid as to scald those parts of the face over which it flowed; and which, from its quantity, so distended the eye-lids, particularly during the night-time, as not to admit of their being opened, but with the greatest difficulty. If the eye was now looked into, the whole tunica adnata appeared of a florid scarlet colour; and even at this early period of the disease, in a few instances, was interspersed with small circumscribed spots of extravasated blood. The eye-lids were of a deep red colour, and often so much swelled as to preclude the free examination of the eye. In the course of one day, frequently in the space of two hours, a discharge of a pus like matter took place; small elevations of a yellow colour began to appear on the opaque cornea, and the eye-lids were thickened and of a spongy texture; the pain was exquisitely acute, and the slightest admission of light always considerably increased it.

"In this way the disease went on with various duration; but generally about the morning of the third day the inflammation had attained its acmé, constituting what may be called the first stage of the disease. The keen acute pain now in a great measure subsided, while a sense of weight and heaviness succeeded, attended with a peculiar sensation of weakness, though not of pain, on any exposure to light. The watery effusion was diminished, but the purulent discharge was more copious, and became of a thicker consistence. The redness, swelling, tension, and pain, gradually became less, and in the course of eight or nine days from the first attack, the patient generally recovered; but a certain weakness of sight remained for some time afterwards.

"But when the disease passed the usual period of decline, and the inflammation went on increasing, the eye and its coverings were most deeply affected. Ulcerations took place from the surface of both eye-lids, and the tension and tumefaction were so great, as to keep the eye shut for several days; and when from the effect of emollient applications, the patient was enabled to separate the eye-lids, the latter appeared to be glued to the ball of the eye; and in this manner it appears those preternatural adhesions are formed, which frequently terminate in the loss of sight.

"Every symptom was uniformly aggravated towards evening, and remitted in the morning, forming a regular exacerbation.

"The system did not appear, from the feelings of the patient, in any instance to be primarily affected; and his first information of its existence, was the sensation of some-

thing like a foreign body in the eye. But when the attack occurred in the night-time, his sleep was disturbed; and head-ach, a white furred tongue, with occasional increase in the frequency of the pulse, were generally present from the commencement, and indicated a constitutional affection, too considerable, perhaps, at first to excite his attention. In the second stage, however, and when the inflammation was high, the head-ach and general irritability of the system were such, as to oblige the patient to confine himself to bed.

"Both eyes were seldom affected at the same time. The disease usually began in one eye, and after continuing a short time, passed to the other. In a few instances it was confined entirely to one eye; but this more frequently took place, when the inflammation had been pretty smart for a few days in the eye first affected: but if it suddenly ceased in one eye, it invariably attacked the other. In a few cases the eye-lids were the chief seat of the disease—when this was the case it was comparatively mild, and admitted of easy removal.

"The duration of the disease seemed in a great measure to depend on the nature of the inflammation. Whenever it was rapid in its progress, and the colour of the vessels florid, the cure was easily effected. But when it came on slowly, and proceeded in a gradual manner, which occurred chiefly in phlegmatic habits, the treatment was tedious and uncertain; and it was in cases of this kind, that ulceration of the eye-lids most usually occurred.

"Relapse was a frequent occurrence; and induced by the slightest irregularity. In these instances the former train of symptoms were renewed, but with diminished energy, and were of shorter duration. The succeeding debility was great, and the pain and irritability of the eye much increased."

In the early periods of the complaint, the author found most advantage from topical bleeding, together with the use of preparations of lead and zinc applied lukewarm; when the inflammation had subsided, he employed mercurial cathartics, blisters, and if the swelling of the eye continued, emollient poultices applied to them at bed-time. Though we have always made use of the word *ophthalmia*, in our account of this publication, we must observe, that the author himself invariably employs the term *ophthalmia*, which is perfectly improper, and is neither supported by usage nor derivation.

**ART. XII.** *An Historical Sketch of the important Controversy upon Apoplexy, &c.* By R. LANGSLOW, M. D. A. M. Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, and late Physician to the Lying-In Charity, London. 8vo. pp. 52.

THE principal part of the present tract, is, as the title-page intimates, a collection of some papers which have been long before the public; the notice that it therefore now claims, is a short one. A difference had occurred at the house of a patient, between the author, and Mr. Crowfoot, a respectable surgeon in the country, concerning a point of practice, and another of medical etiquette. On the subject of the latter, it appears to us, that Mr. Crowfoot carried his private animosity too far, in his wish to decline meeting the author on the subject of their patient, and that he ought to have readily acceded to the plan recommended by one, whom the usages of society acknowledged as his superior. The most material circumstances connected with this controversy, are the state of the encephalon in apoplexy, and the propriety of administering emetics in a recent attack of this complaint. The author is of opinion, that this disease always arises "from compression of the brain," and "in this case must be pro-

duced either by extravasation, exudation, or effusion; that the sickness, or nausea, accompanying it, are always symptomatic; and that as the act of vomiting tended to force the blood more violently into the head, or impeded its return from thence, it would, of course, rather increase than diminish the cause of the disease." Mr. Crowfoot, on the other hand, adopts the opinion of Dr. Fothergill, that apoplexy is often symptomatic of the state of the stomach, and that in such cases, emetics are to be regarded as essentially useful. Such an one he considered that which gave rise to the present discussion. Upon the whole, we are inclined to take that side of the question which is espoused by the author; but we cannot forbear observing, before we conclude this article, that neither of the combatants appear to us to have conducted their controversy in that dignified manner, which is at once creditable to the profession, and favourable to the discovery of truth.

**ART. XIII.** *Histoire Médicale de l'Armée de l'Orient. Par le Médecin en Chef* R. DESGENETTES.

*Medical History of the (French) Army of the East.* By R. DESGENETTES, first Physician to the Army.

MUCH of the local importance so lately attached to Egypt is now lost; the haughty and impetuous Mameluke has resumed his empire over the patient and timid Copt; the banks of the Nile are no longer the bloody scenes of heroic contest between two European nations, rivals in arts and arms; but the memory of former exploits and sufferings, will long give an interest to the sands of the desert, and to the rocky shores of Syria.

The author of the work before us, accompanied the memorable expedition of his countrymen, from the first embarkation at Toulon, for the conquest of Egypt, to the final evacuation of that country after the capitulation of General Menou to the comrades of the brave Abercrombie. During this long and eventful period, he filled the highest official situation in the medical department; became daily and hourly familiar

with disease, pestilence, and all the sufferings which his gallant countrymen endured in their strenuous contest; followed the fortune of Bonaparte to the walls of Acre, the only spot in which she ever deserted him, daunted by British valour; and at last, was compelled to employ the most unceasing attention to the duties of his profession, in supporting an establishment destitute of most of the necessaries for the sick, and under the most disheartening prospects.

In these trying circumstances, Citizen Desgenettes appears to have shewn equal prudence and activity, and the history which he here relates, though unmethodized, and partly in the form of a journal, will not fail to give considerable interest to the medical reader.

The volume before us is divided into two nearly equal parts; the first containing the proper medical history of the campaign; the second composed of

separate memoirs on medical subjects, some of which have already appeared in the *Memoires sur l'Egypte*, as part of the transactions of the Institute at Cairo.

From the first part, which is the journal of Citizen Desgenettes, we shall briefly extract what may appear the most interesting.

The splendid hospital of La Valette in Malta, received the first wounded and sick of the expedition, and the author pays a tribute of respect to the administration of this establishment.

On landing at Alexandria, the troops suffered much from the stings of scorpions. In the general orders, it is recommended when the bite is severe, to use the volatile alkali, or even caustic to the part; but no serious consequences were ever found to ensue.

The army, on their march to Cairo, was much refreshed by the abundance of water melons which they met with on the banks of the river and canals. Many of them, however, on eating this fruit to excess, were attacked with profuse sweating, to which succeeded a state approaching to asphyxia, tremors in the limbs, and excessive debility. These symptoms were relieved by cordials.

The terrible scourge of the country, the plague, now began to shew itself, and to engage the attention both of the commander in chief, and of all the medical officers. The first alarm was given in the middle of July, 1798, by the sudden death of a Jew in Alexandria, on whose body was found a large bubo with ecchymosis in the axilla. About a fortnight after, two persons died with the same symptoms, at the house of a certain Campagnini, who was known in the town to be a dealer in cloaths, and to buy up those of persons dying of disease.

A similar event occurred about the same time at Damietta. A centinel of the victualling stores was suddenly attacked with fever, delirium, suffused and inflamed eyes, and excessive prostration of strength, followed by the appearance of a large ecchymosed bubo in the groin, inflammation of the scrotum and livid extremities. This case terminated fatally on the third day. The medical officers appear to have been very reluctant to admit that this was a case of genuine plague; but in about ten weeks afterwards, these accidents became so frequent as to require prompt

and vigorous measures of quarantine to prevent the spreading of the infection. It may be remarked, that the very great heats of the climate had apparently checked the infection during these ten weeks, after which the weather became cool and damp.

By the middle of December the plague had begun to make an alarming progress at Alexandria, in the naval hospital, so that it was resolved to burn all the cloaths and effects of the infected; which measure of precaution was complied with, notwithstanding the inconvenience which resulted from the loss of these necessaries. The returns from the naval hospital in this town, acknowledged fifteen deaths from this contagion, among whom were five health officers. However, the Mussulmans, Jews, and Christians, resident at Alexandria, did not appear to suffer from the disease.

During the whole of January, the plague increased at Alexandria; the deaths, of this distemper, in the hospitals, amounted to about thirty in a fortnight, and the quarantine regulations were made more strict, but many of the attendants fell a sacrifice to the infection.

The chief distempers in Cairo about this time, were diarrhoeas and dysenteries, which generally yielded to a light farinaceous diet with sumach seeds, and cinchona.

At Damietta, the second demi-brigade suffered the most severely from the plague, and the physicians had full opportunity of observing its progress in every degree of severity. They remark, that the contagion was highly virulent, only when proceeding from patients, who, from the very first hour of attack were, as it were, overwhelmed with the distemper in all its malignity: then nurses, medical attendants, and the most hardened to infection, were unable to resist its dreadful ravages; but in its milder form, the contagion was very limited, and could, in general, be avoided by tolerable precaution.

The author now departed with the commander in chief, on the memorable expedition into Syria. This was composed of 15,000 men, of whom 12,945 bore arms, and crossed the desert in several divisions, according as water and forage could be met with. The fortress of El Arish capitulated on the 21st of February, 1799. On the 25th,

the army, after crossing sixty leagues of desert, were gratified with the sight of the first village in Palestine, full of gardens and cultivated grounds. Gaza opened its gates on the 27th; the town is situated in a large valley, covered with forests of olive. The army made several establishments in this town, among which was a hospital, that soon became crowded.

On the 8th of March, Jaffa was taken by assault, and the whole garrison put to the sword: "One of those scenes of horror," as the author thinks proper to observe, "which are justified by the necessary and terrible laws of war." Another hospital was immediately established here, and almost as soon became filled with patients, whose disease, the medical superintendent, with trembling hesitation, was compelled to acknowledge to be the plague.

On the 12th, the commander in chief visited the hospitals of Jaffa, accompanied with the *etat-major*. This general went over every part of the houses, spoke to each soldier separately, and was employed for more than an hour and a half, in giving directions for the regulation of these establishments. In one very close and crowded chamber, he assisted in removing the frightful corpse of a soldier, whose cloaths were soiled by the bursting of a bubo.

"Having endeavoured," says the author, "to reconduct the general to the door, I was obliged to inform him that a longer stay in this place was more than needless. I have often, however, been blamed in the army for not having more strenuously opposed the long visit of the commander in chief, to such a place as this: they know him but little, who suppose that it is easy to make him change his resolution, or to deter him by the apprehension of danger.

"As the disease," continues the author, "was rapidly increasing before Jaffa, and carried off the sick on the fifth or sixth day, or sometimes sooner, I could not be insensible of the danger of our situation. However, I entertained hopes of amendment as the summer season was advancing; and, as our marches would lead us into countries where our encampments would be better, our provisions more salutary, and to greater abundance. I therefore took the resolution never to pronounce the word *plague*, knowing how strongly the terror of a name will operate on the human imagination."

On the 21st of March, the trenches were opened before Acre, and this memorable siege commenced.

We shall not follow our author through all the details of hospital regulations. Suffice it to say, that during the sixty days of this protracted siege, the virulence of the plague increased in proportion as every necessary for the sick became exhausted. Many of the medical attendants now fell sick, and most of them perished. Among these, the author feelingly laments the loss of two excellent young men, Citizen Bruant, physician, and Citizen Dewevre, surgeon; the former a student of Montpellier, the latter of Paris, both united by the strictest friendship, equal in zeal, activity, and professional knowledge. Towards the end of the siege, all the hospital nurses were either dead or sick. These were all outcasts of society, felons escaped from the jails and galleys of Genoa, Civita Vecchia, or Malta, who were led to this service of death in the hospitals, by the hope of a miserable plunder.

The author seems to have had his full share of the personal risk, besides the harassing anxiety of superintendence, and of seeing disease increase around him, without the means of checking its rapid advances. One fact deserves mention. Several of the convalescents were induced by rewards, to attend upon the sick and dying, and some of these caught the disease a second time; a fact which refutes the opinion of some writers, that the same person cannot be affected with plague twice in the same season.

It was here that the author, to remove some of the increasing apprehensions of the army, ventured on the dangerous experiment of inoculating himself with the matter of a plague-bubo, which he did in one of the hospitals, in his axilla and groin. He took no other precautions after this operation, than to wash his body with soap and water. For three weeks there remained slight inflamed spots at the punctured parts, but no ill consequences ensued. The author, however, does not attach much importance to this rash experiment, nor does it, in his mind, in the least degree invalidate the opinion of the highly contagious nature of the plague, of which he had but too many instances before his eyes.

Some of our readers may, perhaps, recollect, that one of our own physicians, Dr. Whyte, twice performed this ex-

periment on himself in Egypt; the first time with impunity, but the second proved fatal.

In the treatment of plague, great benefit was derived from sinapisms and blisters. Blisters applied on the second, third, or even the fourth day of the attack, were of wonderful service in exciting the constitution, and preventing those fatal lethargies and metastases to the brain, with which two thirds of the sick were attacked in the early stage of the disease. The young and plethoric were bled with apparent advantage. When the supply of cantharides was exhausted, the author adopted, with great success, the plan of raising vesications, by letting fall on the part a few drops of boiling water.

On the 21st of May, the siege of Acre was raised, and the besieging army began their march back to Egypt. The hospital stations of Acre and Mount Carmel were evacuated with great regularity, as the author testifies; only from the latter, some unfortunate wretches, (dreading, no doubt, the vengeance of the Turks) in too great haste to join the main body of the army, fell from the precipices of the mountains during the night, and were dashed to pieces.

The retreating army retraced its former steps to Jaffa and Gaza, and proceeding along the coast, arrived on the 9th of June at Salehieh, the first frontier town of Egypt, on the borders of the lake Menzaleh. Immediately on their return, all the different corps were put under a strong quarantine at Salehieh, Belbeis, Cairo, and other stations.

The author adds some general observations concerning the plague, which we shall mention.

The effects of this contagion are not prevented by the presence of other disorders. No security is afforded by permanent discharges, such as setons or caustics, by cutaneous eruptions, itch, or herpes; by venereal sores, by recent wounds, or copious suppuration. Women, and infants at the breast, appear to resist the infection better than robust men. The buboes were generally in the groin, but sometimes also in the axilla. As many as four have been seen on the same individual. Anthracoses were not unfrequent, but had no determinate seat. The retrocession of the buboes, especially of the parotids, proved almost always fatal.

Other animals did not appear affected with the contagion. The camps were infested with troops of famished dogs, who devoured eagerly the cataplasms taken off from the buboes, the gangrenous sloughs from the carbuncles, and the corpses of those who died of the plague, without seeming to suffer any inconvenience; at least very few carcases of dogs were seen lying about.

The army lost by the plague, during the expedition to Syria, about seven hundred men.

Many of the wells of brackish water were full of small leeches, which, on drinking the water, attached themselves to the velum palati, and often caused considerable hæmorrhage. Sometimes a gargle of vinegar would make them quit their hold; at other times, it was necessary to pull them off with the forceps.

On the 23d of August, Gen. Bonaparte quitted the army, leaving the command to the highly respected, and much regretted Kleber.

From this period to the middle of the following year, (1800) during which time the treaty of El Arisch was made and broken, General Kleber appears to have paid great attention to the health of the army; and being now in better quarters, more inured to the climate, and more familiar with the symptoms and treatment of the plague, the ravages of this disease were considerably lessened, and its progress was more easily checked. On the 16th of June, this excellent general perished by the hands of a fanatical assassin, to the extreme grief of the whole army, to whom he was endeared by his valour, prudence, and unremitted devotedness to their welfare.

The following are the totals of the returns of deaths in the army, which the author gives, from the embarkation for Egypt in Toulon roads, which took place on and before the 20th of May, 1798, to the 22d of September, 1800, about three months after the death of Kleber, when General Menou had taken the command.

Killed in battle, - - -	8614
Died of their wounds, - - -	854
Killed by other accidents, - - -	290
Died of common distempers, - - -	2468
Died of the plague, - - -	1689

8915



It also appears from the lists that the medical officers, and all attached to the hospital department, suffered very severely from the plague. Of five physicians who perished, four died of the plague: of 49 surgeons, 36 of the plague: of 28 apothecaries, 24 of the plague: of 154 attendants on the hospital, 126 of the plague. Among the troops, however, if the author's returns are to be depended on, the mortality from this distemper was only two thirds of that from other diseases taken collectively.

Next to the plague, the dysentery seems to have been the most fatal.

Our limits will not allow us to notice the remainder of the author's journal, which is carried down to the capitulation of General Menou to the British army under General Hutchinson, and the author's return to France. We shall only remark, that the plague continued to carry off many of the French troops in all the different stations, who appear to have been now so much familiarized with it, as to call it by its proper name, and no longer to view it with so much dread and horror.

The second part of this volume is composed of memoirs, principally on medical subjects, of various merit, and written by different observers. These we shall briefly notice.

The first paper is a circular letter from Citizen Desgenettes to the physicians of the army, recommending to them a variety of objects of investigation, all relating to the medical statistics of the country.

The second paper is an account (under the modest title of *notice*) of the ophthalmia which then prevailed in the army, and of the actual mode of treatment. The author is Citizen Bruant, a young physician, who died of the plague in the Syrian expedition, whom Citizen Desgenettes laments in very feeling terms. As the disease was altogether new to the medical men of the army, all the accounts of its symptoms and progress are derived from actual observation, and for that reason are the more valuable. The cause of this formidable disorder, appears to be the union of a variety of local irritations, with circumstances of general debility. The men employed on duty in the advanced posts, night watching, and hot and fatiguing marches over the sands, were the most liable to

the disorder. One species also, the author thinks to be produced by sympathy, with bilious foulness of the stomach: and another appears the result of local debility rather than actual inflammation. The symptoms are described with great clearness. The treatment employed was chiefly the relieving of the different symptoms as they occurred, by means which are usually resorted to by the most experienced practitioners in common ophthalmia. Of these, blisters proved eminently useful.

The third paper is a slight account of the town of Menouf, in the Delta, and the occupations of the inhabitants.

The fourth paper, by Citizen Bruant, which is well written in every respect, is entitled "Observations on the diseases prevalent in the army in the year six, and particularly the dysentery." Next to the plague, the dysentery appears to have been the most fatal disease to the French army, and to have required all the attention of the medical attendants. In its symptoms, it resembled entirely the dysentery of hot climates, so often and so well described by various writers. Every kind of metastases gave a temporary relief to the disorder, the access of ophthalmia, in a remarkable degree. For the cure, the author employed ipecacuanha, with great success; at first as an emetic, and afterwards united with purgatives, to evacuate the bowels. Opiates were rarely of use, and generally produced much mischief, by suddenly checking the discharge from the bowels.

The fifth paper, by Desgenettes, relates to a subject which has excited some attention in the Levant, the supposed cure of the plague by oily frictions. This, as the author mentions, was first introduced in the lazaretto at Smyrna, on the recommendation of Mr. George Baldwin, British Consul General at Alexandria. The paper is merely an abstract of what had been already published on the subject, and it does not appear that any trial was made of this remedy in the French hospitals.

The sixth paper contains some observations on the manners, character, and constitution of the inhabitants of the province of Said, by Citizen Ceresole.

The eighth and ninth papers are short, but entertaining medico-statistical accounts of various parts of Egypt; the former, of Cairo, by Citizen Renati;

the latter, of Damietta, by Citizen Savaresi. In the first, the native inhabitants are thus portrayed.

"The Egyptian, wrapped up in his long blue, or black robe, his beard long, his head enveloped in a large turban, which is sometimes red, sometimes green, but generally white; has generally a noble and prepossessing aspect; his features are strong, his body muscular and well put together, his eyes black and lively, his teeth white, and his voice strong and sonorous; his appearance marks the inhabitant of a country which is healthy, but not free; in character he is fawning, subtle, false, and cowardly. The women have softer features, but without delicacy or expression; their body is supple and flexible, their arms and hands round and plump, their gait agreeable, but their breasts are loose and pendant, and they are very far from possessing the grace and attraction of European women."

A description of the Egyptian ophthalmia, with the supposed causes, and the mode of treatment, follows next. The author, Citizen Savaresi, published it in Italian, of which the present is a translation. Blindness, by the author's account, (and indeed by that of every other traveller) seems to be peculiarly prevalent in Egypt. The author attempts, not very satisfactorily, to shew that the dust of the clay and the chalk, of which the soil is largely composed, is the chief cause of this disease, and not

the supposed nitrous particles. The symptoms are not described sufficiently at length, to give a very clear picture of the disorder. The treatment appears judicious, and seems to have been tolerably successful.

To this succeed four short papers of *medical and physical topography*, as they are properly designated. Without making any material addition to our knowledge of the country, they make us more familiar with the manners and customs of the inhabitants, and some of the circumstances of their ordinary mode of life. One fact in natural history is mentioned, which, if authentic, is curious. The buffalo is a common domestic animal in Egypt, and the author of the paper asserts, that in the midst of a severe epizootic distemper, which carried off many cows and oxen, the buffaloes lived among them, and eat the same food, without receiving any infection.

The volume is concluded by meteorological observations, made at Alexandria and Cairo by Citizen Nouet; and by monthly bills of mortality (apparently drawn up with care and considerable accuracy) for the city of Cairo, during two years and nine months; a laudable attempt to restore the practices of judicious policy to a country, once the cradle of the arts, and the birth-place of European civilization.

**ART. XIV.** *Quincy's Lexicon Medicum. A new Medical Dictionary, containing an Explanation of the Terms in Anatomy, Physiology, Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, Chemistry, Pharmacy, Surgery, Midwifery, and the various Branches of Natural Philosophy connected with Medicine: To which is added, a Glossary of obsolete Terms, from Castelli, Blanchard, Quincy, James, &c. By ROBERT HOOPER, M.D. F. L. S. Assistant Physician to the St. Mary le Bone Infirmary, &c.*

THE reasons which induced Dr. Hooper to undertake the execution of the present work, will be best explained by the following account of its nature and objects, which we shall give in his own words.

"When Dr. Quincy published the first edition of his *Lexicon Medicum*, mathematical principles were generally adopted, to explain the actions of the animal frame: hence we find in his work a continual recurrence to them. Since his time, the functions of the animal economy, and the knowledge of anatomy, have received successive improvements, and the fashionable follies of mathematical explications have been reduced to their proper standard. To preserve the name which Dr. Quincy so deservedly obtained, and to render his work as useful as

possible, such alterations and amendments were made in every following edition as were suited to the doctrine of the times. It nevertheless has so happened, that his work, even in the thirteenth edition, contains very many of the absurdities of his day: The anatomical explanations are given in the language of the old schools; too often tedious, and abounding with every hypothesis: the physiology of the human body has been almost wholly overlooked; and all useful nosological descriptions omitted. Similar deficiencies and useless exuberances occur in every other department of the work; and the number of obsolete terms retained were very considerable. When, therefore, the editor of the present edition was solicited to undertake its revision, he thought he could not do a more acceptable office to the public, than almost wholly new model it. With

this view he has been careful to collect such information as may render the work generally useful. The whole of his *Compendious Medical Dictionary* has been introduced into this edition, and such deficiencies as occurred have been amended. Particular attention has been paid to the derivation of the terms; the anatomical description of the various parts, and the explanation of their functions, have been much enlarged; the diseases are considered according to the most approved nosological arrangement, and their symptoms and distinctions clearly enumerated: the *materia medica*, and the preparations which enter the London and Edinburgh Pharmacopœias, have been amply considered; the improvements of modern chemistry every where introduced, and the terms in surgery, midwifery, medical botany,

and other branches of natural philosophy, as far as connected with medical science, have been fully treated. In doing this, the author has consulted the most eminent writers on the different branches of medicine, and has made such extracts, abridgments, and translations, as the extent of the work would admit."

At the end is added "A Glossary of obsolete terms, selected from the works of Quincy, Blanchard, Castelli, Turton, &c."

In a work like the present, there is little room for analysis or remark; it has been executed with care, and will be found an useful companion to the medical student.

**ART. XV.** *Dissertations on White Swelling of the Joints, and the Doctrine of Inflammation.* By JOHN HERDMAN, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. pp. 279. 8vo.

IT appears, at first sight, of little importance in a practical point of view, to determine the question, whether a disease be, in the strictest sense, *hereditary*, or whether it is only the predisposition to disease which is transmitted from father to son.

It soon, however, becomes a question of some importance, when it is connected with the general plan of rearing the young of the human species, when methods may be suggested of counteracting constitutional taint, and preventing, by a system of physical education, the evils entailed on the tender infant.

Does debility of constitution act as an exciting cause of scrophula, and is it necessary to the production of this disease? The investigation of this question is the subject of the first essay in this volume. We shall not attempt an analysis of a controversy on predisposition, which has often been agitated, and on which no new light is thrown in the present instance. The author, however, soon forms the important conclusion, that mismanagement in infancy, want of proper food, and a number of other debilitating causes, render the constitution unable to resist the operation of the hereditary scrophulous taint, and thus the disease is formed.

If the author has failed in explaining, or rather has declined the attempt to explain, what the precise connexion is between indigested or scanty food, exposure to cold and wet, or other debilitating causes, and the formation of that

tendency to glandular obstruction which characterizes scrophula, he has, however, the concurring testimony of most modern observers in support of the predisposing causes which he brings forward.

In speaking of the general plan of cure, it will be readily supposed, that the author gives his most decided opposition to every thing that produces general debility, and impoverishes the system. Indeed this hostility to evacuation forms the most prominent feature throughout the work, of which the following passage will give an example.

"In the cure of the scrophula, as in the cure of most other diseases, random practice, and gross empiricism, have too much prevailed. What is to be expected from burnt sponge, and numerous other substances, equally, if not more insignificant, and as ludicrous in their use as the most absurd amulet, or the royal touch itself? Yet these are harmless in their nature and effects, when compared to those agents which impoverish and derange the body by powerful evacuation. This practice to the extent it has been carried, cannot be sufficiently reprobated. It is founded on no sure principle, on no knowledge hitherto obtained of the nature of the disease. The doctrines of the humoral pathology can only be supposed in its defence; the doctrines of acrimonies, viscidities, and lentor; of acids and alkalies, of obstructions in glands and minute vessels, of plethora, of no one knows what. Yet, according to these doctrines, the fluids were to be attenuated, cleansed, and purified; their gross humours were to be purged away; they were to be diminish-

ed in quantity; and all with severe and continued purgings, and other evacuations, along with a thin and watery diet. Thus were all obstructions, and all swellings of glands, and every morbid condition, whether of the solids or fluids, to be removed.

"All this, at first sight, might seem plausible, easily conceived, and convenient to explain the nature and cause of scrophula. It is easy to reason thus: The fluids are gross and viscid, and loaded with humours; they are unfit to pass through glands or other minute vessels; obstructions and congestions must therefore take place, and swellings of glands, and tumors of various kinds. But in this reasoning, the morbid state of the vessels themselves is entirely neglected, and the real morbid condition of the fluids is not explained; yet we are learned a most decided and active practice. The fluids are to be cleared of their humours; these humours are to flow towards, and are to be selected, and separated, and poured out, by the exhalents of the bowels, and then discharged by severe and continued purging. Yet till this moment there is no one decided proof that such humours exist.

"But it is indisputable, that purging day by day, as has been the practice, or even keeping the bowels gently open, as it is termed, must impoverish and debilitate the most vigorous and healthful body. What else can be the effect of constant disease and commotion in the stomach and bowels? of the food being carried from the stomach through the intestines, without digestion, or the due preparation of chyle? This constant purging, or opening of bowels, must soon destroy the powers, not only of digestion, but also of absorption: the whole body must suffer poverty of fluids and debility of solids; universal disease must soon prevail. This must be the fate of the most healthful body. But what of that body already diseased, loaded with predisposition, and over this the effects of certain deranging and debilitating powers; its actions languid, and its functions imperfect; no general phenomena of health, but many of disease—is this a body to suffer evacuations?"

We cannot pretend to say what kind of practice the author is accustomed to see in this complaint, or what stress may be laid on the old opinions of acrimony, lentor, viscidit, and other hypothesis of the humoral pathology, but (in England at least) it certainly is not the prevailing custom to attempt the cure of scrophula, where this disease is decidedly marked, by a general evacuating, and antiphlogistic plan. The necessity of avoiding all debilitating causes, of allowing a nourishing diet, of air, exercise, occasional tonics, and every thing that

is included under the popular term of *bracing the system*, has long been acknowledged, and it is fighting the ghost of a departed prejudice, to combat with so much warmth the errors of the evacuating practice.

In the second dissertation the author examines the opinion of a *rheumatic white swelling*, so anxiously supported by Mr. Benjamin Bell, and the distinction which that eminent writer endeavours to draw between the rheumatic and the scrophulous species of this affection. The rheumatic swelling of the knee, Mr. Bell observes, begins in the ligaments of the joint, and other deep seated membranes, and is, for a considerable time, confined to these parts, not necessarily affecting the bones or cartilages, but attended with effusion of a glairy matter into the superincumbent cellular membrane. At last, however, when the ligaments are corroded by the acrid matter, the cartilages and bones partake of the disease, and then the general termination resembles that of *scrophulous white swelling*, that is to say, the whole joint becomes a confused mass of carious ill-suppurating disease, incurable by art, and generally requiring amputation.

Thus Mr. Bell's general idea of rheumatic white swelling, is a primary affection of the ligaments and membranes, whereas the scrophulous species begins with disease of the bones and cartilages. He also maintains his hypothesis by observations made on dissection, in which he is supported by the remarks of Dr. Cheston, of Gloucester.

It is the object of the second chapter of the present work, to refute Mr. Bell's opinion, and to shew, that in all Mr. Bell's cases, the disease was scrophulous, unconnected with rheumatism. We shall not give the author's criticism of Mr. Bell's arguments, but we must remark, that the alledged difference in the form and progress of white swelling arose from the actual observation, not only of Mr. Bell, but of several other accurate surgeons, and the hypothesis of a rheumatic species, at least, has the merit of ingenuity in attempting to give a reason for an authenticated fact. The author's objections would have had full as much weight if they had been urged in a less contemptuous manner. The practical inference which he draws, is the error of the antiphlo-

gistic plan in these supposed rheumatic affections.

A dissertation on the doctrine of inflammation succeeds; a doctrine involving the most interesting questions in physiology, and directly connected with, and regulating medical practice.

The chapter before us is confused, ill arranged, and full of repetitions; but the opinions of the Brunonian school are advanced with vigour, and defended with zeal. The jet of the argument is to prove, that white swelling is an inflammation of the most chronic kind, produced by a scrophulous, and therefore a debilitating diathesis; and, consequently, that the mode of cure should be invigorating and exciting, and that evacuations, local or general, are in every way hurtful.

In the following chapter, the method of cure in white swelling is particularly treated of; and here, for the first time, we meet with strictures on the actual practice followed by many eminent men, and sanctioned by their example. The topical evacuation of blood from an inflamed knee in the incipient state of white swelling by leeches or cupping, meets with the author's decided reprehension; the reason, of course, is the general debility, which evacuations must produce in a morbid habit, the very essence of whose disease is debility. Two cases are given in which leeches gave no relief. Now, although we are far from wishing to join the common, and we may say vulgar cant urged against hypothesis and theoretical reasoning, especially on medical subjects, yet we have a right to make the first appeal to fact; and if it should be found, that in diseases indisputably of general debility, but attended with local inflammation, topical evacuations do actually produce, in any instance, a decided benefit, the theory which condemns them exclusively, must fall to the ground. This we conceive to be the case in the present instance, and we should not hesitate to appeal to the experience of practitioners in general, for the great benefit derived in numerous cases from the prudent application of leeches in the first stage of scrophulous swelling of the knee joint.

The plan which the author lays down for the constitutional treatment during this terrible malady, is of the most tonic and stimulant kind, and his cautions concerning the abuse of laxatives is

highly judicious. The management of temperature, and the use of the warm and cold bath, have long made a part of the curative plan, in a variety of scrophulous affections. In this practice much confusion has been introduced, which the author attempts to "set to rights" by the absolute exclusion of the cold bath. Let us hear his reasoning.

"In the warm bath the temperature is raised above the healthful point, and in the cold it is reduced below it. The warm bath, therefore, is the increased, and the cold bath the diminished action of the same stimulus. In this manner temperature operates as opposite powers, with regard to the living body. The warm bath is an exciting, and the cold bath a directly debilitating power. It is impossible to understand the doctrine of the tonic power of cold; and the very language concerning cold bathing, if rightly understood, condemns it. The patient is told, that if he feels a warm glow on coming out of the bath, it will do him good; but if the glow does not immediately take place, if he remains cold and chilly, it will do him harm. The latter assertion is true, and the former false. If he remains cold and chilly, with other symptoms of debility, it is a positive proof that the bath does him harm; but because the glow takes place, it is no positive proof that it does him good. If his body be comparatively strong and vigorous, if he be not much debilitated, he can bear the abstraction of heat; on coming out of the bath, re-action, as it has been termed, immediately takes place; the lost heat is soon reproduced; and, on putting on his clothes, a genial glow is diffused over his whole body: but if he be considerably deranged or debilitated, with every function languid and feeble, by the abstraction or deficient action of heat, he is further debilitated; re-action does not take place; the lost heat is slowly reproduced; he remains, for a considerable period, cold and chilly, with many other symptoms of strongly marked debility. The glow, therefore, is no positive proof of good; it is only a proof that the body has suffered no harm.

"In this reasoning there can be no mistake; for it is indisputable, that the too great abstraction, or deficient action of heat, must prove hurtful: it must produce debility in any body, even the most healthful. Starvation, as to food, produces weakness; as certainly starvation, as to cold, does the same thing. How then is it possible to conceive or understand the tonic power of cold bathing?"

We do not give this as novel reasoning, but as it shews that the author is disposed to follow his opinions through



all lengths; and he must be aware, that the same hypothesis would cause an almost total exclusion of the cold bath from the *materia medica*, since it would apply with equal force to almost every case in which this powerful remedy is usually employed. The comparison between starvation as to food, and starvation as to cold, is absurd in this instance; the proper point of comparison would be a constant exposure to cold from climate, deficient clothing, and the like, in which nothing like re-action could be alleged, and there the comparison would be just.

The topical application recommended by the author, is heat, and he gives a very good case, from Le Dran, of the benefit of hot pumping and hot fomentations. Lest the reader may suppose this treatise to be entirely destitute of practical observation, we shall give our author's directions for hot fomentations.

"It is the heat of the water that we must regard as the great and only agent in the matter; it is the stimulant power of the heat on which its salutary influence depends. As a powerful stimulus it excites the diseased parts, and produces the most beneficial effects; and the more forcibly it is applied, the greater must these effects be. In short, the mode, the degree, and the time of its application, are points that deserve the most minute attention; and surely they may be much better managed than by 'falls of warm water on swellings of this nature.'

"With regard to the mode of its application, there is, perhaps, no one that ever has been, or ever will be employed, that can answer the purpose better than a decoction of chamomile flowers. They retain the heat for a considerable period; any joint of the body can be completely imbedded in them when the patient is lying in a horizontal posture; the joint can be laid in the most easy position without the injury of motion, and retained in that position for any length of time.

"As to the degree of its application, the flowers should be applied as hot as the patient's feeling will admit; they should be applied in considerable quantity; that they may the longer retain the heat; and when the feeling of heat is somewhat diminished, they should be replaced with others ready prepared, that the part may lose as little heat as possible in making the change.

"With respect to the length of time in which this degree of heat should be applied,

it does not seem easy to lay down any fixed rule. It might be inconvenient, or even, perhaps, improper, to continue it constantly, or both night and day: but, in the general, we would advise a strict and steady perseverance in the practice, till it would seem that it is either ineffectual, or that it is removing the disease; and if this should be its effect, it may be continued, though not, perhaps, to the same extent, till the cure is completed.

"It is not in the common trifling way of using fomentations, that we are to expect benefit in this obstinate and deep-seated disease of the joints; it is not by wringing flannel out of warm water, or any medicated decoction, and applied half an hour, or three quarters of an hour, twice or thrice a-day, that we can expect a cure, or even a palliation of the symptoms in any case of white swelling. It is by the strongest and most continued local application of heat, that the nature of the living body will admit; and thus applied, it bids fair to be a most powerful remedy."

The author concludes the work with observations on ankylosis, "the termination most devoutly to be wished in the last stage of white swelling." That it is better than a fatal termination, no one will for a moment question; that it is preferable to amputation, may, perhaps, be conceded to the author, if the confinement, pain, and risk to health, which must be incurred during even a very favourable anchylosing process, be not excessive; but the tendency of the author's remarks are to encourage this termination in all cases, to the almost entire exclusion of amputation. In this opinion we doubt whether it will be supported by the greater number of unbiassed medical observers, and to the concluding sentence, "who would not prefer a stiff joint, even though somewhat bent, to a wooden leg?" even a patient might answer, that a stiff joint for life, purchased at such a price, is scarcely the least evil.

Some inaccuracies of orthography and language occur, such as *empricism*, *albuminous*, *emollient*, we are *learned* a most decided practice, &c. and the whole is written in that style and manner which is peculiarly liable to give acrimony to dispute, and to involve scientific controversy in unpleasant personalities.

ART. XV. *Annals of Medicine for the Year 1801; exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy.* By ANDREW DUNCAN, Sen. M.D. and ANDREW DUNCAN, Jun. M.D. Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh. Vol. I. Lustrum 2d. pp 548.

AFTER the appearance of the twentieth volume of the Medical Commentaries, the editors determined to continue that valuable annual publication, under the title of *Annals of Medicine*, a name which it still bears. For the convenience of readers, they thought it advisable to divide it into lustra, each lustrum to contain five volumes, and to form a separate and complete work, with a general alphabetical table of contents annexed to it. The first lustrum was completed last year, and we are now presented with the first volume of the second. This is, as usual, divided into three parts; the first containing the analysis of books; the second, medical observations; and the third, medical news.

Several of the works mentioned in the first part will be found to occupy a place as distinct articles, in our review; such of them as are not noticed, have been published at too distant a period to come within our plan. There is one, however, of the latter description, of which we shall give a short abstract, from its being on a subject which has occasioned a good deal of controversy in the medical world. It contains an account of some experiments on the origin of cow-pox, made by Dr. John G. Loy.

These experiments were instituted with a view to determine whether Dr. Jenner's idea was well founded, when he attributed the appearance of cow-pox to the grease of horses' heels, accidentally carried to the udders of cows, by the hands of men servants employed as milkers. Little credit was given, by medical men, to this opinion, from the grease having failed, in a great number of instances, to excite cow-pox, in the experiments made by Dr. Woodville, Mr. Coleman, and others. Dr. Loy was, however, more successful, and, after many attempts, at last found a horse, from the limpid grease of whose heels he was able, by inoculation, to produce a cow-pox pustule on the teat of a cow, and on the arm of a child; the latter, he found, was capable of exciting the disease in other children, and of taking off the susceptibility of

small-pox influence. The horse from which this matter was taken had a considerable degree of general indisposition, and an eruption over the whole body, which circumstances led him to infer, that there are two kinds of grease, one of which is only a local, the other a constitutional affection.

We shall now proceed to give a short analysis of the medical observations of this volume, which consist of twenty-two articles.

"ART. 1.—Singular termination of a case of enteritis. By Dr. Thomas Sandon, physician, Chichester."

In this case there was a separation of a portion of small intestine, on the 15th day from that on which the symptoms first shewed themselves, and about the third from the period at which they begun to abate. The following were its appearances.

"Every where this discharged intestine was firm in its texture, and differed from its natural state only in being of a darker colour. The edges where the separation had taken place, were ragged and irregular, and, in some parts, to the length of an inch or two, were thickened into a whitish fleshy substance, of firm consistence. Within the intestine, and about the middle of that part of it which was entire, a seed of an orange was found, not at all adhering, but very liable to fix its point (which was longer and sharper than usual) into the inner coat of the intestine, so that it could not, in one direction, be pushed along the surface of that coat without great difficulty."

"ART. 2.—History of a fracture of the skull, with very considerable injury to the brain, terminating in complete recovery, without any operation. By Mr. John Good-sir, surgeon, Largo. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

The fracture was in the temporal bone, and was attended with the separation of a considerable portion of brain. The symptoms were in the highest degree unfavourable, but the patient, a child of five years of age, did well; and, in about three months, the wound was covered with a thin membranous skin, through which the pulsation of the brain was discernible.

"ART. 3.—Cases of chorea sancti viti, terminating successfully, under the use of zinc. By Mr. David Alexander, surgeon, Montrose. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

In the first case a blister was applied between the shoulders, the cold bath used every morning, and two grains of calx of zinc given twice a day, which were gradually increased to two scruples.

The second case yielded to a scruple in the day taken for a short time, which had been gradually increased from two grains.

The cure of the third is attributed to zinc and castor which, as zinc given by the mouth was rejected, were administered by way of injection every evening. It will be seen, however, from the formula adopted, that the author has overlooked the employment of opium; a remedy which possesses very considerable properties in spasmodic complaints, and was here given pretty largely.

"ART. 4.—A letter from Mr. R. W. Taylor, surgeon, London, to Dr. Duncan, giving an account of two cases of vaccina attended with eruptions"

These eruptions, which came on about the eleventh or twelfth day of the disease, and went off in a fortnight, "consisted of large red pimples, nearly as large as half a middling sized pea, rising above the surface of the skin, and hard to the touch. These pimples were perfectly distinct, and never shewed the least tendency to unite with each other, or become confluent, as it is termed, in the small pox. The cuticle, between the pimples, remained of its natural colour; nor could the author perceive the least redness beyond the base of the pimples.

"ART. 5.—Extract of a letter from Mr. John Livingston, surgeon of the Cirencester East Indianman, to Dr. George Kellie, lately physician to the British prisoners at Valenciennes: containing some observations on the benefit derived from compression by the tourniquet, in the removal of rheumatic pains."

The author's experience confirms the observations and experiments of Dr. Kellie on the same subject.

"ART. 6.—Observations on cow-pox, by Dr. Robert Hall, physician, St. Pancras, London. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

"ART. 7.—Extract of a letter from Dr. Hall to Dr. Duncan, senior: containing further observations on cow-pox."

The author presents us with no well ascertained facts, in the present communications. Some experiments recently made in his own family, "would seem to lead" to a supposition, that cow-pox may occur twice in the same person; and the result of some enquiries, he informs us, which were made with a view to ascertain whether this disease has ever been known to prevail in the southern parts of Scotland, has been "far from proving completely satisfactory." He adduces, indeed, the assurances of one man to the affirmation of this question; but they are supported by evidence much too imperfect, to deserve communicating; particularly when more decisive information could have readily been obtained on the subject.

"ART. 8.—Extract of a letter from Dr. John Rook, of Montpelier, Old Works, Jamaica, to the Hon. Fr. R. Brodbelt, of Spanish Town: Giving an account of the success of vaccine inoculation in some districts of Jamaica."

From this we learn, what, in our opinion, the editors might as well have informed us of, in the medical news, that not less than 4000 have undergone the disease in St. James's, Hanover, and Trelawny, and that the practice of vaccine inoculation is likely soon to become general over the whole island.

"ART. 9.—Account of the benefit derived from vaccine inoculation, in combating an affection of a very different nature, a singular disease of the right arm. By Mr. Robert Stevenson, surgeon, Gilmerton. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

This consisted in a pain beginning in the right fore arm, "and shooting up to the shoulder, and from that to the side of the head, as high as the angle of the jaw, from whence it goes down the right side." There was constantly both in the arm and side an intolerable sense of heat, although the arm was not hotter than any other part of the body. It was not much swelled, but was at times red, and every thing applied to it, though above its own temperature, excited the same sensation as the contact of a piece of ice. Various remedies were employed for the cure of this affection, without advantage: at last, the author was induced, from expecting some ad-

vantage by exciting an artificial fever on the body, to recommend vaccine inoculation, which was accordingly performed on the 16th of May: on the 8th of June she was pronounced perfectly cured. Some speculative opinions are added, on the supposed *modus operandi* of this practice adopted, which it is not necessary to notice.

"ART. 10.—Cases of vaccine disease. Communicated by Mr. Rankin, surgeon, Douglas, to Dr. Gillespie, physician, Edinburgh."

These cases merely tend to prove, what for a considerable time past has required no additional proof, that the cow-pox, when it takes effect, will prevent the occurrence of small-pox, but that when it fails, the susceptibility to that disease still remains.

"ART. 11.—Account of a deception with respect to vaccine inoculation, by Dr. John Forrest, physician, Stirling. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

This is a case of a spurious pustule being produced by inoculation, and of the regular appearances taking place on a second insertion of the vaccine virus.

"ART. 12.—History of a case of imperforated hymen, by Mr. Francis Keymer, of Henrietta-Street, Covent-Garden."

A similar case is mentioned by Dr. Denman, except that the author was misled with regard to the nature of the disease, from having been informed that the patient had twice menstruated.

"ART. 13.—Account of a case in which the anus was wanting, successfully cured. By Dr. Wm. Kennedy, physician, Inverness, and Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

A few cases of a similar kind are to be found in authors.

"ART. 14.—Account of diseases of the 88th regiment, during their passage to India, and at Bombay, from December 1798, till June 1800. By Mr. J. Macgrigor, surgeon. Communicated by Dr. Garthshore, of London."

The principal diseases which occurred to him were dysentery, and hepatitis. He is disposed to consider these two complaints as very much allied, not only from their in general yielding to the same remedies, (mercurials and nitric acid,) but from their both discovering, on dissection, enlargement of the liver.

"Of the two diseases," says he, "544 cases occurred during the year, and of these, forty, or nearly one-thirteenth, died. Of those that died, we inspected the bodies of twenty-two, and in sixteen of these we found the liver diseased."

"—— So large a proportion, as sixteen out of twenty-two cases of dysentery and hepatitis, taken together, having, on dissection, evident marks of diseased liver, the natural conclusion is, that dysentery is almost always connected with a disease of the liver, as a cause."

It is somewhat singular, that in this estimate, he does not distinguish the number of cases in which affections of the liver were found to exist in hepatitis alone.

In some cases of dysentery, ulcerations were found in the great intestines, and within the reach of injections. As an application to them, decoction of logwood with opium was found most effectual.

"ART. 15.—Observations on the use of the muriat of barytes, in scrophulous affections of the West-Indies; and in a singularly painful disease, arising from the bite of a negro. By Dr. Simon Armstrong, of the Island of St. Vincent. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

In one of the cases mentioned, an obstinate scrophulous affection in a negro-woman, was cured, in the space of five months, by the solution of this remedy, in the quantity of four drops given in water every morning and evening, and gradually increased to twenty. The other case, in which the good effects of this medicine were also evident, was, where extensive ulcerations in the axilla, and upon the clavicles and cranium, took place after the amputation of a finger, which had festered from the bite of a negro. This effect from the bite of negroes, the author states to be not unusual; and he attributes it to the application of a portion of the tartar incrustated upon their teeth, to the wound.

"ART. 16.—On the use of the cuprum ammoniacale, in the cure of epilepsy. Communicated in a letter from Dr. Wm. Batty, Physician in Genoa, to Dr. Duncan, junior."

The cuprum ammoniacale was given conjointly, with ext. of valerian. The author administered it to a pretty large extent, though the precise dose is not stated. He asserts that it seldom fails to produce a cure.

"ART. 17.—Observations on a case of zona; on the cow-pox; and on angina pectoris. By Dr. Olbers, physician, at Bremen. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, junior."

In the observation on cow-pox he remarks, that chronic eruptions, and glandular swellings, which almost always terminate in suppuration, have been often observed to follow it, by him and other physicians of the place. This is perfectly contrary to experience in this country.

"ART. 18.—Extract of a letter to Dr. Duncan, senior, from Mr. James Anderson, senior, surgeon, in Edinburgh, concerning the use of the mild muriat of quicksilver, in the cure of croup."

In this communication the author confirms his former experience of the good effects of calomel in croup, and says, that of seven cases, in which he employed it during the last two months, not one has died. In a patient of three years of age, he gave eighteen grains in the space of twenty-four hours, in doses of two or three grains every hour, according to the urgency of the symptoms.

"ART. 19.—Observations on a case of diabetes insipidus, with an account of some experiments on the urine. By Mr. Thomas Jarrold, from Essex, student of medicine at Edinburgh."

"In this case (of a female,) the urine, though without any sweet taste, was often found to amount to upwards of fifty pounds in the space of twenty-four hours, sometimes even to sixty, and one day to seventy-two pounds; and, from excessive thirst, she employed nearly an equal quantity of liquid by way of drink. After a trial of different remedies, her urine and drink were reduced to between ten and five pounds in the day, under the use of the powder of galls and lime-water, and she was dismissed from the hospital in good health about the middle of August."

From some experiments made upon the urine, the author is inclined to think that there was a quantity of mucilage contained in it.

"ART. 20.—Observations on bilious disorders. Extracted from a letter, dated from the river Ganges, in September 1770, written to a friend in London. By John Sherwen, M.D. formerly surgeon in the service of the Honourable East-India Company, now physician at Enfield. Communicated to Dr. Duncan, senior."

The author refers the bilious remitting, and continued fevers, the dysentery,

and the cholera morbus, all to the same occasional causes; and these causes he divides into three classes: viz. the effect of climates; irregularity in diet; and passions of the mind. On each of these heads he makes some useful and pertinent, but at this time not new, observations.

"ART. 21.—Letter from Dr. Paisley, of Madras, on the bilious disorders of that climate. Written in 1771. Communicated to Dr. C. Smith, of London."

"In general," says the author, "I will venture to affirm, that, in this country, the grand source of health and disease, is centred in the natural or diseased condition of the liver, and that every chronic and lingering illness arises, in a considerable degree, from some defect there. In many acute disorders, it has also its share; but, in every kind of sickness, whether local or general, that is peculiar to this country, it is material to examine it; for no perfect cures can be made, nor relapses prevented, without having a strict eye to it."

These observations he applies to fluxes, which he thinks are, for the most part, attended with obstructions either in the liver or mesentery. His practical remarks are made on the history of a particular case, which came under his own management. He first emptied the bowels, then gave mercurials, and after the symptoms had abated "gentle bitters of the least astringent kind." He dissuades from the use of opiates in fluxes, and is of opinion, that coughs and agues often originate from obstructions in the liver, and are, therefore, to be cured in the same way.

"ART. 22.—Letter from Mr. Young, relating to his own case, in which an enlarged spleen was cured by the application of an actual cautery."

The application of the actual cautery is very common among the natives of Bengal in many other complaints besides this, such as obstinate head-aches, hydrocele, and even confirmed ascites. In the present instance it was performed by a Bengaley in the following manner:

"He took out," says the author, "a kind of lancet, such as the people of the country pare their nails with, and, pinching up the skin over the spleen, gave it several slices; and then applying the horn to the scarification, drew, by suction, about a wine-glass of blood, in the nature of cupping. When it would no longer flow, he next applied common oil to the parts where he intended to apply his irons: they were heated to a red



heat: he first took out the one of a hook-like shape, which he applied to the left side, over the body of the spleen, in three places, holding it on a few seconds each time. He next took out a round-headed one, and burnt me in like manner, first in the centre of the angle made by the former; then a few inches above the first; next on the pit of the stomach; and lastly, on the right side, over the region of the liver.

"The operation was made on my well day. He also gave me a lixivium made of some sort of ashes, to take daily, which I found so excessively nauseous, that after swallowing one dose, I would take no more. I expected my ague fit the next day, but happily it did not recur, and came no more. The whole region of the stomach and abdomen became exceedingly sore and inflamed; nor could I move without turning my whole body for several days. The glands of my groin and axilla on the left side likewise grew sore, inflamed and hard, which extended up the neck, and down the muscles of the thigh and leg, to my ankle. This gradually subsided, and the sores, from the cauterizing, dried up, and healed without

any application whatever, nor was there any suppuration or discharge worth mentioning."

In less than six weeks the author's health was completely restored.

Having finished our account of the original communications of this volume, we now come to the section of medical news, with which it is, as usual, concluded.

The most important of those articles have been long before the world in other publications, and as the remainder are not of a kind to arrest the general attention of readers, we do not think it necessary to notice them.

We cannot close our account of this volume without noticing the very great dearth of original, and valuable communications, which appears in it. To this circumstance we attribute the insertions among the medical observations, of many papers not sufficiently new or important to merit a place as separate articles.

**ART. XVII.** *The Edinburgh School of Medicine; containing the preliminary or fundamental Branches of Professional Education; viz. Anatomy, Medical Chemistry, and Botany. Intended as an Introduction to the Chemical Guide. The whole forming a complete System of Medical Education, and Practice, according to the Arrangement of the Edinburgh School. By WILLIAM NISBITT, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. 4 vol. 8vo.*

WORKS like the present are of use in assisting the inquiries of the tyro in medicine; but they are apt to mislead when depended upon too much for the accuracy, or the extent of their information. The one before us appears to be too prolix for a compendium, and scarcely comprehensive enough to merit the title of forming, with a prior publication of the author, to which it is intended as an introduction, a complete system of medical education and practice. The author deserves credit, however, for the pains which he has taken in his selections from the ablest modern writers, on the various subjects which come under his view; and his work will, therefore, be found to contain a great variety of useful matter, and to present a general idea of the present state of the sciences introductory to the practice of medicine.

The two first volumes are occupied with anatomy and physiology; into them the author introduces the chemical analysis of the secretions, the art of making anatomical preparations, and a

general view of morbid anatomy, principally abridged from Dr. Baillie's work. In his wish to reduce the terms of anatomy to an English form, the author has been induced to deviate in a manner somewhat ridiculous from the usual language of the science. As instances of this, we remark the substitution of the grotesque names of sacred bone, nameless bone, boat-like bone, and pea-shaped bone; for the well-known, and universally admitted appellations, os sacrum, os innominatum, os naviculare, and os pisiforme.

The third volume contains the principles of medical chemistry and pharmacy, according to the arrangement of the late Dr. Black, with the modern additions made to them, and the pharmaceutical preparations of the London and Edinburgh Colleges annexed.

The fourth and last volume gives a general account of the physiology and arrangement of plants, particularly such as are used in medicine.

ART. XVIII. *A Treatise on the Means of purifying infected Air, of preventing Contagion, and arresting its Progress.* By L. B. GUYTON-MORVEAU, Member of the National Institute of France, &c. Translated from the French by R. HALL, M. D. 8vo. pp. 248.

NO pains are requisite on our part to call the attention of our readers to the highly-important subject of preventing the contagion of malignant distempers; it has of late engaged the most ardent and zealous enquiry in this kingdom, and we have every reason to expect that the most flattering success will be the fruit of these laudable endeavours.

The work before us is a very valuable document relating to the use of acid vapours in purifying infectious air, and it also contains the account of several experiments, together with many observations which tend to throw light on the subject of contagion. We, therefore, think it proper, both from the high reputation of the author, and the importance of the subject, to consider its contents somewhat in detail.

The following statement we may venture to give, as an impartial history of the employment of the vapours of the mineral acids to purify foul and infected air; and those who feel an interest in rendering due praise and honour to the discoverer of useful inventions, will attach some importance to such a history.

The practice of *fumigation*, in order to correct the foulness of putrid or infected air, may be traced to the very earliest records of physis, and, as in many other instances, the precise mode adopted by the ancients was long followed with scrupulous exactness, whilst it continued to be the fashion to bear implicit reverence for every thing that carried the authority of a Greek or Arabian physician. Hence, the aromatic gums, balsams, resins, and woods, have constantly been burned for the purpose of destroying pestilential air by their fragrant smoke. The vapours of certain acids also have long been highly commended, the acid fume of burning wood, and especially of heated vinegar, have been distinguished by peculiar commendation, and when the pungent acetous acid, or radical vinegar, was discovered, one of its earliest uses, under one form or other, was as a corrective of contagion.

The first notice which we have of the employment of the mineral acids, is in

a treatise published by the late Dr. James Johnstone, of Worcester, in the year 1758, who employed with success the vapour of the muriatic acid to correct the contagion of a very malignant typhus fever, which prevailed at Kidderminster at that period. It was the fate of this, however, as of many other useful discoveries, to be only partially noticed, and the experiment, probably, would not have been pursued, if it had not been taken up anew in a different quarter.

This leads us to the narrative contained in the work before us. In the year 1773, the sepulchral vaults of the principal church of Dijon were so completely filled with bodies recently buried, that it became necessary to remove them. During this process, the air of the place became so insupportably infected, that it was found necessary to shut up the church. A great variety of fumigations had been employed without any material advantage, and a contagious fever began to appear in the neighbourhood. The author of this treatise, M. Morveau, who had before been eminently distinguished as an excellent chemist, was then consulted, and he recommended fumigation with muriatic acid vapour. To this he was led, as he himself observes, (and there is not the smallest reason to doubt the assertion) by the strong affinity which the muriatic acid gas was known to have for ammoniacal vapour, and by the very extensive diffusibility of this aeriform acid, on the one hand; and on the other, by the well ascertained fact of the production of the volatile alkali in the process of putrefaction. This ingenious suggestion was immediately put in practice, the acid vapour disengaged from common salt by means of vitriolic acid, was diffused over the whole infected atmosphere, and this remedy proved so effectual that on the next day no vestige of the putrid odour was perceptible. An account of this interesting discovery was published in the *Journal de Physique* for that year, vol. i. p. 196. Towards the end of the very same year a violent jail fever made great ravages in the prisons of Dijon, and the acid

fumigation was again resorted to with the most complete success. An account of this was published by M. Maret, in the *Journal de Physique* for 1774.

Would it be supposed that a discovery, sanctioned by the event of two such striking experiments, should again fall into neglect?

Such, however, was the case, for from this time to the year 1795, no fair trial of acid fumigation appears to have been made in any part of Europe. However, the memory of the two above-mentioned experiments at Dijon was not forgotten, for in 1780 the French academy of sciences having been consulted on the best means of correcting the insalubrity of prisons, very warmly recommended the muriatic fumigation as employed by M. de Morveau; and again, in 1794, the same recommendation, together with full instructions, was repeated by a public board of health at Paris.

In 1795, the public attention was called to an experiment of acid fumigation, performed at Sheerness, on the suggestion of Dr. Carmichael Smyth, by Mr. Menzies, in the Russian hospital ship lying at that harbour, to destroy the contagion of a very alarming fever, which prevailed on board the fleet of our allies. The acid employed in this instance was the *nitrous*, the method of fumigation was perfectly simple, being very exactly the same as in the above-mentioned experiments at Dijon, only substituting nitre for common salt; and, as our readers may probably recollect, the success attending this, and other subsequent trials, was so striking, as to induce the British parliament to bestow a very liberal remuneration on Dr. Smyth, as the discoverer of this excellent process for destroying contagious effluvia.

The year 1800 was calamitously distinguished in several parts of the south of Europe by a highly malignant fever. It appeared particularly in Genoa, and in the province of Andalusia in Spain, and raged with such violence at Cadiz during its blockade by the British fleet, as almost to threaten to depopulate the town. Common fumigations were used abundantly here, but with little success, and the disease seems to have run its course almost unchecked. At Seville, however, where the fever was rapidly spreading, the *nitrous* and *muriatic* fumi-

gations were at last employed, and the success appeared to correspond with the expectations that had been formed.

So much for the history of this discovery: let us now proceed to the work before us.

The third part of this treatise, at which the narrative ends, begins with a series of experiments on the effect of various re-agents on air, *in which meat has long remained in a state of putrefaction*. We may observe by the way, that the author almost assumes it as a certain position, that the simple putrefaction of animal matter is the immediate cause of contagious fever. This is far from being proved, but the progress of putrefaction is, however, not the less interesting to the chemist. The substance of the author's experiments is the following:

Lime-water becomes instantly turbid in this vitiated air, shewing that much carbonic acid is generated by the putrefaction of animal flesh. The fetid smell is unaltered by the lime-water. The solutions of silver, mercury, and lead, become instantly turbid and dark-coloured, with an iridescent pellicle. The vegetable colours usually employed as tests of acid and alkali, indicate *no ammonia* in the putrid gas; but the water, over which it has stood, is sensibly impregnated with this alkali.—Those metallic solutions, and metallic oxyds, which are the most sensibly affected, and altered by the sulphurets and hydro-sulphures, experience no material change in the putrid gas. Notwithstanding the extreme putridity of the air, the common eudiometrical tests shew no greater loss of oxygen than 3.4 in 100, so that the gas still retains about 18 per cent. of oxygen—a very important fact to be observed in attempting to explain what is meant by *vitiation* of air, by means of putrescent matters!

The above experiments appear only to approximate to accuracy. The author very properly lays the chief stress on the following circumstances: First, that much carbonic acid is generated by animal putrefaction; secondly, that the removal of this acid gas by means of lime, does not correct the fœtor of the remainder, and hence a practical inference may be drawn on the degree of confidence to be placed in the common practice of slacking lime, white-washing, &c.: thirdly, that the cause of the change produced on metallic

solutions by this air, which is an approach to a reduction of the metal, cannot well be explained without further enquiry.

Next follows an interesting series of experiments on the effect produced on known quantities of putrid air, by burning in it a variety of substances, such as are usually employed in fumigations. The chief effect attended to, was to ascertain the intensity of the putrid smell after the operation. Benzoin, myrrh, styrax, and the other aromatics, partly concealed the putrid smell, by mixing with it their own fragrant scent. The author remarks, that the putrid smell is *modified*, but not destroyed by these processes: this however is mere gratuitous assumption, for, without placing much confidence on the aromatics as effectual fumigators, we may observe, that if the degree of putrid odour alone is to be the test of insalubrity, it will be difficult to point out a decided difference between *masking* and *correcting* fetor. Vinegar and the weaker acids partly destroyed the putrid odour: gunpowder successively exploded in it, did indeed remove the smell, but obviously by generating a new gas which displaced that which was the subject of experiment.

The mineral acids next engaged the author's attention, and their wonderful energy in destroying the putrid odour was immediately shewn in the most convincing manner. The vapour of burning sulphur, the liquid sulphuric acid, the nitric, the muriatic, and the oxy-muriatic acids all exerted a most striking corrective power. The author very properly observes, in another place, that the difficulty of comparing the force of concentration in the respective gaseous acids renders it impossible to institute any very exact comparison between these agents, but it appears to be probable that the muriatic and the oxy-muriatic acids stand the highest on the list of correctives of putridity, bulk for bulk, especially as their diffusibility is so great. We may add, that in the experiments on the acids, the change of colour in the solutions of lead and silver by the putrid gas, was carefully noticed.

The author takes considerable pains to ascertain the truth of an assertion, of Mr. Keir of Birmingham, given in a letter to Dr. Symth. As a mere chemical enquiry, the subject is certainly curious, but it does not appear to us, to

bear much upon the question of the anti-contagious power of this acid.

"I consider Dr. Carmichael Smyth's discovery to be very valuable. The fumes, in his process, are quite different from the ordinary nitrous vapour in the distillation of aqua fortis, or from that which exhales in the solution of metals by nitrous acid; the latter is highly suffocating and noxious, and may be called the phlogisticated nitrous acid vapour. The fumes made in Dr. Smyth's manner, if there is no metal employed in the vessel, &c. is highly dephlogisticated or oxygenated nitrous vapour, and is also mixed with a large quantity of pure dephlogisticated air, which is extricated from the materials; and these fumes are not only not suffocating, but have a very pleasant smell. If the distinction is not made between these two kinds of vapour, it is to be feared that some person, by accident, or in expectation of getting the nitrous vapour more expeditiously, may use metal vessels or dissolve metals in nitrous acid."

The caution here given to avoid confounding the red or smoking nitrous vapour, with the colourless acid (or phlogisticated nitrous vapour as it is here termed) is highly judicious, and should be most carefully attended to; but it is the assertion, that "a large quantity of pure dephlogisticated air is extricated from the material," which is directly denied by M. de Morveau. To prove its truth, the author of this treatise, made the experiment of mixing sulphuric acid repeatedly with pure nitre, under a glass bell, and after the vapours were condensed, the contained air was submitted to eudiometrical experiments; when, instead of an increase in its oxygenous part (which would have been the case if the nitrous vapour had been mixed with this substance) a diminution of about 2.6 per cent was indicated. We are disposed to believe that this is the real fact, and that in the distillation of nitric acid from pure nitre and pure sulphuric acid, no production of uncombined oxygen gas takes place till the latter end of the process, at which time, however pure the ingredients may have been, the acid which comes over is fuming and high coloured, and the vessels full of a red incoercible nitrous vapour. Whether this be the effect of light, or of the great increase of heat which is found necessary, still remains to be determined.

Thus far we have followed our author with much satisfaction, we ac-

knowledge with pleasure, the gratitude due to him as a public benefactor in discovering a most active and admirable preventative of some of the most dreadful calamities to which the human race is exposed, and in undertaking with ardour experiments of the most repulsive nature. But we are sorry to perceive, that in pursuing the subject into the difficult speculations on the nature of contagion, we entirely lose sight of the accurate and acute experimentalist, and find nothing but the most shallow, unconnected, and inconclusive reasoning.

A person who attends to the ever-varying progress of theoretical reasoning on subjects connected with medicine and physiology, must be convinced that it is peculiarly the fashion of the present day to explain by the aid of chemistry, all the processes of the animal economy. Nor is this to be wondered at, since it is unquestionable, that this science has received more elucidation during the last twenty years, than any other which has occupied the human mind. But in so doing have they not been carried much beyond the bounds of good sense and sound philosophy? We think that they have, and that this remark applies peculiarly, though not exclusively, to the countrymen of the illustrious Lavoisier. A striking example of the misapplication of chemical reasoning appears to us, to be afforded by the extravagant assumptions with regard to the medicinal power of oxygen. As a chemical agent, the properties of this substance are found to be most extensive and various; but how little is known with regard to its action on the living body? It seems to be the opinion of some, that wherever this substance can be detected in the composition of a medicine, the operation upon the animal is to be ascribed *solely* to its action; hence its supposed antisyphilitic virtue, because *when united with mercury*, it affords a cure for this disease: hence the fanciful scale of activity in mercurials, from the less to the more oxygenated preparations; hence the absurd idea, that an ointment composed of nitrous acid, mercury and animal fat, is the same in virtue when the metallic ingredient is omitted; and that this again is

the same as oxygenated fat, (*pommade oxygénée*); besides many other instances of the same kind, which we could bring forward.

From what we have said, the reader will be prepared to expect, from the author of this treatise, an explanation of the purifying powers of acids, by the sole operation of the oxygenous principle. We shall not, however, attempt an abstract of a train of as inconclusive reasoning as ever was built on a scanty foundation of fact. It is curious enough, however, to observe, that in this explanation of the action of acid vapours, the author builds every thing on the supposed operation of the *oxygenated marine acid*, because it better suits his purpose of oxygenation; forgetting the sulphureous, the nitric, and even his own muriatic acid vapour.

The volume concludes with a summary description of the actual processes of fumigation with the muriatic and the oxymuriatic gasses, and the proportions of ingredients for preparing the latter are given somewhat different from those recommended by Mr. Cruikshank. They are: common salt, ten parts; manganese, two parts; water, four parts; and sulphuric acid, six parts. The salt and the manganese are to be rubbed together for some time, then put into a wide glass or stone-ware vessel; the water added to them, and afterwards the sulphuric acid all at once, if the room to be fumigated is uninhabited, if otherwise, the acid must be added in two or three times, on account of the very suffocating nature of these acid vapours, against which sufficient caution is not given by the author.

The translation is executed with fidelity and care. A few misnomers occur, such as metallic *lime*, instead of metallic calx (*chaux métallique*); *crystal* instead of glass; the *Bibliotheca Britannica*, instead of the *Bibliothèque Britannique*, a periodical journal, published by the learned professor Prevost of Geneva, devoted exclusively to giving an abstract of British literature, which, from its extensive circulation in France, has contributed, perhaps, more than any other publication, to give a just idea on the continent of the value of the philosophic labours of our countrymen.



**ART. XIX.** *An Enquiry into the Efficacy of Oxygen in the Cure of Syphilis. To which are subjoined, a few general Observations on its Application in various other Disorders.* By CHARLES PLATT, Surgeon to the New Finsbury Dispensary, and Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. 8vo. pp. 99.

THOUGH we possess in mercury, a remedy of the first importance in the cure of many diseases, yet it has always been an object of considerable solicitude to discover one which should be equally efficacious, and at the same time, less inimical to the constitution. At no period in the history of medical science did there seem to be a more well founded probability of having obtained such a desideratum, than when the nitrous acid was first brought forward; and at no period was there more disposition shewn to investigate its claims with candour, and to determine, by accurate observation, the nature and degree of its pretensions. After a full and patient examination, it has, however, been found to deserve the character only of an auxiliary, which might be usefully employed to co-operate with, but could not supply the place of the medicine to which it was intended as a substitute.

Such was the general opinion, not only with regard to the nitrous but also the other acids and their combinations, previous to the appearance of the present enquiry; in his examination, therefore, of the use of those remedies in

syphilis, the author has done nothing more than confirm results already established, and multiply evidence previously considered satisfactory. Except therefore that his work was unnecessary, which is as small a portion of blame as falls to the lot of a great number of the productions of the present day, we must do the author the justice to say, that upon the whole, it seems to be a candid and judicious performance.

As a subordinate part of his subject, he gives a summary of the arguments on each side of the much agitated question, on the identity of the matter of gonorrhœa and syphilis, and concludes with Mr. Hunter, that they are essentially the same, and that the different appearances of the two diseases are only produced by the different constitution of the part affected, in the one case and in the other. The latter part of his work is occupied in giving a slight sketch of the history of pneumatic pathology, in which he very properly reprehends that fondness for innovation and hypothesis, for which some late authors have so eminently distinguished themselves.

**ART. XX.** *Observations on Pulmonary Consumption; or, an Essay on the Lichen Islandicus, considered both as an Aliment and a Medicine in that Disorder.* By J. B. REGNAULT, M. D. late Physician to the Military Hospital and Forces of France. 8vo. pp. 82.

AFTER the disappointments which have been so often experienced on the effect of remedies, represented to possess peculiar efficacy against very formidable and obstinate diseases, it is not extraordinary that we should feel some hesitation in giving full credit to the powers ascribed by the author, to the Lichen Islandicus. It appears to be an agreeable and nutritious article of food, well adapted to support the debilitated frame, but whether its virtues extend much farther, seems to us extremely doubtful.

The lichen islandicus, or eringo leaved lichen, is found in this country, as well as in many other parts of Europe; but the author considers that of Iceland superior to what is obtained

elsewhere. He cites a great number of authorities for its efficacy in various diseases, and informs us, that he has employed it for several years in consumption with uniform success. It may be given in the form of powder, decoction, or infusion; but he prefers that of a jelly, prepared by boiling six ounces of the lichen in six pounds of water, to one pound, and afterward sweetened by the addition of six ounces of sugar. He also particularly recommends it conjoined with chocolate. The following contains a summary of the author's observations on the virtues of this medicine, which will serve as a specimen of his pathological reasoning on which we think it unnecessary to make any remarks.

"Every one knows how much mucilaginous substances are employed in affections of the breast; these substances lubricate the membranes and parietes of the viscera, and coats of the vessels, allay the spasm and irritation; alleviate the inflammation and pain; envelope and destroy the acrimony of the fluids; soften their pungency, and blunt the activity of the acrid juices of the primæ viæ. But as the nature of this malady requires long perseverance in the regimen, the continued use of mucilaginous substances is in general productive of great inconveniences; for, though they sit easy enough on the stomach, through their insipidity, they weaken and diminish the tone of this viscus, injure the appetite, retard or impede digestion; poured into the blood in too great a quantity by the lactals, they take from this fluid its active stimulant properties, and insensibly diminish the energy necessary for the re-establishment of health. But if the lichen islandicus possesses mucilaginous properties, it brings with it a corrective of their inconveniences, it improves the tone of the fibres, it strengthens and sharpens the appetite, assists digestion, removes the nausea, corrects the acrescence of the humours in the primæ viæ, resists the spontaneous production of acidities, and arrests the putrescent tendency of the fluids in general. A sovereign remedy is furnished by the lichen islandicus, when the hæmoptysis arises from a scor-

butic diathesis, and even when signs of approaching dissolution are present, as oppression of the chest, flushed cheeks, dry cough, and generally a sinking of all the vital functions. This last circumstance fully justifies the free use of this valuable plant.

"When our object is to extinguish the hectic heat, to moderate the intestine motion of the blood, and prevent the return of the hæmoptysis and its consequences, the use of the lichen, both as diet and medicine, possesses virtues truly specific, which give it a decided superiority over asses' milk, and all other pectoral remedies."

Its good effects are also particularly conspicuous "in one of the most alarming symptoms of phthisis, the diarrhœa," and in correcting that acrimony of the fluids which occurs when the disorder is far advanced.

The author does not state the extent to which this medicine ought to be given, but intimates that it should be in pretty considerable quantity. He concludes his essay by the detail of twenty-one cases, in which the lichen was serviceable, and by some reflections on the inefficacy of various means hitherto employed in the cure of pulmonary consumption.

ART. XXI. *The Family Dispensary, comprehending explicit Directions for the Use of the several Articles contained in the Medicine Chest, with a Collection of the most approved medical Receipts, a Catalogue of Diseases and an Index of Remedies.* By RICHARD REECE, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, in London, &c. 8vo. pp. 110.

THE author, it appears, prepares for sale a variety of medicine chests; and the object of this little treatise, is to give a plain and summary account of the medicines contained in them, and the mode of using them. The selection seems, on the whole, to be very judicious, and it is but justice to the author to add, that the directions here given, are drawn up with care and accuracy; are perfectly intelligible to those who are likely to use them, and are entirely free from any affectation of mystery and empiricism.

The following information concerning a very fashionable article of diet for the sick chamber, or the nursery, may be acceptable.

"*Indian Arrow Root.*—Boiled in water or

milk, furnishes an agreeable gelly, similar in its virtues to that of sago, tapioca, or any other farinaceous substance; and has lately been much employed as a food for children, and phthisical and convalescent cases. An imitation of this root, manufactured in England from potatoes and wheat, has for some time been sold in the shops, for the *genuine arrow root*, at the reduced prices of two shillings, three shillings, and four shillings per pound; whereas the root cannot be retailed for less than five shillings, and the best should not be sold for more.

"*Directions for making the arrow root gelly.*—To a desert spoonful of the powdered root, add as much cold soft water as will make it into a soft paste, then pour on half a pint of boiling water, stir it briskly, and boil it for a few minutes, when it will become a clear smooth gelly. A little white sugar, and a glass of port or sherry wine, may be added."

**ART. XXII.** *The New Chemical Nomenclature, selected from the most distinguished modern Writers on Chemistry. Designed for the Use of Students in Pharmacy, Druggists, Apothecaries, and others. It consists of two Parts; the first of which exhibits the scientific Arrangements in English and Latin; and the second contains the same in English, disposed in alphabetical Order. In both Parts the old Names will be found on the right-hand Column, opposite the new. By C. PYE, Chemist. pp. 55. 8vo.*

THE very voluminous title of this pamphlet, will sufficiently explain its contents. The names are principally taken from Dr. Pearson's tables. The

author, in his desire for filling up both the columns of old and new names, has made some strange inconsistencies.

**ART. XXIII.** *Hints, designed to promote Beneficence, Temperance, and Medical Science. By JOHN COAKLEY LETTSON, M. and LL. D. &c. 3 vol. 8vo.*

WHEN the service of the public is essentially advanced by the exertions of individuals, it is an unnecessary, and an invidious task, minutely to investigate the motives from whence those exertions proceed. They may have arisen from interest, from vanity, from ostentation; they may be connected with feelings which dignify, or which degrade human nature; but if, by means of them, the distresses of mankind are in any degree alleviated, their comforts increased, or their morals and understandings improved, they justly are entitled to approbation and encouragement. We do not mean to apply these observations, to the author of the present hints. His exertions in the cause of humanity have been numerous and successful; and if they have not at all times been strictly congenial with our feelings of that dignified propriety, which so much increases the estimation of character, we have no hesitation in, at least, attributing them to laudable and disinterested motives. Active benevolence is not to be expected from every individual. The public are, therefore, the more indebted to the spirit, enterprise, and philanthropy of a few, for the existence and prosperity of the numerous charitable institutions, which do so much honour to the English metropolis, and to the nation. A material object of the present publication, is to make known the history and progress of many of those establishments, which have been instituted, and continue to be supported by voluntary contributions. The author also enters into a detail of the principal circumstances of distress, which exist among the lower orders of the metropolis, and offers many judicious suggestions for their further relief.

As most of the papers which compose

this work, have already appeared in different shapes before the public, it will not now be necessary to say much concerning them. The two first sections of the first volume, which fill up the greatest part of it, are occupied with observations on the distresses of the poor in the metropolis, particularly in the years 1794 and 1795, and with the means suggested or employed for relieving them. In this part of his work, the author enters into a very ample detail of the whole system of economy in the management of soup houses, and annexes the mode of preparing soup, as well as a great number of other nutritious and economical dishes, which the poor would find their advantage in employing.

The quakers deserve much praise for the systematic attention which they pay to the poor of their sect. This will appear from some remarks by the author on this subject, which we shall transcribe in his own words, with the humane observations accompanying them.

"A religious society, consisting of about fifty thousand members, for the most part of the middle and lower classes, has existed in this century, in which abject poverty is the condition of none. Surprising as it is, that a sect debarred, by restrictions in government, from enjoying any public office or emolument, and from sharing in pensions, perquisites, and sinecures, should have formed a constitution, that prevents the misery of want, in the midst of poor's rates amounting to four million, three hundred thousand pounds a year, of which they do not partake: it is still more surprising, that the community at large, seeing this, and feeling the weight of taxes, should never have inquired of this sect, 'Tell us your system!' At the same time, this system is comprised in two words, *PRÆSCRIPTIS CASSATA*—remove the cause of distress in its commencement. A prominent part of this sys-

tem I shall explain. The moment any individual of this society applies for relief, two persons in the respective meeting are appointed to visit him, and to administer such relief as the nature of the case may require. If the object of distress be a female, two of her sex are deputed to pay this charitable visit; and sometimes a family in want is cheered by the united attention of both sexes.

"Sudden distress, in poor families, may arise from sudden illness; and by a moderate temporary relief, in the season of affliction, subsequent aid is rendered unnecessary; but from whatever source it may arise, when a person becomes involved in distress, unless that distress, and the cause of it, be early removed, accumulated misery ensues, and the result usually is a workhouse; or, what is still worse, intoxication to drown care, or dishonesty in the desperate hope of overcoming it. Bad indeed is the best; for, in general, the moment a family is so involved by the miserable policy of the present poor-laws, as either to starve, or to enter the doors of a poor-house, all pride of independence, resulting from industry, is annihilated; that kind of independence which is the boast of an Englishman. Every passion that gives energy to soul and body, seems buried in the common wreck of his independence; his offspring imbibe the same *inertias*, and a mean, beggarly, squalid race is generated, doomed to become a burthen to themselves, and to the community, as long as the same policy is pursued.

"The *principiis obsta*, as already observed, implies the immediate attention to distress, which, by early removal, prevents its subsequent evils. To this end, it would be advisable to institute a society in every parish, or even in smaller districts, of the inhabitants of both sexes, to receive the applications of any individual in the district, who may have lived above parish aid; but who, from sickness, or other unforeseen event, may want temporary assistance; and to administer such relief as the pressure of distress may require, agreeably to the plan adopted by the sect alluded to.

"By such superintendence of the opulent over the indigent, the number of parish poor would gradually be lessened.

"When an individual of a large community falls into distress, less attention, in proportion, is paid to his particular case. It would, therefore, afford the exercise of more active humanity, were societies formed in small districts; and in every society, two of each sex should be deputed every month to hearken to the voice of misery, and to endeavour to administer relief.

"By this pious superintendence, the rich would see the distresses of their poor neighbours, and learn, in this school of active morality, the unassuming enjoyment of their superior blessings, and the habitual exercise of christian charity. To see gentlemen en-

tering the hovel of the poor man, and ladies sympathizing in the chamber of the poor woman, would elevate the dignity of human character; and whilst it cheered poverty, it would tend to promote a virtuous exertion to overcome it by industry."

The remaining sections of this volume give an account of the origin and nature of the society, for bettering the condition of the poor, and of that for the discharge and relief of persons imprisoned for small debts. They also contain remarks on the necessity of a repository for female industry, and of houses of recovery for the prevention of contagious fevers.

The second volume is divided into twelve sections, which contain hints on the following subjects; viz. on a Samaritan society; on crimes and punishments; on wills and testaments; on a female benefit club, and lying in charity; on a village society; on the support and education of deaf and dumb children; on the employment of the blind; on the monument erected to John Howard, in St. Paul's cathedral; on a society for promoting useful literature; on female servants, addressed to masters and mistresses; on religious persecution; and on humane societies for the recovery of drowned persons.

The following anecdote is mentioned by the author in the section on crimes and punishments, but he observes, that he has never again been able to succeed in a similar way.

"It was my lot a few years ago to be attacked on the highway by a genteel looking person well mounted, who demanded my money, at the same time placing a pistol to my breast. I requested him to remove the pistol, which he instantly did; I saw his agitation, from whence I concluded he had not been habituated to this hazardous practice; and I added, that I had both gold and silver about me, which I freely gave him; but that I was sorry to see a young gentleman risk his life in so unbecoming a manner, which would probably soon terminate at the gallows; that at the best, the casual pittance gained on the highway would afford but a precarious and temporary subsistence, but that if I could serve him by a private assistance more becoming his appearance, he might farther command my purse; and at the same time I desired him to accept a card containing my address, and to call upon me, as he might trust to my word for his liberty and life. He accepted my address, but I observed his voice faltered; it was late at night; there was,

however, sufficient star-light to enable me to perceive, as I leaned towards him on the window of my carriage, that his bosom was overwhelmed with conflicting passions; at length, bending forward on his horse, and recovering the power of speech, he affectingly said; 'I thank you for your offer—American affairs have ruined me—I will, dear sir, wait upon you.' Two weeks afterwards, a person entered my house, whom I instantly recognised to be this highway-man: 'I come,' said he, 'to communicate to you a matter that nearly concerns me, and I trust to your honour to keep it inviolable.' I told him, I recollected him, and I requested him to relate his history with candour, as the most effectual means of securing my services; and such was the narrative, as would have excited sympathy in every heart. His fortunes had been spoiled on the American continent, and after a long imprisonment, he escaped to this asylum of liberty, where his resources failing, and, perhaps, with pride above the occupation of a sturdy beggar, he rashly ventured upon the most dreadful alternative of the highway, where, in his second attempt, he met with me. I found his narrative was literally true, which induced me to try various means of obviating his distresses. To the commissioners for relieving the American sufferers, application was made, but fruitlessly; at length he attended at Windsor, and delivered a memorial to the queen, briefly stating his sufferings, and the cause of them. Struck with his appearance, and pleased with his address, she graciously assured him of patronage, provided his pretensions should, on inquiry, be found justified. The result was, that in a few days she gave him a commission in the army; and by his public services, twice has his name appeared in the gazette, among the promotions\*.

The third volume commences with the author's essay on cow-pox, published some time ago; from which, as the value of the discovery is now completely decided, it is unnecessary to abstract more than a few sentences, to shew with what eloquence he is capable of being inspired, when completely warmed with his subject; at the same time apprizing our readers, that the sacred cow, is not forgotten as an ornament to his remarks.

"An animal whose lactarious fountains afford in our infancy a substitute for that of the parent, and from which we draw, through life, a considerable portion of our nutriment, is destined, by the sagacity of one enlightened philosopher, to protect the

human species from the most loathsome and noxious disease to which it is subjected. In reflecting upon its ravages, the mind revolts with horror; not merely from its fatal devastation, but likewise from the deformity it inflicts upon its victims, by rendering the fairest sublimity being, that god-like countenance impressed by the Creator, an object of compassion, if not of disgust. I contemplate, therefore, with medical pride, and not less with national gratitude, the name and discovery of DR. EDWARD JENNER: who, by conveying from a small pustule on the teats or nipples of the udder of the domestic cow, a particle of matter, under the cuticle of the human subject, has established the divine art of preventing the ravages, and even the appearance, of that scourge of his existence, the small-pox.

"From time immemorial, this domestic animal has been consecrated among ancient nations as an object of worship; to all it is now an object of grateful admiration. What then is due to the philosopher, who has drawn new and heretofore unexplored sources of happiness from this salutiferous animal! Gratitude calls upon the nation for a national reward; and great indeed would it be, were it adequate to the national good that must result from this wonderful discovery.

"The highest honours have been conferred on heroes, both ancient and modern, who have desolated provinces by the destruction of their fellow creatures: trophies and statues have been erected to commemorate sanguinary deeds. Saul may have boasted of his thousands slain, and David of his ten thousands; but the altar of JENNER is not consecrated by hecatombs of the slain; his claim is that of having multiplied the human race, and happily invoked the goddess of health, to arrest the arm that scatters pestilence and death over the creation!

"When Herschell fixed the site of the Georgium Sidus in the great volume of the heavens, you raised the theme of ardent praise to this unrivalled astronomer; but what is the Georgium Sidus, in competition with the Jennerian discovery! Has it conveyed to one human being a single ray of advantage? Contemplate with impartiality the latter, whose beneficent rays are destined to dissipate the gloomy atmosphere of pestilential mortality; whose fatal victims, I am bold to suggest, amount to 210,000 annually in Europe alone! Does this reflection admit of a coldness of description? Dip your pens in ætherial and indelible ink!—Impress your observations in characters, legible to the most distant regions of the globe!"

The other sections of this volume are employed in communicating hints on

\* After some employment in the service of his sovereign, this valuable officer fell a victim to the yellow fever, in the West-Indies.



card parties; on the establishment of schools for extending education to the poor; on the philanthropic society; on dispensaries; on the bite of rabid animals; on the sea-bathing infirmary at Margate; and on the establishment of a medical society in London. The volume concludes with the proposal of Indian corn as a substitute for wheaten bread, either alone, or mixed

with a certain quantity of wheat flour.

The author has adorned his work with plates and silhouettes of several of his friends, who have distinguished themselves in any of the subjects of which it treats. He informs us of his having collected materials for a fourth volume, which is to be particularly devoted to medical science.

**ART. XXIV.** *The Principles of Surgery, in two Volumes.* Vol. 1. *Of the ordinary Duties of the Surgeon, containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Wounds, Ulcers, and Fistulas; Aneurisms and wounded Arteries, Fractures of the Limbs, and the Duties of the military and hospital Surgeon.* Vol. 2. *A System of surgical Operations, containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to surgical Diseases and Operations, as Lithotomy, Trepan, Hernia, Hydrocele, Amputation, &c.* Vol. 1. pp. 674. By JOHN BELL, Surgeon.

THIS volume is divided into three parts, or sections: the 1st. comprising wounds, ulcers, and the ordinary duties of the hospital surgeon; the 2d. Aneurisms, and wounds of the arteries; and the 3d. Fractures of the limbs.

The first division contains four discourses, and commences with the education and duties of a surgeon. On this subject the author makes some pertinent and useful observations, though he appears to over-rate the advantage which the young surgeon is likely to derive from an employment in the public service of the army or navy. He quotes several examples, which he particularly recommends to the imitation of his pupils, of ardent love among the older surgeons for their profession, and of humanity and attention to those who were placed under their care.

His attention is next directed to the history of the doctrine of adhesion, the nature of this process, and the best means of effecting it. Nearly thirty pages of this chapter are occupied in detailing the superstitions of former periods, in the treatment of wounds, which are exemplified by several anecdotes and pieces of history from the older authors. The abuse of tents, the sympathetic cure of wounds, secret dressings, blood-sucking, and the Taliacotion art, are all brought forward to introduce the modern doctrines and practice of adhesion. To the improvements which have taken place in this important branch of surgery, some have exclusively laid claim; but the author properly represents them as

“ Gradual and silent, as having obtained by general and common consent, by a slow com-

munication of remarks from friend to friend, till at last the practice was fairly established; and no man could fully claim an improvement, in which every man had some little share. But if,” he adds, “ surgery be indebted to any particular person for the invaluable improvements which this doctrine of adhesion has brought along with it, it is to Mr. Hunter, and the London school.”

With regard to the nature of the process by which adhesion takes place, the author is, upon the whole, disposed to consider it as effected by the divided arteries of a cut surface elongating themselves, and shooting out into the lymph; or, as he improperly terms it, the mucus, which is thrown out from the cut surface. He supposes, however, (though the opinion is completely hypothetical) that this union may also take place by means of the arteries inosculating together mouth to mouth. He thinks the process of adhesion is improperly considered by Mr. Hunter, as the effect of inflammation; and is of opinion, that it cannot be regarded in the smallest degree as a disease, because it is intended to render the parts sound and healthy.

Many very useful observations are given in this chapter, on the method of procuring re-union of wounds in different parts; and at the same time, the various kinds of sutures employed for this purpose, are described and delineated.

The third discourse is upon the subject of ill-conditioned and complicated wounds, ulcers, dressings, bandages, and the daily duties of the hospital surgeon. Under ill-conditioned wounds, the author includes

“ Almost all wounds which do not immediately adhere; all complicated wounds; all

those where the blood has been driven inwards among the muscles, where the great arteries are injured, where there is much searching and cutting up of the member, before the bleeding arteries are found; where arteries burst out from time to time, injecting the parts with blood; where the joints are injured, the bones much broken, or where, though the bones are not broken, the flesh which lies deepest has been sorely bruised against the bones, so as to fall into inward suppuration, accompanied with great swelling of the limb.

"Gunshot wounds, even in the least dangerous places, though merely in the flesh, are also to be reckoned among complicated wounds; they cannot adhere, both as being gun-shot wounds, which are unavoidably attended with a partial mortification and destruction of parts; and as balls or other foreign bodies are often lodged deep in the flesh. In such cases the wound, though it cannot heal, yet tends to heal, by which its tube becomes firm, solid, and callous, it pours out a thin ill-digested matter, and so degenerates into a fistulous sore."

When adhesion fails, and a wound inflames, the author recommends the application of an emollient poultice, but cautions against the employment of this remedy where the swelling is lax, and the suppuration profuse. He describes, at some length, the treatment of abscesses of various kinds, fistulas, gun-shot wounds, &c. and then comes to the consideration of ulcers, and the hospital gangrene. Ulcers he considers as arising from debility, and as occurring most frequently in the lower extremities, from the depending posture. The chief circumstance which he recommends to be considered in their cure, is giving proper support to the parts.

The hospital gangrene deservedly claims a considerable share of the author's attention, and his details on this subject seem to be the result of accurate and extensive observation. He describes a sore affected with it, as passing through the several stages, first of inflammation, then of insensibility, and gangrene, and then of renewed pain and sensibility. When the health becomes affected by the contaminated air of hospitals,

"The patient languishes for a few days, and the sore inflames; then come vomitings, diarrhoea, and a distinct fever, and the disease seizes plainly upon the wounded part. In its first stage the wound swells, the skin retracts, wastes, has a dark erysipelatous redness verging to black, the cellular membrane is melted

down into a fœtid mucus, and the fascia is exposed. But in the second stage, the fascia and skin, unable to bear their inflammation, and deprived of mutual support, become black, fœtid, soft, and fall into perfect gangrene; yet there are no vesicles, and the mortification is confined within the cavity of the sore.

"In the third stage this gangrene ceases, the sloughs fall off, the muscles become exposed, the part assumes once more the appearance of a common sore, but fearfully enlarged; a high and glossy red, and a smooth, shining, uninterrupted surface, mark the continuance of the inflammation and disease; but if the sores are to do well, it is known by a rough, granulating surface, somewhat dry, and of a paler colour.

"If the patient is to die, the gangrene, or wasting of the cellular sheaths proceeds; the skin first sloughs off; then the fascia is destroyed, those divisions and lamellæ of the fascia, which dive betwixt the muscles to inclose, protect, and nourish them, are next affected; the matter continues slimy and thick, and in prodigious quantities; the muscles are divided from each other more and more.

"Then the vomiting, diarrhoea, and nervous symptoms increase, the pain is dreadful; the cries of the sufferer are the same in the night as in the day-time; they are exhausted in the course of a week and die; or if they survive, and the ulcers continue to eat down and disjoin the muscles, the great vessels are at last exposed and eroded, and they bleed to death."

Superficial ulcers, splinter wounds, the flat surfaces of stumps, or any open surface, he considers as the most apt to be seized with the hospital gangrene; but when the disease rages, nothing can resist it, while the patient is exposed to its contagion. Removal into a better atmosphere is always necessary for subduing the complaint; and where it begins to shew itself in a naval or military hospital, the author is very properly of opinion, that no expence should be spared to procure to the sick accommodation in a more salutary air. We know not by what means his estimate of the value of troops is formed, but he states the expence of such removal to be the wisest and best economy; as the death of each man would be a loss to government of above two hundred and sixty pounds.

The author attempts to account for the effects of this alarming disease, upon the principles of Brunonianism, and concludes this discourse by making some, rather hypothetical, remarks, on the effects of various medicines, and classes of

medicines, which are employed in the cure of diseases.

The author devotes a discourse to the description and use of bandages, and other means of producing pressure on limbs; and then enters upon the subject of hæmorrhage, which is the commencement of the section on aneurism. One hundred pages are occupied in this discourse, and the greater part of them employed in giving, very unnecessarily, a history of the various methods which were in use among the older surgeons, for stopping a flow of blood. With regard to the spontaneous cessations of a hæmorrhage, the author is of opinion, that it is owing to the "cellular substance, which surrounds the artery, being injected with blood." This he thinks is sufficient to repress it in a small vessel, till the parietes inflame, and the cavity is entirely obliterated; but in a large one, the flow will return until the artery is taken up, or an adhesion produced between its sides, in some other way. As a prelude to the consideration of great aneurisms, the author examines the condition of the artery in aneurism, and the operation of pressure and ligature in effecting a cure. He thinks that there is no ground for the division of aneurisms into the true and false, and attributes the cure, in the above cases, to adhesion taking place between the sides of the artery.

The author's ideas on the subject of this adhesion do not appear to be perfectly reconcileable with the disapprobation which he expressed of Mr. Hunter's doctrines of adhesive inflammation, before alluded to, though we should naturally expect the same reasoning to apply in both cases, since he admits, "that the obliteration and adhesion of a wounded artery, is truly compared with the reunion of any other wound." He ridicules the idea, as sophistical and absurd, that any portion of inflammation is necessary for the reunion of a fresh wound; and yet he seems to admit, that the adhesion of the parietes of arteries depends upon a degree of inflammatory action, when he asserts, that the slight barrier produced by the cellular membrane, around the divided artery, being filled with blood, is sufficient to restrain the bleeding of a small artery, *till the parts inflame and the artery is entirely stopped.* The same opinion is expressed in his explanation of the effects of ligatures upon arteries, in which he says, that

"The ligatures applied round an artery operate by making the several points of the arterial canal pass *through the several stages of inflammation, from adhesion in one point to gangrene in another.*"

Notwithstanding however these, to all appearance, unequivocal expressions of his opinion, he mentions as a cause of an artery sometimes bursting after being securely tied, "the process which should terminate in adhesion of the artery proceeding to *inflammation*, and ulceration of the arterial coats." With regard to the mode of tying an artery, the author thinks it should be done with a small ligature; and that, when it is to be tied with two ligatures, a division should be made in the intermediate space.

The existence of inosculating branches, extending through every part of the body, with a view to obviate the effects of interruptions in the course of the blood, the author is at considerable pains to prove, though it is a subject now universally admitted. In order to shew that there is a resource of this kind in an obstruction of even the largest artery of the human body, he gives the following interesting case from Dessault's *Journal de Chirurgie*.

"Mr. Paris, dissector for the amphitheatre of the Hotel Dieu, in the year 1789, injected the body of a very lean old woman, of about fifty years of age, whose arterial system was found to be singularly deranged, and the circle of the blood changed altogether, by a complete contraction of the aorta, a little beyond the arch; and Mr. Paris had his attention particularly excited to the condition of this subject by the unaccountable enlargement of the small arteries upon the fore part of the chest. He had filled the arteries with an injection composed of equal parts of suet and rosin, coloured with lamp black; and this injection thrown in from the mouth of the aorta, passed along so easily, that far from suspecting any obstruction, he felt that he could have thrown in more injection than is usually required for filling an adult body.

"The subject was so meagre, that, without dissecting, Mr. Paris felt the thoracic arteries running down the sides of the chest, tortuous, and remarkably enlarged. It was natural for him to be very careful in the dissection of this subject. He found the aorta, immediately beyond its arch, contracted to the size of a writing quill! The coats of the artery were of their usual thickness, and its cavity of course extremely small; the arch of the aorta above this constriction was but very slightly dilated, the part below had lost nothing of its natural size. Nothing could be found, either in its own structure, or in

the condition of the neighbouring parts, to account for this constriction of the artery.

"The carotids were natural. The *arteria innominata*, and the left subclavian were enlarged to twice their natural diameter; and all their smaller branches had increased in the same proportion, and had assumed a curled and zig-zag course. The internal mammary and phrenic arteries were greatly enlarged, and very tortuous. The transverse arteries of the neck were of twice their natural size. Their posterior branches were tortuous, extending to a great distance over the back, with long *inoculations*, which were met from below by the branches of the upper intercostal arteries, and they were also remarkably enlarged; the thoracic and scapular arteries, which go along the sides of the chest, were of twice their natural size.

"Below the constricted part of the aorta, the lower intercostals were remarkably enlarged, even to three or four times their natural size; each of them was dilated, but those were most affected which came off highest, and nearest the contracted part, and the posterior branch of each, which penetrates to the muscles of the back, was more dilated than that which runs betwixt the ribs; indeed, these posterior branches were so remarkably dilated with contortions so closely succeeding each other, that they resembled a necklace of beads; and their *inoculations* with the *transversalis cervicis* were very remarkable. The lower phrenic artery was enlarged, holding considerable *inoculations* with the superior phrenic; and the epigastric artery was supposed to the size of the enlarged mammary artery, and was joined with it by very numerous and very conspicuous *inoculations*."

From being ignorant of the general existence of *inoculating* branches, throughout the whole vascular system, the older surgeons could not, with confidence, perform many important operations. Upon this circumstance the author particularly insists, though the trouble which he takes in proving it may now, at least, be deemed unnecessary, as the doctrine no longer remains a matter of dispute. He relates one case, in which the surgeons of St. George's hospital consigned to death a patient with an aneurism in the axilla, on whom they durst not perform the operation; but from not mentioning the period at which this happened, the author very uncandidly gives the reader, who may not take the trouble of minutely examining the circumstances, an opportunity of forming very unfavourable and very erroneous opinions of the practice of that hospital. "What a sad picture," says he, "is here of surgical practice in the greatest and noblest

hospital in London;" and yet the case alluded to, is one which happened long ago, and was in perfect conformity with the then existing state of the profession. The author considers it as a mistake, that there is much pressure upon the extremity of an artery which has been tied; and very ingeniously attempts to account for this circumstance, as well as the determination of blood to an aneurism, or a wounded vessel, upon the principles of hydrostatics. He employs, for this purpose, the beautiful experiment of Bernouilli, which was instituted to shew, "that the pressure upon the sides of a tube, whose lower orifice is opened, and set to run, becomes negative." When the trunk of an artery is tied, the fluids, pressing equally in all directions, and encouraged by the particular action of the neighbouring vessels, are carried off laterally. But when an artery is divided, or has a greater demand for blood than usual, (as happens when it is dilated to an aneurism) the blood, in a manner similar to what takes place in Bernouilli's experiment, rushes from all directions towards it.

The author also accounts for the pulsation of aneurismal tumours, being much greater than could be expected from the size of the artery supplying them, by supposing, from the consideration of another well-known law in this branch of natural philosophy, that the pressure, as indicated by the pulsation, is not in proportion to the artery which enters the sac, but to the extent of the sac itself.

The author has made several observations in preceding chapters, on the nature and cure of aneurisms; but he does not professedly enter upon this subject till the eighth discourse, in which he commences the detail of the History and Causes of Aneurisms. This, and the four subsequent ones, are occupied in pursuing the same subject; but though the author assumes the credit of continuing himself to principles, he is betrayed in them into the same prolixity for which he is much distinguished in the other parts of this work.

His observations are particularly directed to the subject of popliteal aneurism, in which he gives full credit to Mr. Hunter for the invention of the modern method of performing the operation. He considers the improvement at present in pretty general use, viz. that of

tying the artery in two places, and dividing it between the ligatures, as

"In truth the only operation which can give to the artery tied in aneurism the security of an artery tied in amputation of the thigh."

In this part of his work, we are much struck with the author's ignorance of, or his want of candour in concealing the improvements which Mr. Hunter himself made and practised, in his own operation, and which Mr. Home also successfully employed. Instead of applying for the opinions and practice of those gentlemen, to the first operations performed by them, on the improved plan, before they had been able to correct their ideas by experience, the author ought certainly, in order to avoid the charge of wilful misrepresentation, to have made himself acquainted with the communications in which the early practice was stated to be changed. These are to be found in the *Medical and Surgical Transactions*, which the author has quoted, but for a different purpose, in another part of his work. We must also enter our protest against the accuracy of the observation which the author makes, after he has mentioned the various modes in which Mr. Hunter's operation was practised, previous to that now adopted.

"Such," said he, "are the operations usually performed upon the femoral artery with every appearance of ingenuity and mechanical firmness, but with no attention to the state of living parts, to that process of inflammation and adhesion by which alone the artery is to be secured after these ligatures fall away."

This assertion is certainly not the fact. The methods to which he alludes, had been practised, but they are now obsolete; and the author, by noticing them in this way, seems to bring forward an inadmissible claim to a material share in an important modern improvement.

Mr. Bell seems to possess some peculiar ideas on the subject of compressing arteries. He asserts, with confidence, "that it is one thing to suppress the pulse in the lower part of the limb, and another thing to stop the pulse in the great artery;" and that he has tried, in vain, to stop the blood by pressure in great operations, near the trunk of the body: for, he adds, "though I could suppress the pulse of the femoral artery

with my fore-finger, I could not command its blood with the whole strength of my body." Hence he recommends it to a surgeon in all cases of aneurisms, or other operations near the axilla or groin, to be independent of his assistant, and not to expect that the flow of blood will be prevented by the most careful pressure which he can make.

"I beseech you," says he, "do not deceive yourselves with any such expectation; do not believe that the effect of this pressure is such as to allow you to perform a quiet deliberate operation; look upon this operation as one where you have to deal with an open artery, and lay your account with being covered with blood the moment you open the sac. Nor must you ever expect to clear the great cavity of blood, so as to enable you to see the bleeding artery; it will, on the contrary, fill the cavity with blood faster than you can bale it out, till the patient breathes his last. Operate in such cases with that rapidity and decision which can alone ensure your patient's safety: there are occasions in which the old seducing word Caution is full of danger."

The author states two cases, in confirmation of his doctrine; in one of them he attempted, without effect, to compress the artery of the groin while the operation for femoral aneurism was performed.

"Our cushion," says he, "was well made; our pressure upon the artery, in making the experiment before-hand, stopped at once the pulse in the foot, and the throbbing of the aneurism; we pressed much more firmly during the operation. I fixed the compress with all my force; the other gentleman lay over me, and supported my thumbs with his! We had every reason to believe that we had a perfect command of the artery; yet, at the very first stroke of the knife, the surgeon having cut into the aneurism, was covered with blood, and saved his patient with difficulty."

We shall not call in question the accuracy with which the pressure was made in this and the other operations, to which the author alludes; but yet must observe, that the greater number of eminent surgeons, in the metropolis, are acquainted with cases in opposition to that of the author; and one of this kind was published only a few months ago\*.

The inefficacy of pressure is a favourite dogma of the author, and one which, from some parts of his work, seems to be admitted "with confidence,"

\* Case by Mr. Asley Cooper, in the *Medical Journal*, for July, 1802.



and without limitation. He nevertheless mentions a case of an operation, which he himself performed, in which he repressed the bleeding of the posterior iliac artery, until it was taken up, by keeping the fore-finger of his left hand "steadily upon" that vessel. He also allows in his rules of practice, that, though the pressure upon the inguinal and axillary artery often fails, it is sometimes effectual in restraining hæmorrhage; and that we ought to accept our assistant's endeavours to compress the artery, but to trust nothing to the compression made by him.

The subject of aneurisms is concluded by some remarks on the aneurism by anastomosis, a name which he gives to tumours resembling those which

"Appear in new-born children, occupying chiefly the lips, cheeks, eyelids, or hairy scalp; and which grow in process of time to an important size, bursting at last, and bleeding furiously, so as to oblige us to cut them out."

The following is his description of them.

"The tumour is a congeries of active vessels, and the cellular substance through which these vessels are expanded, resembles the cellular part of the penis, the gills of a turkey cock, or the substances of the placenta, spleen or womb. It is apparently a very simple structure that enables those parts (the womb, the penis, the spleen) to perform their functions; and it is a very slight change of organization that forms this disease. The tumour is a congeries of small and active arteries, absorbing veins, and intermediate cells. The irritated and incessant action of the arteries fills the cell with blood; from these cells it is re-absorbed by the veins; the extremities of the veins themselves, perhaps, dilate into this cellular form. There seems to be a perpetual circulation of blood, for there is an incessant pulsation: the tumour is permanent, but its occasional variation of bulk is singular; it swells like the penis in erection, or the gills of a turkey cock in a passion; it is puffed up by exercise, drinking, or emotions of the mind; it is filled and distended with blood upon any occasion, which quickens the circulation, as by venery, menstruation, the pleasures of the table, heated rooms, or the warmth of the bed. This tumour beats continually, increases slowly, its surface bursts, it bleeds from time to time, its pulsation and hæmorrhages give it a title to rank with aneurisms; and its internal structure is such, that I may venture to name it, Aneurism from the dilatation of anastomosing vessels."

They are to be cured by extirpation.

We are now arrived at the third division of this work, which treats of fractures of the limbs. It comprises four discourses: the first is upon General Theories; the second, on the Anatomy and Accidents of the Hip Joint; the 3d. on Fractures of the Thigh Bone, and the irresistible contractions of the muscles, and shortening of the limb; and the 4th. contains rules for the management of simple, compound, and gun-shot fractures.

The author considers bandages unnecessary for the cure of fractures, and gives the following summary of their treatment.

"I do with perfect confidence advise you, to leave off bandages, which you see were originally designed for no other use than to mould and fashion the callus; to reject those long compresses which were bound so firmly round the limb for the same purpose; to use such splints only, as when laid along the whole limb, may serve to maintain its posture, and to preserve it steady, and to tie those splints slightly with tapes; to lay out a broken thigh (since it cannot be commanded by splints) smoothly upon a pillow, and to venture, without fear of hurting the callus, to extend the limb anew, and lay it straight when it is disordered and shortened. In a simple fracture of the leg, it is almost sufficient to lay it on a pillow; and you have done every thing when you have laid it lightly and easily in a smooth splint of pasteboard, then the patient himself is almost able to keep it right. In fractures of the arm, the part hangs naturally in the best posture, and requires but two splints of thin pasteboard, rolled gently with a linen roller; and in fractures of the fore-arm also, the limb preserves its natural length and natural form; it requires merely to be laid upon a long splint of pasteboard, with a smaller splint laid above, the two splints secured with slight tapes or ribbons, and the arm slung round the neck."

He divides fractures into simple, compound, gun-shot, and those accompanied with luxations. He considers the contraction of muscles in the fracture of the thigh, as a consequence which we should not attempt to prevent by any of the machines formerly in use; and is of opinion, that, after such an accident, the limb can hardly, by any means, be preserved of its natural length. In the pathology of the hip joint, he enters largely into the diagnosis, and cure of luxations; and, in the last discourse of this volume, particularly considers the treatment necessary in fractures of particular parts.

Numerous, and well-executed plates are given, to illustrate the nature of particular diseases, the anatomy and pathology of some important parts, and the use and application of bandages.

ART. XXV. *A Treatise on the morbid Affections of the Knee-Joint.* By JAMES RUSSEL, F. R. S. E. *Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, and one of the Surgeons of the Royal Infirmary, Edinburgh.* p. p. 242. 8vo.

THE personal experience of an eminent practitioner, and highly esteemed teacher, in a very important class of morbid affections, cannot fail to excite considerable interest in those whose studies or practice are directed to similar objects. Diseases of the knee-joint are so various in character, often so severe and difficult of cure, and at all times excite so much alarm in the breast of the sufferer, that they require peculiar attention on the part of the surgeon; and the frequent failure of every method of treatment strongly points out the necessity of further investigation.

The author's object, in the present treatise, is to consider all the various diseases in and about the knee-joint, with the exception of the consequences of violent lésion from external accident, such as fracture and dislocation, and the injuries which may arise from popliteal aneurism. This exception does not render the plan of the work imperfect, for every practitioner must be aware that some of the most serious diseases of the knee-joint arise almost spontaneously, or, at least, unconnected with any considerable external violence.

The following are the species of diseased affections treated of in this volume: superficial injuries of the knee; injuries upon the bursæ mucosæ below the patella; tumours retaining blood; white-swelling, with its several varieties; moveable bodies within the joint; dropsical swelling, and rheumatic and gouty affections. Of these, white swelling occupies a very large share of attention, so that we might almost characterise the work as being a treatise on white swelling, including a description of the other species of morbid affections with which it has sometimes been confounded.

The short chapter, on superficial injuries, contains the history of two very instructive cases, both terminating fatally, where very extensive suppuration, and hectic fever arose, from a superficial burn in one instance, and a bruise, with loss of part of the integuments, in the other. Hence the importance of attend-

ing carefully to every injury on this organ, surrounded as it is by ligaments, tendons, and tendinous fascia, in which inflammation is always so severe and obstinate; and which admit, with so much difficulty, of the granulating and healing process.

Another species of disease, is that "tense, diffused, inflamed, painful swelling" which often follows a slight injury of the bursæ, especially that which belongs to the tendon, which connects the patella with the head of the tibia. We have not unfrequently met with this swelling in house-maids, as a consequence of long kneeling upon hard floors. This disease bears a very great resemblance to superficial collections of matter between the integuments and the tendinous fascia, from which, however, it is of importance to distinguish it, as the method of cure differs in many particulars. In a subsequent chapter, the author speaks of the cure of this effused swelling. As it is more troublesome than dangerous, we should not rashly endanger the joint by having recourse to the lancet; and the author only recommends opening the tumour when palliative methods fail of procuring tolerable relief. He advises leeches in the earlier stages, if much inflammation be present; after which a blister is of essential service; and he also places confidence in the continued use of a solution of muriated ammonia combined with pressure.

This disease of the bursæ at the head of the tibia is, however, much less painful and dangerous than that of the bursæ connected with the extensor tendons of the leg. The diagnosis of the latter is very clearly laid down.

"The presence of such affections of the bursæ is, in general, sufficiently easily known from their situation, from their circumscription, and from the distinct perception of a fluid collection. They differ from a superficial collection under the skin, in being of a more distinct shape, a more tense feeling, and apparently deeper seated. They differ from a dropsical swelling of the cavity of the joint in being situated higher up; in the in-

possibility of making the fluid undulate from one side of the knee to the other, and from the circumstance of no elevation of the patella ensuing from any mode of pressure. The diagnosis, therefore, is perfectly obvious in most cases."

The treatment recommended is nearly the same, except that the propriety of opening the tumour, is here much more doubtful than in the former instance.

To proceed to the author's description of white swelling, or *incomæ*, which, as he observes, is "by far the most serious and important affection of the knee, and, in this country at least, the most frequent." The symptoms and progress of this dreadful complaint are first described with that accuracy and perspicuity which might be expected from careful observation, and that experienced tact which is so often the only certain guide to the practitioner. As an example of clearness of description, we may give the following passages.

"The distention which the skin suffers, from the increase of the swelling, gives to the whole surface a smooth and shining appearance; the swelling likewise acquires more of a spherical shape, losing, by degrees, that variety of form which is natural to the knee joint in a healthy state. In some cases, it attains a very great size, and becomes nearly round; in this state, too, it possesses a certain degree of softness, so that it appears to consist of a fluid collection. The appearance of fluctuation, however, is rarely produced by the actual presence of a fluid; but rather arises from the general softness of the whole mass, which communicates somewhat of a similar sensation to the touch. When a fluid lies within the capsular ligament, it may be made to undulate distinctly from one side of the knee to the other, passing under the patella. The patella necessarily rises during the passage of the fluid, especially if the leg be extended; hence the motion of the fluid, along with the elevation of the patella, mark the place and nature of the complaint distinctly; for, when the appearances are occasioned by a soft external swelling, there is no such motion communicated from one side of the knee to the other; no elevation of the patella; on the contrary, the patella, so far from being elevated, is rather depressed, somewhat below the level of the surrounding parts, so that there is hollowiness, or at least a flatness, at the place where it ought to be prominent. By attending to those circumstances, a sensation which might seem to proceed from a fluid collection, will be known to arise from the undulation of an uniform mass of soft matter.

"The accumulation of this soft matter is likewise the cause of another difficulty, by

giving the appearance of an enlargement of the bone, although no such enlargement actually exists; for, as pressure makes this soft mass of matter mould itself upon the subjacent parts, it assumes the form of the bone beneath, and, by the additional thickness which it every where communicates, conveys the idea of an actual enlargement. The sensation, however, is, in most cases, entirely fallacious, and proceeds solely from the cause of deception which I have endeavoured to explain. In all such cases, therefore, we should not be precipitate and confident in pronouncing the bones of the knee to be preternaturally enlarged from disease."

From the external symptoms of disease, the author proceeds to the appearances on dissection; the texture of the swelling itself, which varies according to the duration of disease; the gradual softening and thickening of the capsular and bursal ligaments; the corrosion and absorption of the cartilages and articulating surfaces; and the occasional enlargement of the condyles of the femur. The nature of white swelling, the author pronounces to be decidedly scrophulous; which opinion is supported by the important facts, that the disease is more common in constitutions acknowledged to be scrophulous, than in any other; that the softness and superficial erosion of the bones, the separation and dissolution of the cartilages, are all characteristic symptoms of scrophula.

Another variety of disease in this organ is simple idiopathic inflammation of the knee joint, an event of rare occurrence, but very serious in its consequences, on account of the extent of articulating surface, and the complicated structure of the part. This variety is here described very succinctly, apparently with a view of separating as much as possible, the symptoms of simple inflammation from those which are superadded (in the case of white swelling) by scrophulous diathesis.

Dropsical swellings form another class of diseases in the knee joint, the diagnosis of which, is not difficult. They begin spontaneously, and accumulate with rapidity, so as speedily to impair the motion of the joint; but as no preternatural thickness occurs, the fluctuation may be felt with ease, by striking the hand on one side of the tumour, and receiving the impulse on the other side, through the centre of the joint. The patella also is seen to rise above

the ordinary level, whilst the fluid is passing beneath it. In the greater number of cases, these dropsical effusions arise either from a venereal or scrophulous taint. The latter species is, by far, the most dangerous, and seldom admits of a cure.

A singular, formidable, and anomalous species of disease, is next described. The author has met with four or five cases of it, in all of which the complaint was far advanced. The appearances, at the time of examination, are thus described.

"The swelling was of a very large size, an irregular shape, and firm consistence. There was no distinct sense of fluctuation communicated to the touch. But by applying gentle pressure over the whole surface, it was easy to discover that the different parts of the tumour possessed various degrees of firmness. There appeared to be a perpetual and progressive increase of size, though the violence of the pain, and the general irritability of the tumour, were by no means proportioned to the magnitude of the other symptoms. Even after they attained a size, far beyond what a case of white swelling ever attains, the pain was not so severe. The accompanying symptomatic fever, likewise, was much more moderate. In rapidity of growth, however, they far exceeded any other species of swelling, as the most remarkable case which fell within my observation, arrived at its acmé in the course of five or six weeks. It was then, indeed, of a most extraordinary size, measuring, in the circumference of its largest dimensions, twenty-eight inches. At this period, it is true, the symptoms were exceedingly distressing, and the patient suffered under the pressure of hectic fever. In none of the cases, however, was there any superficial redness of the skin, or any other symptom of inflammation."

On cutting into the tumour, to discover the nature of the diseased mass, several remarkable appearances are observed, particularly in the state of the bones. The head of the tibia is the part which is principally affected, in some cases it is unusually enlarged, and in others wholly consumed. The enlargement, however, does not arise from any additional access of ossific matter, but apparently from a mere extension of the cancelli, and separation of the lamellæ. Hence it becomes honeycombed in structure, and exceedingly fragile; and under these circumstances also, the bony matter is often entirely consumed. The adjacent soft parts are converted

into a nearly transparent colourless mass of a tough gelatinous consistence, resembling the texture of schirrous tumour. In this disease, the fibula sometimes partakes of the diseased change, whereas this bone is never affected in true white swelling. This disease is entirely incurable, and fatal in every case which the author has seen. Amputation appears the only remedy, but, unfortunately, the sufferers have uniformly perished from hæmorrhage, or its consequences, occurring many days after the operation, and without a suspicion of unskilful management on the part of the surgeon.

The harassing complaint of moveable bodies within the knee-joint next occupies the author's attention. He distinguishes three varieties of them: the first, constantly found lying loose in the cavity of the joint, and therefore liable to shift its situation from any accidental circumstances of motion in the part; the second, constantly attached to the capsular ligament, but also moveable within a limited space; and the third, which is the most frequent, sometimes attached, sometimes loose. Their texture is generally bony and cartilaginous; and their shape of a flattened oval, sometimes an inch in diameter. The irritation produced by these extraneous bodies is excessive, but not constant, depending much on the situation in which they may happen to lie, and on the degree in which they interfere with the motion of the part. For the cure, no attempt at resolution by external applications promises the smallest success: they must be considered nearly as much extraneous bodies, as if so many pebbles were inserted into the joint. Only two methods of cure offer; the one, to retain them by regulated pressure in the part in which they produce the least inconvenience; and the other, to remove them by the knife. The former mode is safe, but seldom effectual; the latter obviously effectual, but attended with considerable risk, on account of the necessity of cutting into the cavity of the joint. The practical directions given by the author are highly judicious and discriminative, and he only allows of the operation where the body is perfectly unattached to the capsular ligaments, and when the pain which it produces, is so intolerable, as to make a very hazardous operation the least of two

evils. The following is the mode of operating:

"In selecting a place for operating, it is of consequence to make the incision as far distant as possible from the moving surface of the joint. With that view the moveable body is to be pushed upwards on the inside of the thigh, and to be retained there steadily by the hands of an assistant. This part of the operation, indeed, is sometimes difficult to execute; although it is of infinite importance that it should succeed completely. For if the moveable body escape from under the fingers of the assistant, the object of the operation is entirely frustrated. Unluckily too it is one of those accidents which we cannot certainly promise to prevent.

"In performing the operation, it is an object of consequence to prevent any irritation, which the admission of air is supposed to produce. To accomplish this point, the skin is to be drawn aside from its natural position, so that, in making the incision, the wounds of the skin and capsular ligament correspond only for a time, but upon permitting them to resume their natural situations, the passage again is completely shut.

"The length of the incision ought to be proportioned to the size of the body which has to pass out. If it is made small, as some practitioners have recommended, then greater force is requisite to pass out the body, by which means it runs a greater risk of escaping from under the fingers, and the lips of the wound have a chance of being bruised; two inconveniences which it is of consequence to avoid. For, although the irritation of the bruise may not be considerable, yet it always tends to increase the risk of symptomatic inflammation. When the incision is made, the body ought either to be caught hold of by a sharp-pointed hook, or the blunt end of a probe to be inserted beneath. But, which ever way we adopt, we must employ the greatest care to prevent any risk of its slipping away.

"When the presence of a foreign body has produced an increased secretion from the surface of the capsular ligament, which occasions a swelling of the knee, then this collection is to be evacuated at the same time the body is taken out. It is often glairy like the white of an egg, and comes out in one mass. But if the glandular surfaces have acquired a morbid habit of action, a preternatural quantity continues to be secreted, which gives origin to a new collection. In this case, it becomes a question, how far it is expedient to keep the wound open, in order to prevent a future accumulation. But although this measure promises some advantage, I yet esteem it a preferable practice to close the opening immediately, in hopes that the effusion will be re-absorbed. Because, any means which can be employed to keep the wound open are necessarily at-

tended with considerable irritation, and experience has shewn, that an accumulation, under these circumstances, may in general be re-absorbed by the use of discutient applications. For as the tendency to increased secretion is the consequence of an accidental irritation, it is not necessarily permanent."

A very excellent and very important chapter on the cure of white-swelling follows. In considering the method of treatment, a variety of indications are to be fulfilled, and a number of applications, some of them in direct opposition to others, will immediately be suggested to the experienced practitioner.

In a constitution generally decidedly scrophulous, often debilitated, and exhibiting very frail stamina of life, a local inflammation in a part extremely irritable, and tending to the most unfavourable termination, is to be opposed by all the aid that medical skill can summon. What these aids are, the author shews in a very perspicuous manner; no species of remedy of importance or celebrity is passed over unnoticed, and to a sound judgment of the degree of confidence to be placed in particular remedies, the author adds the great weight of his personal experience. We shall not attempt an analysis of this part of the work, which is so entirely practical; but shall only add, that among the less common topical stimulant applications, the author mentions with praise the savine ointment, introduced by Mr. Crowther, as a substitute for cantharides, in keeping up a long-continued discharge from the part; and in the earlier stage of the complaint, a plaster of gum ammoniac and squills. The following are the directions for the latter application:

"I shall begin with taking notice of an application which consists of powder of gum ammoniac moistened with vinegar of squills, as I believe it to be one of the most useful of the class. The mode of using it is by making the composition into a paste, which is spread upon leather, and applied to the knee in a piece of sufficient size to cover the whole of the affected parts. It excites a slight sensation of heat which is seldom so great as to feel disagreeable, and there is scarcely any superficial redness or discharge produced. Some slight inconvenience, however, arises from the induration of this plaster, which becomes hard in a short time, and adheres to the skin after a disagreeable manner. Upon this account, it is necessary to remove it frequently, in order to replace it with fresh ma-



terials, or to moisten the surface by the effusion of some fresh vinegar of squills. But by proper attention to guard against this tendency to indurate, all these troublesome consequences may be avoided, and then the application often proves of singular service in removing the complaint. I have known many instances in which the patients derived great and speedy benefit from the use of this remedy."

The chapter concludes with directions for amputation, the last curative re-

source in this dreadful disease, and unfortunately too often the only one which exhausted art has to offer.

Three plates are added to this volume; the first, illustrative of the anomalous disease of the knee-joint before mentioned; the second, of ankylosis of the bones of the knee; and the third exhibits a compound case of ankylosis, attended with partial absorption of the external diseased bone.

ART. XXVI. *An Inquiry into some of the Effects of the Venereal Poison on the Human Body; with an occasional Application of Physiology, Observations on some of the Opinions of Mr. John Hunter and Mr. Benjamin Bell, and practical Remarks.* By S. SAWREY, Surgeon. 8vo. pp. 201.

THE nature and properties of the venereal poison have long been, and still continue to be, fruitful subjects of discussion; nor do we see much probability that the various questions, whether of a speculative or practical kind, which have arisen in the course of the inquiry, will soon be set at rest. The author of this publication enters with considerable zeal upon the examination of many of those controverted opinions, and flatters himself that his investigations have had the effect of establishing the truth of some doctrines, and discovering the fallacy of others.

He commences with the well known controversy on the identity of the poison of chancre and gonorrhœa; and after stating the usual arguments on the subject, and supplying what he considers as defects in evidence, by a detail of three cases which came under his own observation, decidedly concludes, that both these complaints originate from the same contagion, and that the different phenomena attending them are produced by the different structure of the parts which are attacked.

He does not agree with Mr. Hunter in supposing that this difference consists in the organs being secreting or non-secreting, but attempts another explanation, which, however, is nothing more than a variation of the same language. The arguments which he deduces from his own cases, though they may be satisfactory to himself, can certainly be by no means regarded as decisive of the question to which they are meant to apply; and, indeed, do not essentially differ from those which have already so

often been urged by the favourers of the same opinion.

The second and third parts of his inquiry are principally occupied in considering the effects of the venereal poison upon the human body when externally applied, and when circulating in the blood. In examining the production of venereal virus, the author attempts to refute the ideas which Mr. Hunter entertained on this subject. He admits that there is an increase, a multiplication, or an assimilation, of new venereal poison, but cannot conceive that the action of vessels can be so much altered as to occasion this effect, because it must imply the necessity of supposing that this action is capable of producing, from the untainted contents of the arteries, a new poisonous compound, and a new constituent or elementary principle. He therefore concludes, that the venereal poison gives rise to inflammation, and a discharge of matter, with or without ulceration: that this discharge, as it flows from the vessels, is a harmless fluid; and that, in consequence of being blended with the venereal virus adhering to the part, it becomes completely assimilated to the nature of that poison. We have here, however, precisely the same difficulty as that for which the author objects to the hypothesis of Mr. Hunter; for, as he does not mean to contend that the minute portion of virus originally applied is capable of infecting an unlimited quantity of matter, it will be necessary to suppose, in order to give plausibility to his idea, that a chemical process is continually going upon the surface of a sore, by which the assim-

lation is perfected, or, in other words, the new poisonous compound, or the new constituent or elementary principle, against the production of which he reasons generally.

There are some other conclusions made by Mr. Hunter on the subject, which the author takes considerable

pains to invalidate, particularly that of the product of sores, and of secretions in venereal complaints not being poisonous, of the virus not increasing in the blood, and of the fœtus in utero not being capable of being affected by a contaminated parent.

ART. XXVII. *A Treatise on a new Method of curing Gonorrhœa, by which Strictures in the Urinary Canal are prevented; to which are added, Observations on the comparative Merits of Caustics and Bougies in the Cure of Strictures: also subjoined very copious Remarks on the Causes and Remedies of Seminal Affections, Impotency, Sterility, &c. By C. H. WILKINSON, Surgeon, of the Society of Arts, Member of the Philosophical Society of Manchester, and Lecturer on Experimental Philosophy. pp. 144, 8vo.*

THE nature and seat of gonorrhœa are well understood, but the treatment employed by different practitioners varies in so many essential points as still to afford ample opportunity for observation and improvement. Every raw druggist's apprentice boy now takes upon him to prescribe some favourite pill or injection, and the frequency of the complaint affords abundance of patients in every rank and situation of life. The mischief produced by this practice is of no small extent, many serious derangements of these complicated organs may be traced to improper treatment of gonorrhœa; and among these, stricture in the urethra may be reckoned as one of the most important.

The object of the work before us is to propose the use of the bougie in the earliest stage of gonorrhœa, even when unconnected with any suspicion of stricture. What the success attending this practice has been, let the author speak for himself:

"By far the greater number of strictures originates from gonorrhœa; when we minutely inquire into every circumstance relative to an urinary obstruction, we can almost always trace its source to this cause.

"Mr. Nome, in his valuable *Observations on Strictures*, thus observes: 'From the idea that injections do sometimes produce stricture, and that we are unable beforehand to determine in what cases they may be used with impunity, I have been induced entirely to forego their use in the treatment of gonorrhœa, rather than incur a risk, however small it may be, of producing so seriously distressing a complaint.'

"Injections are objectionable not from any retroulsive motion as to the venereal virus, but from the state they induce in the lining membrane of the urethra, or lay the foundation to so many painful urinary obstructions.

"To obviate such distressing consequences, I have for many years been in the habit of employing bougies, which I suppose act in the following manner:

"A bougie, when formed of mild materials, applied to a tender surface, acts as an unguentous application to all the parts of the canal at the same time, the urethra thus preserved in an equal, uniform, and gradual state of distention, the formation of folds is thus entirely prevented.

"The bougie should be well covered with oil, and when the inflammation is very violent, I have experienced considerable advantage from smearing a bougie with a strong solution of opium in oil.

"It might appear that in a very inflamed state of the urethra, there would be too much irritation to admit, without excessive pain, the introduction of such a solid substance as a bougie.

"In such cases I previously inject a small portion of oil, the bougie may then be passed with very little uneasiness, when once introduced the inflammation is more rapidly removed than by any other mode I know of.

"In the day-time I always employ an injection of a weak solution of the acetate of lead, and introduce the bougie on the evening or at bed-time.

"The first night, a bougie may not be retained more than two hours; on the second night, it is generally easily retained the whole night.

"In a recent contracted gonorrhœa I have rarely found it necessary to introduce more than five or six bougies.

"As the seat of the disease is generally anterior to the bulb of the urethra, a bougie of six inches in length might be deemed sufficient; I have always observed that a short bougie is more troublesome to the patient than one of ten inches, it is easier for the point of the bougie to lie in the cavity of the bladder, than to terminate in the canal.

"The bougie should be formed of the mildest materials, and of an intermediate consistency; if too hard, the canal is unnecessarily irritated; if too soft, is apt to bend

in its introduction, and irritate from its irregularity.

"These ten years I have constantly adopted this practice, no one of my patients have hitherto experienced the least urinary obstruction: in many of them, in consequence of being thus treated, I have discovered strictures in an incipient state, originating from a former gonorrhœa; the method here proposed for their prevention, is also the best for their removal."

The use of the caustic in stricture of the urethra, so strongly and judiciously recommended by Mr. Home, is next considered. Without entirely controverting this gentleman's practice, the author seems to be of opinion, that more patience, more attention, more unremitting endeavours, in the use of the simple bougie, might often supersede the necessity of the severe, and sometimes hazardous, remedy of the caustic. This, in fact, is saying very little: no surgeon ought, and no judicious practitioner will, have recourse to this remedy till simple means have failed; and in this he must be guided by the circumstances of the individual case.

The greater part of the volume is occupied with remarks on the causes and remedies of seminal affections, impotency, sterility, &c. We shall forbear any analysis of these chapters; they are

not deficient in sense or information; but the observations introduced are such as may be found in the best writers on these subjects. One remark we are compelled to make: in the preface the author observes; "the observations on seminal weakness, impotency, and sterility, are introduced with a hope of placing these affections in a more systematic point of view, as well as of investigating their respective causes. This I have attempted in that style of language as to be comprehended by those whose pursuits are not professional," &c. The propriety of such a design may well be questioned, and it can only be allowed on the ground of its being preferable openly to gratify natural curiosity with undisguised truth, than to run the risk of those consequences of error and concealment, which swell the dishonest gains of so many shameless empirics. We do not accuse the author of unnecessary amplification, or unchastised pruriency in his pen, though some of the long-exploded absurdities of ancient writers might well have been omitted; but we do accuse him of certain loose suggestions; for the introduction of which, the subject before him offers no plea, nor sound morality any excuse.

**ART. XXVIII.** *Cases of Cancer, with Observations on the Use of Carbonate of Lime in that Disease.* By EDWARD KENTISH, M.D. *Author of the Essay on Burns.* 8vo. pp. 48.

THE author of this publication is of opinion, that the foundations of cancer are laid in the torpidity or engorgement, as he terms it, of particular parts of the body, which are produced by unequal actions of the glandular system, and are apt to occur in females about the cessation of the menses. His general plan of treatment is directed, according to his own language, to equalize action, or restore the unity of life; and for this purpose he recommends the vapour-bath at about the temperature of 94°, and small doses of mercury. Carbonate of lime, or common chalk finely levigated, he considers as the best application for the cancerous ulcer: "for it not only coagulates the circumference of the

wound, and thus lays the basis of the cuticle or shell; but it absorbs the redundant secretion in a more perfect manner than lint or charpie; with which it is the custom to fill wounds."

The author gives us an account of two cases of cancerous mammæ, which he treated upon the principles now mentioned. In the one, a cure was effected; the other terminated fatally. From some circumstances connected with those and other cases which have come under his observation, he is disposed to conclude, that there is some analogy between rheumatism and cancer, which, if attended to, may lead to some important practical deductions.

**ART. XXIX.** *Lectures on Comparative Anatomy: translated from the French of G. Cuvier, Member of the National Institute of France, &c. By WILLIAM ROSS, under the Inspection of JAMES MACARTNEY, Lecturer on Comparative Anatomy and Physiology in St. Bartholomew's Hospital. 2 Vols. 8vo. Vol. I. On the Organs of Motion: pp. 542. Vol. II. On the Organs of Sensation. pp. 710.*

IN the more early periods of medical history, the dissection of brutes was the only means employed for obtaining a knowledge of the anatomy of the human body. Hence a great number of errors, on the situation and functions of parts, were received as truths, until the actual inspection of the human subject discovered their inaccuracy. From this circumstance, however, the utility of comparative anatomy was not done away. When physiology was cleared from the visionary speculations of ignorance and superstition, and began to occupy an important place in medical and philosophical science, comparative anatomy was found to be capable of affording it the most material assistance, by discovering what parts in the structure of organs were common and necessary, what were only accessory, and what were connected with an entire difference of function. Abilities of the first kind have been exercised in the prosecution of this branch of medical science, and the progress which it has made is considerable; but so extended is the field of inquiry which it lays open, that much still remains to be done in order to supply all the advantages which it is capable of affording.

No author has hitherto collected, and concentrated the various and important observations on the structure of animals, with which the perseverance and industry of anatomists have provided us; we therefore receive with much satisfaction the present work, which has been produced under auspices of the most favourable kind, and promises, when completed, to supply an important desideratum in science. The merits of Cuvier, as an anatomical philosopher, have been long known; and the situation which he occupies in Paris, furnishes him with every opportunity of prosecuting successfully his favourite pursuit. We, therefore, naturally expect from a work which appears with his name, not only a correct view of what has already been done, but a considerable enlargement of our knowledge. In this we have not been disappointed: and though these lectures are the immediate production

of M. Dumeril, and were taken from the oral demonstrations of M. Cuvier, the latter has revised the manuscript with the greatest care, has supplied details when deficient, rectified erroneous statements, and added every information which he has obtained by his reading, or dissections, since their delivery. He therefore does not hesitate to acknowledge this work as his own, and to avow all the assertions which it contains.

The two volumes already published comprise, as the title page discovers, the organs of motion, and the organs of sensation; they are preceded by some preliminary observations upon the animal economy (which occupy the first lecture), in which the author takes a general and philosophical view of the functions of the animal body, of the organs composing it, of the differences of those organs, and concludes by giving a new classification of animals from their internal organization. In this arrangement

“The whole animal kingdom is, in the first place, divided into two great families: 1st, that of the animals which have vertebrae, and red blood: 2nd, that of the animals without vertebrae, almost all of which have white blood.

“The vertebral animals are subdivided into two branches, those with warm blood, and those with cold blood.

“Each of these two branches is divided into two classes. Those of the animals with warm blood are *mammalia* and *birds*.”

The classes of vertebral “animals that have cold blood are reptiles and fishes.”

“The invertebral animals have not so many qualities in common, and form a less regular series than those of which we have spoken. If they have hard parts, however, they are generally external, at least when they are articulated. Their nervous system has not its connecting parts enclosed in a bony case, but floats in the same cavity with the other viscera.

“There is only a brain above the alimentary canal: it furnishes two branches, which envelop the œsophagus like a collar, and the continuation of which forms the remainder of the common bundle of the nerves.

“They never respire by cellular lungs, and none of them have any voice; their jaws

have all kinds of directions, and frequently their mouths are only suckers; they have neither kidneys nor urine: if they have articulated members, they are always at least six in number. Considered anatomically, they ought to be divided into five classes."

The mollusca form the first; the crustacea the second; insects the third; an intermediate class, including terrestrial worms and leeches, the fourth; and the zoophyta, the fifth. This mode of classification, which is formed from circumstances in common in all the organs, the author considers as much better adapted to the purposes of comparative anatomy, and much more likely to assist in its arrangement, than those which have been before adopted.

The second lecture treats of the organs of motion in general, and commences with the muscular fibre. The ultimate parts of this substance seem, to the author, to be mere crystallizations of the fibrine of the blood, which the muscles may be regarded as the only organs capable of separating from the mass of blood.

"As the substances of which the blood is formed do not contain, at least in herbivorous animals, any thing that resembles this fibrous matter, and as, even in those that are carnivorous, it appears to be decomposed by the act of digestion, and is manifestly neither contained in their blood nor their lymph, it may be concluded that it is respiration which so changes the composition of the blood as to render it capable of engendering the fibrine. This idea is supported by the nature of the chemical operations which constitute the act of respiration, and the effects of that function on the organic system. Respiration, by removing the hydrogen and carbon from the blood, augments the proportion of its azote; and as it is respiration which preserves the muscular irritability, it is natural to suppose that this is performed by increasing the quantity of the substance in which that irritability exclusively resides."

The colouring matter seems to attach itself to fibrine, as does also the irritability; though this last seems to depend ultimately on the constant connection which fibrine has with nerves and blood vessels.

"The causes which occasionally excite the irritability of the fibres, may be divided into five orders: volition, external actions operating on the nerves, external actions operating on the fibre itself, mixed actions operating on both the nerves and the fibres, and finally, certain diseases and certain violent emotions."

Muscles are voluntary, involuntary, or mixed; the involuntary ones, as the heart, are capable of being affected by emotions of the mind; and though their nerves are observed to be smaller than those of the voluntary, their irritability is often greater, which "seems to prove, that irritability is not entirely connected with the largeness of nerves, though, at least, it partly depends upon these organs."

The author considers the connection which exists between the understanding and the nerves as placed beyond the limits of human knowledge; but thinks it

"Possible that we may one day discover the nature of the relation that subsists between the nerve and the fibre, which can only be purely physical, or the action of one portion of matter upon another."

Muscular contraction he thinks must necessarily depend upon one of two principles, the abandoning to the nerves some of its elements, or receiving from it some new principle.

The author next enters upon the examination of the substance of bones, and the hard parts which supply their place. Concerning the sinuses he observes, that they communicate, more or less directly, with the exterior of the body, and contain no marrow.

"Man has sinuses in the *os frontis*, the *os sphenoides*, and the *ossa maxillaria*, which communicate with the nasal cavity.

"In several mammiferous animals these sinuses extend much farther backward, and penetrate through a great part of the body of the cranium. In the *hog* they proceed as far as the occiput. It is they that swell so singularly the cranium of the *elephant*. They even penetrate into the heart of the bones of the horns of *oxen*, *goats*, and *sheep*. The *gazelles* are the only animals with hollow horns, that have the nucleus of their horns solid or spongy without any large cavity.

"There are other sinuses in the temporal bone which communicate with the cavity of the tympanum. These are particularly extensive in birds, and in them occupy as much space as the nasal sinuses do in quadrupeds. They produce the same effect on the cranium of the *owl* as the other kind of sinuses have upon that of the elephant.

"Birds have, in this respect, a very particular structure: their bones, almost without any exception, are hollow internally; but their cavities contain only air, and never marrow. These are real sinuses in their kind, which, instead of being confined to the head, as in quadrupeds, extend through-



out the whole skeleton, and have a direct communication with the lungs; the air which is pushed into the trachea arteria, escaping and returning reciprocally by a hole in some one of the bones. This organization unites in their bones that levity and strength which is requisite for the kind of motion which has been assigned to them, and, like all the rest of their structure, tends to separate them from the cold-blooded animals, the cavities in the bones of which are either very few or inconsiderable."

The author gives the following interesting account of the formation and shedding of the horns of deer:

"These horns, in their perfect state, are true bones both in their texture and in their elements: their external part is hard, compact, and fibrous; their internal part is spongy, but very solid. It has no large cells, no medullary cavity, and no sinuses. It is sufficiently well known what their external forms are, whether in different species, such as the *elk*, the *rein-deer*, the *fallow-deer*, the *stag*, the *roe-buck*, &c. or at different ages in the same species. But these objects belong to natural history, properly so called. The bases of the horns adhere to, and form one body with the *os frontis*, in such a manner that, at certain ages, it is impossible, from their internal texture, to determine the limits between them; but the skin which covers the forehead does not extend further; a denticulated osseous substance, called the *burr*, surrounds it; there is neither skin nor periosteum on this substance, nor on the rest of the horn; on these parts are only to be seen furrows more or less deep, which are the vestiges of vessels that were distributed along their surface when they were soft. These hard and naked horns remain only one year on the head of the stag; the period of their fall is varied according to the species; but when it is near, there appears, on sawing them longitudinally, a reddish mark of separation between them and the eminence of the frontal bone which supports them. This mark becomes more and more apparent, and the osseous particles of that part lose, at last, their adhesion. At that period a very slight shock frequently makes the horns drop off; two or three days commonly intervening between the fall of the one and that of the other.

"The eminence of the frontal bone, at that time, resembles a bone broken, or sawed transversely, and its spongy texture is laid open. The skin of the forehead soon covers it: and when the horns are about to shoot again, tubercles arise, which are, and which remain, covered by a production of the same skin, until they acquire their perfect size. During the whole of that time the tubercles are soft and cartilaginous: under the skin is a true periosteum, in which vessels, some-

times as thick as the little finger, are distributed, and penetrate the mass of cartilage in every direction. The cartilage ossifies gradually as other bones; it passes through the same stages as the bones of a foetus, or of an infant, and finishes by becoming a perfect bone. During this time the burr at the base of the horn penetrates the indentations through which the vessels pass, and also develops itself. The indentations, by their growth, confine the vessels, and in the end obstruct them. Then the skin and periosteum of the horns wither, die, and fall off; and the bones again becoming bare, in a short while drop off, to spring up anew, and always more considerable in size.

"The horns of the stag are subject to diseases exactly similar to those of ordinary bones: thus, in some the calcareous matter is extravasated, and has formed different exostoses; in others, on the contrary, it is found in too small a quantity, and the horns continue porous, light, and without consistence."

The remaining articles of this lecture are occupied in considering the articulations of the bones, and their motions; the tendons, the composition of the muscles, and their action; and the general structure of the skeleton. In the section concerning articulations, the author mentions two particular modes of moveable articulations; of which the skeleton of man, and other mammiferous animals, afford no examples,

"The first, which may likewise be referred to *ginglymus*, is the annular articulation, in which a bone is, as it were, strung, like a bead, upon a branch, or at least upon a cylindrical eminence, and almost detached from other bones. The first spines of the anal fins of some *chæterodons* are articulated in this manner.

"The second is an articulation which can be rendered immovable at the pleasure of the animal. The moveable bone has a small hook; and it is in the power of the animal, by turning that bone round, to insert the little hook in a hole in the immovable bone. In this manner, by a slight flexion, the moveable bone is so linked, that its position can never be changed except by a motion precisely contrary to that which fastened it to the other, and every effort in another direction is useless. It is thus that the *siluri* and *gasterosteii* fix the first spines of their pectoral fins, when they wish to use them in combat."

The 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th lectures, are occupied in examining the bones and muscles of the trunk; the anterior extremity, or pectoral members; the posterior extremity, or abdominal member;

and the organs of motion in animals without vertebræ. The descriptions are minute and accurate, but as they do not admit of abridgment, and afford but little matter for interesting extract, we shall pass on to the lecture which concludes the first volume, and which considers the organs of motion in action. Those actions are divided into standing, walking, seizing and climbing, leaping, swimming, and flying.

Standing, the authors remarks, is in most animals solely the effect of the continued action of all the joints; which is one of the causes why it is more fatiguing to stand long, than to walk during an equal time; as in walking the extensors and flexors act alternately.

"There are, however, some animals in which certain articulations are maintained in a state of extension, in consequence of their particular form, and the ligaments attached to them. The *stork* affords an example of this. The surface of the femur that articulates with the tibia, has in its middle a depression which receives a projection of the latter bone. In bending the leg, this process is lifted out of the depression, and removed to its posterior edge. By this motion the ligaments are necessarily more stretched than during the extension of the leg, in which the process remains in its socket. These ligaments, therefore, preserve the leg extended in the manner of some springs, without receiving any assistance from the muscles.

"This structure enables birds of this kind to pass whole days and nights on one foot, without being fatigued."

Perching birds too, as mentioned long ago by Borrelli, have a peculiar mechanism, by which they can

"Clasp the branches of trees, and maintain their hold without a constant attention, and even sleep in that position. It consists in the tendons of the flexors of the toes passing over the articulation of the heel, and their union with a muscle which comes from the region of the pubis, and passes over the knee. By the flexion of these two articulations, the tendons are necessarily drawn upward, which causes the toes to bend. In consequence of this conformation, the knee and the heel, even of a dead bird, cannot be bent without producing, at the same time, an inflection of the toes. The mere weight of the body of birds, pressing down the femora and tibiae, is, therefore, sufficient to make their toes grasp any twig on which they choose to perch."

The following analysis the author gives of the motions of quadrupeds.

"In the action of walking, a quadruped first slightly bends the articulations of the hind legs, and then extends them in order to carry forward the body. The breast being thrown forward by this movement, to which the extensors of the knee and the heel particularly contribute, the fore-legs become inclined backward; and the animal would certainly fall, did it not instantly throw them forward, in order to support itself. It then draws up the trunk upon the fore-legs fixed in this position, and the hind legs are again brought into action.

"Each step is executed by two legs only; one belonging to the fore-pair, and the other to the hind-pair; but sometimes they are those of the same side, and sometimes those of the opposite sides.

"The latter is that kind of motion in horses which grooms term a *pace*. The right fore-leg is advanced so as to sustain the body, which is thrown upon it by the extension of the left hind-foot; and at the same time the latter bends in order to its being moved forward. While they are off the ground, the right hind-foot begins to extend itself, and the moment they touch it the left fore-foot moves forward to support the impulse of the right foot, which likewise moves forward. The body is thus supported alternately by two legs placed in a diagonal manner.

"When the right fore-foot moves in order to sustain the body, pushed forward by the right hind-foot, the motion is then called an *amble*. The body being alternately supported by two legs of the same side, is obliged to balance itself to the right and left, in order to avoid falling; and it is this balancing movement which renders the gait so soft and agreeable to women, and persons in a weak state of body.

"*Trotting* is a mode of running in which the feet diagonally opposite rise at once, and fall at once, each pair alternately, but in such a manner that, for a moment, all the four feet are off the ground. This produces a regular motion, and the sound of the animal's steps are heard two and two in succession.

"*Galloping* is a running motion, in which the animal raises the anterior feet at each step, and throws the body forward by the extension of the posterior feet. When the two fore-feet descend at the same time, and are followed by the two hind-feet, also descending together, the motion is called a *full gallop*, which is the most rapid a horse can perform, and the only mode of running in dogs, hares, &c. In this kind of gallop the steps of the horse are likewise heard by two beats at a time. The *common gallop* is when the two fore-feet are lifted unequally, and fall one after another. This may be divided into *gallops* in which the horse's footsteps are heard by a series of *three* or *four* beats, because the posterior feet may fall to the

ground either both together, or one after another."

In the article of swimming, the author explains the utility of the air-bag of fish, though he reserves the full description of this curious and important organ, for a future part of his work. He describes them in general as bladders of greater or less magnitude, situated within the abdomen, close to the spine, sometimes simple and sometimes double, having occasionally a duct, which leads from this bladder into the œsophagus or stomach. The air contained in them, the author is of opinion, is produced by means of certain organs to be afterwards described, which separate it from the blood, and keep it always distended when the animal is in health.

"When the air-bag is burst, the fish is no longer able to rise in the water, but remains always on its back. It follows, therefore, that this bag communicates to the back the degree of levity proper to preserve it uppermost, and that in the state of its greatest extension, it renders the whole body sufficiently light to enable it to ascend in the water. There are even some fishes which are capable of being so dilated by the heat, that when they remain for some time on the surface of the water, acted upon by an ardent sun, they cannot sufficiently compress this bag to enable them to descend again. But in an ordinary state the fish can compress the bag precisely to that degree which is necessary to preserve an equilibrium with the water when it wishes to remain in an horizontal plane. It compresses the bag still more when it wishes to descend.

"This compression is accomplished by the lateral muscles of the body, which tend to contract the bladder by elongating it. In this manner, though its surface remains equal, its capacity is diminished, since it is farther removed from a spherical form."

Having thus given a general view of the contents of the first volume of this valuable work, we proceed to the second, which treats of the organs of sensation. The subjects connected with this part of the lectures are in the highest degree curious and important; but though it is our wish to allot as much room to the account of them as is consistent with the nature of our work, we shall only be able to mention the general objects which they embrace, and to annex some occasional extracts from the more important or interesting matters of description.

The eighth lecture, (which is the first of the second volume), is upon the head,

considered as the principal receptacle of the organs of sense.

The first article treats of the form of the cranium.

An extensive cranium, and a small face, indicate a large brain, with little development of the organs of taste and smell. Man appears to be the animal which has the largest cranium, and the smallest face; and in the same degree as this proportion is departed from in other animals, they more become stupid and ferocious. Camper employed a simple and convenient method for estimating this proportion, though it is not always sufficient. It is by determining the angle, formed by the facial line and the basilar line of the cranium. According to him,

"The facial line is supposed to pass along the edge of the superior dentes incisores, and the most prominent point of the forehead. The *basilar line* of the cranium is that which bisects longitudinally a plane passing through the external meatus auditorii, and the inferior edge of the anterior aperture of the nostrils. It is evident, that in proportion as the cranium is enlarged, the forehead must project more forward, and the facial line form a larger angle with the basilar. On the contrary, in proportion as the cranium diminishes in size, that line will incline farther back."

In Europeans the facial angle is estimated to be about  $80^{\circ}$ ; in mongols  $75^{\circ}$ ; and in negroes  $70^{\circ}$ ; in the ourang outang  $65^{\circ}$ ; and in the mandrills, the most mischievous and ferocious of all the apes, only  $30^{\circ}$ .

"The ancients, when they wished to impress an august character on their figures of men, have increased the facial angle to  $90^{\circ}$ , and they have even extended it to  $100^{\circ}$ , in their figures of gods."

It is evident, however, as the author justly observes, that there will be much deception in any calculation of this kind, from the very different size of the frontal sinuses in different animals.

The remainder of the lecture is occupied with describing and comparing the bones of the cranium and face of different animals, their eminences, depressions and foramina.

The ninth lecture is upon the brain of animals with vertebræ. In this the author offers some remarks on the organization of the nervous system in general, on the nervous system in action,

and on the nervous systems of different animals, compared with each other. In considering those subjects, he has occasion to make some observations on sensation, and its production; on the insufficiency of the different speculations on the subject; and on the physical causes of sympathy. Concerning the nature of influence which has been supposed to be exercised by the nervous systems of different individuals upon each, the author makes an inference which is not decidedly supported by any facts with which we are acquainted. "It must be confessed," says he, "that it is extremely difficult, in the experiments which have this action or influence for their object,

"To distinguish the effect of the imagination of the person subjected to the experiment, from the physical effect produced by the operation; and the problem is frequently very complicated. The effects, however, obtained on persons who were insensible before the process commenced, those that appear in others after the operation itself has rendered them insensible, and those exhibited by different animals, place it beyond all doubt, that the proximity of two animated bodies, in certain situations, and with certain motions, produces a real effect, independent of any participation of the imagination of one of them. It also appears sufficiently evident, that these effects take place in consequence of a certain communication being established between their nervous systems."

The author goes on to consider the structure of the human brain, and to compare it both in size and conformation with that of other animals, which have vertebræ. On the latter subject he remarks, that it is very difficult, if not impossible, to establish the proportion of the mass of brain to the rest of the body, in a comparative manner;

"Because the weight of the brain remains the same, while that of the body varies considerably, according as the animal in whom the comparison is made, is fat or lean. Thus the proportion of the weight of the brain to that of the rest of the body, has been stated by one author to be in the *cat* as 1 to 56, and by another, as 1 to 82; in the *dog*, as 1 to 9.5, and as 1 to 47, &c."

"It will appear," however, "that all things considered, the smaller animals have the brain proportionally the largest; that man is surpassed in this respect only by a

small number of animals, all of which are lean and meagre, as mice, small birds, &c.; that among the mammalia, the rodentia, (which include the mouse tribe, rabbit, hare, &c.) have, in general, the largest brain, and the pachydermata (which include the elephant, hog, &c.) the smallest; and that cold blooded animals have it infinitely smaller than the warm blooded."

The brain of man is stated to be in the proportion to the weight of his body, as a 22d up to a 35th part, according as he is young or old; of the *oran-otang* 1-48th; though the proportion is much greater in some other species of monkeys; of the mouse 1-43d; of the field mouse 1-32d; of the elephant, 1-500th. Some birds, as the canary bird, have the proportion so great as one fourteenth of the whole body.

Some authors, as Sæmmering and Ebel, have attended to the establishment of other proportions, and in particular to that which the brain bears to the medulla oblongata, as estimated by the measure of their diameters. This proportion, as stated by them, and mentioned by the author,

"Is more in favour of the brain in man than in all the other animals, and that it is an excellent criterion of the degree of intelligence an animal enjoys; because it is the best index of the pre-eminence which the organ of reflection preserves over those of the external senses. There are, however, some exceptions to this rule; and that which the dolphin affords, is very remarkable. For though the breadth of the brain in man, to that of the medulla oblongata, behind the pons varolii, is as 7 to 1, the same parts in the dolphin bear a proportion as 13 to 1."

The two succeeding lectures are occupied in tracing the distribution of the principal nerves in animals, and in giving a description of the nervous system of animals without vertebræ. Some observations are likewise made upon those few animals in which no traces of brain, or nervous system, have yet been discovered.

The subject of the twelfth lecture is the organ of sight, or the eye.

The number, figure, proportion, and situation of eyes, in different classes of animals, are infinitely diversified. Large animals, in general, have small eyes, and where we find the eyes are of very considerable magnitude, it for the most part indicates that the animals can see in the dark.

The motions of the iris are usually involuntary, but the parrot has the power of contracting or dilating it at pleasure. In some animals, as the ray and torpedo, the iris can be folded back, or brought forward, and made to cover the pupil as a window curtain. In others there is a third eyelid, or *membrana nictitans*, which is employed to intercept rays when too violent. Of this there is a rudiment in the inner angle of the human eye, which, in the other mammalia is developed, though it has no proper muscle, and cannot be made completely to cover the eye. In birds it has a degree of transparency, for they sometimes

constantly existing in this organ, is a gelatinous pulp,

"Which is covered by a fine and elastic membrane, and in which the last ramifications of the auditory nerve are lost: this pulp fills the labyrinth in all species from man to the cuttle-fish. The organs of hearing of those animals which are placed below the cuttle-fish in the scale of being, are not yet known, though several of them afford manifest proofs of possessing that sense."

The seat of hearing may, therefore, be considered as in that pulp, or rather in the nervous filaments which are distributed in it. In some animals, as fishes, salamanders, and camelions, the existence of organs of hearing can only be ascertained by dissection, as the skin passes over the whole aperture of the ear, without undergoing any change, either in thickness or structure.

The subject of the fourteenth lecture is the sense of touch, and its organs.

The necessity of the assistance which this organ is able to give to our other senses, particularly vision, has been long acknowledged; and so important does it appear in the animal œconomy, that its different degrees of perfection have a prodigious influence on the nature of different animals.

"The organ of touch is more perfect, in proportion as the hand is divided into distinct and moveable fingers: man, therefore, possesses this sense in a very eminent degree. *Monkeys*, indeed, have the hand organized like that of a man; but they cannot move the fingers separately, as they have no proper extensor or flexor muscles: besides, their thumb is shorter, and cannot be so easily opposed to the other fingers. It is, however, on the opposition of the fingers, that the faculty of seizing the most minute objects, and of their slightest eminences, depends."

Bats, it has been supposed by Spallanzani, were possessed of a sixth sense, since they could, after being deprived of sight, and with their ears and nostrils stopt, conduct their flight through subterraneous passages, without striking against the walls. This, however, M. Cuvier is disposed to attribute to the air impressing upon their wings, or sensible hauds, sensations of heat, cold, mobility, and resistance, which indicate to the animal the existence or absence of obstacles which would interrupt its progress.

The fifteenth lecture, which concludes the volume, is on the organs of smell and taste.

"Look at objects through it; and by it the eagle is enabled to look at the sun. It contains no muscle internally; and this renders the singular apparatus which moves it necessary.

"Two muscles have their fixed attachments in the globe of the eye, at the posterior part of the sclerotic; one, called *musculus quadratus palpebræ tertie*, is fixed towards the upper and back part of the eye; its fibres descend towards the optic nerve, and terminate in a tendon of a singular nature; it is no where inserted, but forms a cylindrical canal, which bends a little round the optic nerve, crossing the direction of the fibres of the muscle. The second muscle, called *pyramidalis*, is fixed towards the side and posterior part of the globe, which is next the nose, a little inferiorly; its fibres are collected into a tendon, which forms a long cord, and which passes through the canal of the preceding muscle, as if it were the neck of a pulley: having thus described more than a semi-circle, it proceeds in a cellular sheath of the sclerotic, below the eye, to the inferior part of the free edge of the third eyelid, into which it is inserted.

"It will be easily understood, that the united action of these two muscles must pull very forcibly this tendinous cord, and thus draw the third eye-lid over the eye; it returns into the angle of the two other eye-lids by its own elasticity."

In certain mammalia, and birds, there is, besides the usual glands which are found in man, one called the *glandula Harderi*, which is "situated in the internal or nasal angle, and secretes a thick, whitish humour, which is poured out by an orifice, under the rudiment of the third eye-lid."

The thirteenth lecture treats of the ear, and contains a minute description of the various parts of this very complicated organ, throughout the animal kingdom. It appears from the observations of the author, that the only part



"Taste and smell," the author observes, "have a more immediate relation to touch, than seeing and hearing; they seem, indeed, only more exalted modifications of the sense of feeling, by which we are enabled to perceive the differences of the more minute particles of bodies when they are dissolved in liquids; or in the atmosphere; their organs are essentially the same as that employed in ordinary touch, and differ from it only by a greater development of the nerves, and a finer and softer texture in the other parts."

They are, indeed,

"Real prolongations of the skin, formed of all its different layers: we, therefore, find the epidermis, the rete mucosum, the villous

surface, the true skin, and the cellular substance. The tongue of certain animals is even furnished with insensible teguments, as scales, spines, teeth, &c."

The more material parts of the organs of those two senses, are very much the same in all animals possessed of them, which, therefore, renders any analysis or abstract from this part of the work less necessary.

We cannot take leave of this valuable and interesting publication, without expressing our wish for its speedy completion, on the same comprehensive plan on which it has been begun.

ART. XXX. *An Essay on the Structure and Formation of the Teeth in Man and various Animals; illustrated with Copper-plates.* By ROBERT BLAKE, M. D. Being principally a Translation of his inaugural Dissertation. pp. 240.

BEFORE the appearance of Mr. Hunter's work on the structure and economy of the teeth, this branch of anatomical science had been but little attended to; and ever since that period much less has been done in the prosecution of the subject than might have been expected, from the ardour with which scientific enquiries in general are pursued. The author of the present essay was induced by a consideration of those circumstances, to devote a very considerable share of attention to the further investigation of this subject; and he now presents us, in a very clear, interesting, and satisfactory manner, with the fruits of his labours, which appear to us highly creditable to his observation and industry. He has unquestionably derived much assistance in the prosecution of his investigations, from the treatise to which we have just alluded. But though the observations contained in that work, particularly those which relate to human teeth, may be considered as the basis of his own, yet in many important circumstances he has corrected and amplified them; and in his account of the teeth of graminivorous animals, seems to possess considerable claim to originality.

Before we proceed to give an analysis of the more material parts of this publication, it may be proper to remind our readers, that the temporary teeth are ten in number, in each jaw, and consist of four incisores or cutting teeth, two cuspidati, or eye-teeth, and four molares, or grinders; and that there are also in each jaw sixteen permanent teeth; viz. four incisores, two cuspidati, four

bicuspidati, which are the two at each side immediately next to the cuspidati, and six grinders, including the two dentes sapientiæ. The author commences by considering the rudiments of the temporary teeth, and the formation of the pulp and bony part of the tooth.

In a fœtus of about four months, the rudiments or vascular membranes of twelve teeth in each jaw are to be seen, viz. of the ten temporary and the two anterior permanent grinders. These membranes or sac adhere firmly to the gum, and have vessels entering them at their lower part, which fill them with a pulp or jelly, intended at a future period, to form the tooth. At first there are no sockets; but in a little time bony fibres are found to shoot across, from the alveolar processes of the jaw, in order to form them.

"Ossification commences on the higher or most prominent point of what is afterwards to be the cutting edge or grinding surface of the tooth; as also, on as many points as there are eminences in the pulp. The bony matter being first deposited on these points, it necessarily becomes hollowed towards the pulp, and gradually augmenting, at length forms over it small elastic shells.

"On the incisores and cuspidati whose formation is more simple than that of the others, there is in general only one shell formed, but on the grinders several of them appear. On the anterior or small grinders, there are four shells formed, sometimes however but two. On the posterior or large grinders, there are in general five shells, of which, in the under jaw, three are placed externally or next the cheek, and two internally. In the upper jaw, they are so situated, that their eminences are adapted to the hollows of the opposite teeth in the under jaw. As ossi-

fication advances, the bases of these shells come in contact, and at length unite, so as to form one shell, after which ossification proceeds for some time, as in the incisores and cuspidati, gradually extending over the greater part of the pulp; and when so far advanced as to form the body of the tooth, it begins to contract from without, thus shaping the neck, from which the root or roots are to commence.

"Of those teeth which are to have but one root, the pulp increases in length, becoming more and more contracted towards the point; and as ossification advances, the bone forms on it a kind of conical tube.

"But in those teeth which are to have more than one root, a beautiful process is carried on. In the grinders of the lower jaw which in general have but two roots, the pulp is divided into so many processes, a little below the neck: at this period, there is but one general opening in the shell, from the opposite sides of which, osseous fibres or little bars shoot across, through the division of the pulp; these meet and unite in the middle, and so divide the cavity of the shell into two openings, forming over it a little arch. In the grinders of the upper jaw, which have in general three roots, the pulp is divided into as many processes, and the osseous bars shoot through them, from as many different points in the margin of the shell, and uniting in the middle divide the cavity into three openings, two of which are placed externally and one internally. Sometimes an osseous point is deposited in the centre of these processes, and fibres shooting across from the margin of the shell join it, which answers the same purpose. From these openings, the processes of the pulp commonly become more and more divergent, and ossification extending on them forms a conical or flatted tube on each, as in teeth which have but single roots. Sometimes the pulp is divided at the neck only into two processes; ossification goes on for some time as usual, but one or both of these become divided again, and so three or four roots are formed. I have met a few of the permanent grinders, in which the pulp did not divide into processes, so that only one root was formed. The pulp continues to advance faster than the ossification, until each process has acquired its proper length and shape, then the pulp, except where the vessels and nerves enter, becomes entirely surrounded with bone."

As soon as the body of the tooth is formed, the membrane surrounding it, which was before only loosely attached, now adheres firmly to its neck; and in proportion as ossification advances of the root or roots, the body of the tooth rises in the sockets, and the investing membrane with it. The upper part of this membrane is destined to form the

enamel, or as the author prefers calling it, the cortex striatus, which is at first deposited in a soft and moist state, but gradually hardens, and assumes the appearance under which it is known. As soon as the investing membrane has performed this function, it begins to be wasted or absorbed; and at the same time, from the pressure of the tooth from below, the gum has a tendency to waste, and the tooth gradually appears through it. From the firm adherence of the membrane to the neck of the tooth, and its absorption after having performed its office; the author is led to set aside the common idea of the membrane being pressed upon and irritated in denition by the rise of the tooth, and to conclude that lancing the gums can never be useful, except when they do not readily yield to the pressure from below. He is disposed, on the same subject, to imagine, that most of the diseases which have been usually attributed to irritation produced by teething, arises from affections of the stomach and bowels independent of this cause. On this practical point, however, the author seems to us to have referred too little to the effects of irritation on the gums, which unquestionably is a very frequent and an undoubted source of indisposition.

The author now points out the period and order in which the temporary teeth appear, and the commencement and formation of the permanent ones.

"When the rudiments of the temporary teeth are tolerably advanced, the internal part of the gum, or rather the upper part of each membrane destined to form one of the temporary teeth, sends off a new sac. These sacs are each at first contained in the socket of the one to which it is to succeed; and are so ultimately connected with the membranes of the temporary teeth, that they cannot be separated without tearing one or both, and may be torn along with the first sacs out of the sockets."

In proportion as the temporary are elevated the permanent teeth appear considerably beneath them, and consequently the membrane connecting them is elongated, and gives the appearance of nervous twigs, passing from the permanent up to the neck of the temporary teeth.

It has been already observed, that the rudiments of the anterior permanent grinder on each side, were perceptible in the fetus.

"As this grinder advances and the jaw increases in length a process is sent backwards from the upper part of its membrane, which at first is contained in the same socket. This process gradually swells into a sac, in which is contained the pulp whence the middle grinder is to be formed; and as ossification advances the parts become separated by a bony partition, the connexion however is still kept up. When the membrane of the middle grinder is tolerably advanced, it sends off a process in a similar manner, to form the sac of the posterior grinder, or wisdom tooth."

The permanent teeth gradually increase in size, and as they rise up, press upon the temporary ones, and the socket in which they are contained, and thus produce an absorption, not only of the bony partition, which separates them, but of the root of the tooth. The temporary tooth thus losing its hold, falls out, and the permanent gradually comes forward and occupies its place. When this pressure does not operate to its proper extent, the temporary tooth retains its fangs, and is obliged to be drawn, in order to make way for the permanent one. The author devotes a chapter of his work to the explanation of the nature of the cortex striatus, or enamel. He considers the term striatus as more explanatory of the nature of this substance, than any other which has been used, as it is composed of innumerable fibres disposed upon the bony part of the tooth. Occasional irregularities take place in the period and manner of its formation; but when the tooth has once penetrated the gum, it is as hard and perfect as it will ever be, and never afterwards receives any degree of nutrition. The enamel, when perfectly formed, is not capable of receiving from madder or any other colouring substance, with which an animal may be fed, a tinge like the teeth themselves, or the bones; but during its formation, it appears to the author, a slight colour may be imparted to it. His experiments on this subject, however, appear to be too confined and indecisive, to warrant him in positively asserting, that Mr. Hunter's ideas on the subject are not just, when he says, that the enamel takes no tinge in the youngest animals from feeding with madder.

With a view to explain the reason why the colouring matter of food will affect the bones much more strongly

than any other part of the body, the author introduces some ingenious and interesting observations from the lectures of Dr. Rutherford, the professor of botany in the university of Edinburgh. This gentleman considers the fact now mentioned, as depending upon a chemical attraction, analogous to that which takes place in the preparation of lakes, or in the fixing of colours, by means of mordants, in the process of dying.

"The colouring matter of the madder, passing unaltered through the digestive organs of the animal, enters the general mass of fluids, and is dissolved in the serum of the blood; to which, indeed, if it be in large proportion, it communicates a very sensible red tinge. But there is always present in the blood, and in a state of solution in the serum, a quantity of the earthy matter of the bones, phosphate of lime, ready to be deposited, as the exigencies of the animal shall require. Now, the phosphate of lime is an excellent mordant to madder, has a strong affinity to it, and consequently is admirably fitted to afford a base to the colouring matter of it, and thus forms a lake. This is what actually takes place, whenever, in such circumstances, by a peculiar animal process, the matter (which probably serves to keep the phosphate in solution) being withdrawn, this concretes within the cellular texture, into the fibrous and solid matter of the bones: for at the instant of its losing its solubility, it powerfully attracts and combines with the colouring matter of the madder that is present in the serum, communicating insolubility also to this colouring matter, and hence they both concrete together into a homogeneous mass, not white or colourless, as the pure earth of bones usually is, but tinged of a full crimson or carmine colour."

"That this is actually the case," he continues, "may be shewn by various experiments. Thus, if to an infusion of madder, in distilled water, be added a little of the muriate of lime, no change is perceived; but if to this mixture be added a solution of the phosphate of soda, immediately a double elective attraction takes place. The muriatic acid combining with the soda, remains suspended or dissolved in the water, while the phosphoric acid, thus deprived of its soda, combines with the lime, which the muriatic acid had parted with, and forms phosphate of lime, or earth of bones. This substance, being however insoluble in water, falls to the bottom; but having combined, at the instant of its formation, with the colouring matter of the madder, they fall down united into a crimson lake, precisely of the same tint with that of bones of young animals, which have been fed with madder."

We have now completed our account of the more material parts of this essay, connected with the human teeth; and shall proceed to give some abstracts from the chapters, in which the author treats of the teeth in various classes of animals.

In graminivorous animals, where the food requires a great degree of comminution, the cortex striatus not only covers the body of the tooth but descends through its substance, forming therein a variety of convolutions, and of course a variety of prominences in each accidental section of it. The upper part of the pulp of a grinder is divided into a certain number of conical processes, on which ossification at first proceeds separately, though they are at length joined firmly together by ossific matter.

The membrane or sac, described as surrounding the pulp, in the human subject, performs the same office in graminivorous animals; but duplicatures of it descend between the divisions of the processes now mentioned, in the same way as the pia mater does between the convolutions of the brain. As soon as ossification is completed on any particular point of the tooth, the membrane secretes the enamel for covering it, which is by this means dispersed upon every part of its surface, even at the sides, and down to the bottom of its depressions. As soon as the foundation of the enamel is completed, the tooth begins to rise, and to force its way through the gum, at the same time that the membrane wastes, and a small vacuity is left in the convolution which it had lined. The vacuity is afterwards filled up, as may be easily seen in cows and sheep, with the matter of the food and particles of sand, clay, &c. But where the body of the tooth remains in the jaw, for a considerable time, as happens with the permanent grinders of most graminivorous animals, a purpose, according to the author, of some consequence in the animal economy, is thereby answered. The investing membrane of the tooth, he describes, as consisting of two lamellæ, the external of which is very vascular.

"It appears that the internal part of the membrane secretes the earthy matter of the cortex striatus, and that as soon as it has

performed its function it is wasted or destroyed; for its external lamella, as soon as the upper part of the cortex striatus is crystallised, begins to deposit on its surface a substance differing from either the bony part or the cortex striatus, being harder and more brittle than the former, and less so than the latter. It is likewise of a different colour, and can be readily distinguished from the other two component parts. As the surface of the cortex striatus is smooth, this substance (which for distinction's sake, I take the liberty of calling the *crusta petrosa*) cannot adhere firmly to it, and for this reason, in the teeth of young animals, it easily chips or scales off, when they are exposed to the weather. In animals more advanced in life, the *crusta petrosa* fills up all the convolutions of the external plates of the cortex striatus, and extends a considerable way beyond them so as to form a great proportion of the grinding surface, when it becomes much more consolidated, and with difficulty can be separated from the cortex striatus. The *crusta petrosa* not only covers that part of the tooth which appears through the gum, but also that part of it which remains within the socket, and in a few instances I have observed a small quantity of it on the roots of the teeth of very old horses. From this, and observations on the teeth of other animals, which will presently be mentioned, it would seem that the membrane may at once deposit this matter, without having previously given rise to the cortex striatus. The *crusta petrosa* is depositing on the upper part of the tooth a long time previous to the crystallisation of the lower part of the external plates of the cortex striatus, and it continues to be deposited as long as any part of the body of the tooth remains within the socket."

By a longitudinal section which he made of an Asiatic elephant's tooth, the property of Dr. Monro of Edinburgh, he ascertained that the general structure is the same as that now described, with only some slight modifications of the principle, depending upon the direction of the enveloping membrane.

The connexion between the temporary and permanent teeth of all the animals which the author had an opportunity of examining, was found to be similar to that already mentioned as subsisting between those of the human.

Among the peculiarities of the teeth of some species of animals, he particularly notices those of the skate and the shark.

"I have observed," says he, "a very beautiful contrivance with respect to the

different ranges of teeth with which some genera of fish are provided, for instance the skate, in one species of which the teeth are spear-pointed, and their points turn towards the throat; their chief use seems to be, to enable the animal to retain its prey, or to crack the shells of lobsters, crabs, &c. which are probably its chief food. Although their teeth are covered by a very hard cortex striatus, they are nevertheless liable to be broken or worn down, by the shells of the animals they make use of. Nature, however, has wisely guarded against premature old age, by continually forming several ranges of teeth, so that as one or more of the front ranges are destroyed or naturally shed, the lower ranges advance forward and supply their place. How this circumstance happens, I will now endeavour to explain: their teeth are not fixed in bony sockets, but attached to a cartilaginous or ligamentous matter which rests on the jaw. Each tooth has two processes or roots, and each root has a deep furrow near the neck, by which means it is more firmly connected, and as the front ranges are shed, the cartilaginous matter is, by some process in the economy of the animal, drawn forward, and with it the teeth, new ranges still continue to form, I may say *ad infinitum*, while the same process continues to take place.

"A contrivance somewhat similar is observed in the common shark, whose teeth are spear-shaped, serrated at their edges, and covered by a cortex striatus as hard as that of the former animals. These animals are said to live to a very great age, and from the nature of their food, as well as the accidents they are exposed to, their teeth are constantly in danger of being broken, or torn away; to guard, therefore, against such prejudicial effects, several ranges of them are formed, and constantly forming. The upper range is placed nearly perpendicular on the margin of the jaw, the under ranges are regularly disposed quite flat, one over the other, and their points are turned in an opposite direction to those on the margin. When, therefore, one tooth, or range of teeth, is shed or torn away, the tooth, or range of teeth, immediately underneath, begins to turn up, and pass into the place of the former.

"These teeth are inserted in the cartilaginous matter of the jaw, as in the skate, and are so firmly fixed in it, that the animal has not power to move them at pleasure, as was formerly supposed. The number of ranges does not seem determinate, and the under ones are quite imperfect, the earthy matter of the cortex striatus being soft on them, but they gradually become more and more perfect towards the upper range. Their connecting membranes are similar to those observed in the human body, for the membranes pass down from the upper range,

which is forming, to the second, from the second to the third, from the third to the fourth, and so on to the fifth, sixth, or seventh."

In a supplement of considerable length, the author remarks, with much severity, on the attempts which he asserts have been made in the Philosophical Transactions, by Messrs. Corse and Home, to deprive him of the credit arising from his discovery of the nature of the teeth in graminivorous animals, and more particularly the elephant. We do not, by any means, wish to become the vehicle of controversy; but, at the same time, as it is extremely desirable, for the interests of science, that it should be known to whom the world is actually indebted for successful exertions in increasing the bounds of human knowledge, we shall give a slight sketch of the principal facts on the subject, as stated by the author, which, we must confess, appear to us to favour his pretensions.

A short time previous to the publication of his thesis, in 1798, he discovered, by the section of the elephant's tooth above mentioned, that its structure was similar to that of other graminivorous animals. This circumstance was not in time for publication in his thesis; but it was mentioned by him to many of his medical friends, and, not long afterwards, to Mr. Corse himself, when he visited Edinburgh. Mr. Corse, to whom he presented a copy of his thesis, admitted, in the presence of some of the author's friends, the novelty of this section, and the importance and accuracy of the author's deductions from it; and, at the same time, promised "to do him justice" in his intended work on the structure and formation of the elephant's grinders. Notwithstanding this, however, a similar section was published in the succeeding volume of the Philosophical Transactions, by Mr. Corse and Mr. Home, and a similar explanation given by Mr. Home, not only of the structure of teeth in the elephant, but graminivorous animals in general, and both of them without acknowledgment. If this account of the matter be accurate, which we have no reason, from the mode in which it is brought forward, to doubt, it appears to us that those gentlemen will find some difficulty in freeing themselves from the



imputation of plagiarism in the papers above alluded to.

The work is illustrated by nine well executed and perspicuous plates, with-

out which many parts of the description could not have been well understood.

ART. XXXI. *The Anatomy of the Brain explained, in a Series of Engravings.* By CHARLES BELL, *Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh.* pp. 87.

SINCE the publication of the splendid work of Vicq. d'Azyr, we have seen none so well calculated, as the present, to illustrate the anatomy of the encephalon. The plates contained in it are numerous and elegant, the descriptions perspicuous, and the whole execution very creditable to the author.

Towards the close of the volume, the author enters into an examination of

the controversy which has been so much agitated, concerning the communication between the ventricles of the brain. On this subject he agrees with Dr. Monro, but denies to that gentleman the merit of having made the discovery of those communications. This he attributes to some of the older anatomists, from whose works he makes several quotations to support his opinions.

ART. XXXII. *A Series of Engravings, accompanied with Explanations, which are intended to illustrate the morbid Anatomy of some of the most important Parts of the human Body.* By MATTHEW BAILLIE, M. D. F. R. S. *Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Physician to St. George's Hospital.* Ninth and tenth Fasciculus.

WITH these two fasciculi the author terminates this beautiful, accurate, and, in every respect, important work, which, in its execution, exhibits an uniform degree of perfection, and forms a collection of morbid anatomy worthy of the valuable publication which it was intended to illustrate.

In the ninth fasciculus the most important changes from disease, in the structure of the female organs, are represented. These, the author observes, are more various than what occur in many other parts of the body, and this variety depends on their structure, their situation, and their functions.

The first plate represents, in three different figures, the progress of that dreadful and hopeless disease, which has generally been termed cancer of the uterus. This, however, the author rather considered as an ulcer of a malignant nature, since it is not attended with enlargement of the uterus, nor with the generation of fungus, and formation of cysts, by which cancer is commonly characterised.

When once begun, this disease of the uterus proceeds regularly till a great part of the uterus is destroyed, and, in its progress, the bladder and rectum frequently partake of the ulceration, and fistulous openings are formed between these organs.

The second plate represents a scir-

rhous enlargement of the uterus. It sometimes grows to an enormous size. Its texture is a hard mass, intersected, in various directions, by thick membranes, and in its substance hard tumours are often imbedded.

The third plate represents tubercles, which are sometimes formed upon the outer surface, and sometimes in the cavity of the uterus. Their size varies from that of a hazel nut to an orange. They are hard, and consist of a white matter, intersected by strong membranes. When these tumours form on the outer surface of the uterus, they are often knotted, and have but a slight attachment to this organ, which, besides, is generally healthy. When they form within its cavity they are smooth, and the uterus is diseased.

The fourth plate represents polypus of the uterus. A large tumour of this species is exhibited, growing out of the uterus, to which it is attached by a narrow peduncle, and filling the cavity of the vagina. The operation of removing them by ligature, is easily understood by inspecting this plate.

In the fifth plate the practically important diseases of prolapsus uteri, and inversio uteri, are given. The latter case is the same which is given in Dr. Denman's plates, but as a preparation, whereas Dr. D's is taken from the recent subject.

The sixth plate shews the chief varieties observable in dropsical ovaria. This organ is sometimes changed into a large cyst, containing a fluid, but more frequently into several cysts. When this latter circumstance happens, the different cysts will sometimes contain a different fluid.

In the seventh plate is represented a very uncommon change of structure in an ovarium, by which it is converted into a membranous bag, containing a suetty matter, hair, and some teeth imperfectly formed. The most singular circumstance attending this production is, that it has been known to occur in girls much before the age of puberty, where the hymen was perfect, giving some reason to suppose, that it is independent of impregnation. A scirrhus ovary is the subject of the second figure in this plate.

The eighth and last plate of this fasciculus exhibits a dropsy of the fallopian tube, a very rare disease, which takes place when the appertures at both ends of a fallopian tube are either obliterated, or are much narrower than in the natural state. In the same plate is also given a portion of the placenta, which had been converted into hydatids. These singular substances the author considers as animals of a very simple structure.

The tenth fasciculus exhibits the principal morbid changes of structure which occur in the cranium, the brain, and its membranes.

The first plate represents two varieties of bony excrescences from the cranium, one external, the other internal. The former disease is several clusters of bony spiculae, appearing somewhat like saline crystallizations, diffused over the frontal and parietal bones. An ulceration and absorption of the regular cranium, at the root of this group of spiculae, accompanies this disease. The second figure is a deposit of a mass of bony matter within the left orbit.

The second plate shews the dreadful caries of the cranium produced by the lues venerea.

The third plate represents the external appearance of the cranium of a young child affected with hydrocephalus

of long standing. To this the author adds the following important anatomical observations.

"Where the cranium is very much enlarged in hydrocephalus, the brain is thinned, by absorption, into a pulpy bag, and the corpus callosum is burst, so that the water deposited in the ventricles comes in contact with the dura mater at the upper part of the cranium. In this way an hydrocephalus originally internal, becomes, in part, external. When the bones of the cranium have been united together before water begins to be accumulated in the ventricles of the brain, forming hydrocephalus, they are never separated by that accumulation, and the external form of the head remains the same. The water which is accumulated in hydrocephalus, is always limpid; but it varies a good deal in different cases, in the quantity of coagulable matter which it holds in solution, and sometimes this matter is altogether wanting."

The fourth plate represents two morbid appearances of the dura mater, consisting, in one instance, of effusion of a layer of coagulable lymph, the effect of inflammation, and the other, partial ossification.

The fifth plate exhibits two rare species of spongy tumours on the dura mater, one of which the author considers as scrophulous.

The sixth plate represents an abscess in the substance of the brain.

The seventh plate represents the tubercles which are sometimes found in the substance of the brain, and clusters of transparent bags, which have usually been considered as hydatids, but the author rather takes them to be varicose veins.

The eighth and concluding plate shews the extravasation of blood which occurs in sanguineous apoplexy, from the rupture of a blood-vessel into some part of the substance of the brain. When the person survives, "the extravasated blood would seem to be absorbed, and a serous fluid to be substituted in its place. The substance of the brain immediately surrounding this serous fluid becomes tough and firm, so as to resemble a good deal in its appearance, a membrane."

This valuable and beautiful work, now published in a collected form, is dedicated to Dr. Pitcairn.

ART. XXXIII. *Anatomical Plates of the Bones and Muscles, diminished from Albinus, for the Use of Students in Anatomy, and Artists; and accompanied by explanatory Maps.* By ROBERT HOOPER, M. D. Fellow of the Linnaean and London Medical Societies, Assistant Physician to the Mary-le-bone Infirmary, &c. &c. pp. 26. 12mo.

THIS reduced edition of Albinus is intended to accompany a very useful work of Dr. H.'s, the *Anatomist's Vade Mecum*, the value of which has been acknowledged by the public by a very extensive demand.

As the fine plates of the original are not at all larger than is necessary to give an accurate idea of the subject, the figures being all whole lengths of the human body, a reduction of the size to the present minute form, would hardly answer (to the student of anatomy at

least), if they were not very materially assisted by what the author terms a coloured map, or a separate outline of each drawing, differently coloured, to mark the distinction of parts, and to which alone the numbers of reference are affixed. The whole forms a very neat, portable, and useful help to the student, in the important subjects of osteology and myology. One or two errors in the numbers, and lines of references, occur, which, in so small a work, might well have been spared.

ART. XXXIV. *An entire new and original Work, being a complete Treatise upon Spina Pedum; containing several important Discoveries. Illustrated with Copper-plates, exhibiting the different Species of Spine.* By HEYMAN LION, Chiropedist. 8vo. pp. 428.

BEFORE we proceed to give any account of the contents of the present volume, it is necessary to acquaint our readers, who may not be perfectly able to make out this piece of information from the title page, that it is a treatise on corns, by a practitioner of considerable eminence as a corn-cutter in Edinburgh. The subject is novel, and may be considered as ill adapted to be the basis of that philosophical reputation, and that credit for originality, correctness, and philanthropy, to which the author, with no small degree of confidence, lays claim. He seems to be feelingly alive to the dignity of his profession, and is much mortified that the estimation in which it is held by the public, should be so much below that to which, in his own mind, it is so justly entitled.

The author is decidedly of opinion that the common idea of corns being produced by pressure or friction, is erroneous; and is firmly persuaded that they "either grow naturally, without any evident exciting cause," or, what appears to him more probable, "are hereditary." Notwithstanding, however, this expression of his sentiments, he points out, in his chemical examination of corns, a manner of distinguishing such as are natural, from such as are produced by pressure; and in his division of them allots a place to the spina pressa, or such as are produced by pressure. The other divisions are the

hereditaria, the projecta, and fibrosa. All of them, except the fibrosa, are capable of being removed by an operation, but in this species, which is hardly to be ascertained by the appearance, but only by the great pain experienced in attempting to remove it, the author has only found advantage from the employment of an ointment composed of black pitch, yellow wax, and oil, in the proportion of two parts of the pitch and wax, to one of the oil. This ointment he states to be a complete specific against the spina fibrosa, and assumes not a little credit for humanely determining to "favour the world with a present which was never before known," and which, "fortunately for mankind, as well as himself, he was able, after being repeatedly disappointed in various remedies, to discover."

The author does not confine himself, in the present treatise, to corns. He turns his attention also to callosities of various kinds, to the structure, origin, and treatment, of the nails, to the proper use of pediluvium, and to the cure and prevention of blisters in the feet of soldiers on a march. On the last particular we may observe, that few old soldiers are ignorant of the use of the needle and worsted thread, which the author recommends to the notice of commanding officers, for the cure of blistered feet.

In an appendix to this work, we are informed that the author was rejected

by the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh, in his examination for admission into that body; and was also refused a diploma from Aberdeen, on account of the line in which he practised. These circumstances he mentions, though not very judiciously, as

proofs that his business has been regarded as "somewhat disreputable," and that a man of his profession is "called a corn-cutter," and is scarcely "counted worthy of being a member of an honourable society."

ART. XXXV. *The Outlines of the Veterinary Art; or the Principles of Medicine, as applied to a Knowledge of the Structure, Functions, and Economy of the Horse, the Ox, the Sheep, and the Dog; and to a more scientific and successful Manner of treating their various Diseases. The whole illustrated by Anatomical Plates.* By DELABERE BLAINE, Professor in Animal Medicine. 2 Vol. 8vo. pp. about 1400.

THE intention of the author in the present work, is to diffuse more extensively "the benefits of a scientific investigation of the subjects of which it treats," and to teach that art, "among all ranks of persons, which the veterinary college is attempting among individuals." He commences by giving a sketch of the history of medicine in general, as a prelude to the history of veterinary medicine, and an account of the establishment and progress of the veterinary college, which immediately followed. Having treated of those subjects, at some length, he next proceeds to give a general view of comparative anatomy, in which he mentions some of the principal peculiarities of the more important divisions of the animal kingdom. This concludes the first part, which occupies about one-half of the first volume. The second part, which is the most extensive, is taken up with a particular account of the anatomy and physiology of the horse, in which the author describes, with considerable minuteness, the various parts of its body; and compares the exercise of its functions, with that of the functions of man and other animals. The third part is occupied with the practice of veterinary medicine. In this is given a description of the causes, symptoms, and mode of cure of the diseases of the horse, united with a concise account of some of the other domestic animals, as the ox, the sheep, and the dog.

Through the whole of his work, the author pays particular attention to the opinions and practice of the professor of the veterinary college; but at the same time he seems to affect to be imperfectly acquainted with the doctrines which are taught at that institution. His statement of the opinions of Mr. Coleman are, in general, correct; but if

it was intended by him, that those opinions should have any weight with his readers, they ought to have, at least, been divested of the circumstances, from which it might be reasonable to infer that they were represented from casual report only. The author, in the greater part of his work, is unnecessarily prolix, and seems to aim at making it the medium of all the information which may be necessary for those to whom it is addressed. In his description of the foot, however, which is, in every point of view, the most important part of the horse, he apologises for the scantiness of his information, and refers for the further elucidation of the subject, to other authors. The various modes of shoeing, which have occasioned so much difference of opinion among veterinarians, do not seem to have received from the author that degree of attention, which the importance of the subject merits, and which we naturally expected to have been given by one, who professes to teach, among other things, the nature and treatment of the diseases of the horse's foot. The plan of the veterinary college is stated, but when we expect the author to give us the result of his observations on the propriety of its general adoption, we are disappointed to find, that he "is not fully prepared to give a decided opinion upon the subject," but from his "opinion of the professor's abilities," he is "disposed to think highly of any improvement he may offer," though at the same time he adds, that "all men, however eminent, have errors, and which are usually proportioned to their ingenuity."

In that part of his work which treats of the anatomy of the horse, there are some peculiarities mentioned in the structure of that animal, which deserve notice. Besides the six muscles which

exist in the human eye, the eye of the horse has a seventh, which is called the retractor and is formed of a very

"Large and powerful bundle of fibres, that arise from the bottom of the orbit, envelope the optic nerve, and insert themselves around the middle of the globe. This muscle protects the globe of the eye, by very forcibly drawing it into the bottom of the orbit, by which means it protects it from injury: when one part of it acts alone, which there is no doubt but it can, then it assists any of the other muscles: and when the four recti muscles act together, they must likewise assist this muscle in drawing the globe within the orbit, and steadying it.

"The *membrana nictitans* appears an appendage to the retractor muscle, having its actions dependent on that. It appears a firm cartilaginous substance, situated at the inner canthus of the eye, hid by the eye-lids, except a very small portion which is black, and in sight: but under inflammation of the eye, it projects very forward, and which appears produced from the retractor muscle drawing the eye inward to avoid the irritation of the light. The eye being imbedded in soft fatty substance, can be drawn inwards by a displacement of this substance, which is pressed forwards: by this means, this membrane is moved, having no appropriate muscle, but acting always with the retractor: when that draws the eye inwards, this is pushed forwards over the globe, by which it is protected from injury, without totally excluding the light: perhaps, its principal use is that of wiping off any thing that may get into the eye. It is peculiar to quadrupeds and birds, not existing in the human."

The lacrymal sac in the horse is wanting; the ducts conduct the tears immediately into the nostrils, from the *puncta lacrymalia*.

The structure of the stomach is remarkable.

"Its inner covering," says the author, "is composed of two portions, a cuticular and a villous. This species of cuticular covering to nearly one-half of the stomach, is peculiar to such animals as appear destined to live on grain, as horses, asses, rats, and mice; and this forms a third species of stomach, between the two membranous ones of graminivorous animals, and the muscular of the carnivorous tribes, and it may be considered in a slight degree as a species of gizzard, resembling the structure of those animals, as fowls, who have organs to make up for the want of teeth."

The disposition of the circular fibres at the cardia, forms a species of sphincter,

from which, but more particularly from the structure of the throat, the author accounts for the animal being unable to vomit, though nausea may be produced. The *velum pendulum palati* extends much lower down in the horse than in the human subject, and has no uvula. The opening which allows the food to pass down is small; and is, as the author describes it,

"Exactly closed up by a cartilage proper to the larynx, so that except when the horse is swallowing, there is no immediate communication between the mouth and the pharynx. The cavities of the nose open into the pharynx; and the larynx, or the beginning of the tube, carrying the air received by them, opens likewise into the same hollow: as, therefore, the communication between the mouth and pharynx is shut out, it is evident, that the horse cannot breathe by his mouth: and when any air comes by this way, as in coughing, it is only by a convulsive displacement of the *velum palati*; the *œsophagus*, likewise, opens into the pharynx, therefore there is no passage for the food, if it was to return; thus, if a horse's stomach was so formed that he could vomit, he would be suffocated; for the matter would be forced into the nose, unless the same convulsive effort should force it into the mouth: but it was not intended by nature for horses to vomit, as is evident on viewing the first half of the stomach, which is cuticular, and, therefore, has not probably any vermicular motion, consequently they can be but little likely to have a retrograde peristaltic motion; independent of the strong cardiac fibres. But in sheep and dogs, whose stomach is not partly cuticular, and who can hence vomit, the *velum palati* is not so extensive, and they likewise can breathe through the mouth."

"In the horse there is no gall bladder; the hepatic duct is continued from its origin at the centre of the concave portion of the liver, to its termination within the duodenum a few inches from the pylorus, in company with, or not far distant from, the pancreatic duct."

In the practical part of this treatise, the author seems to speak from considerable experience, though he does not profess to have made many additions to the more improved practice of the present day.

Some curious experiments are mentioned in the chapters on glanders and farcy, which were made with a view to determine the identity of the two diseases, and to ascertain whether the blood was infected in the former.



"By Mr. Coleman's experiments," says the author, "it is proved beyond a doubt, that farcy and glanders are specifically the same disease, but affecting different parts: to establish this, horses have been inoculated with the matter of farcy, and glanders has been produced; which put the matter beyond a doubt. Farther, Mr. Coleman produced glanders in a sound animal by the inoculation with the matter of glanders. This Monsieur St. Bell asserted could not be done. Farcy has likewise been produced by the same means, but it appears that it was some time before it could be effected; but it has been produced by Mr. White, an ingenious veterinarian. It cannot, therefore, be inferred, that because the farcy and glanders are so different in their apparent situations, that they are distinct diseases: every poison has its preference of parts; and likewise the same poison, under different modifications, affects different parts. The first and secondary attacks of syphilis, are very different, and the parts they affect remote from each other. The poison of the plague inflames the lymphatic glands; yet it is by no means certain which of them it shall attack; the poison of farcy affects the superficial lymphatics: that modification of it, or that state in glanders which produce ulcers, does it in the line of the absorbents of the nose: here then is a considerable similarity.

"Mr. Coleman endeavours to prove from this disease, how much we may carry any favourite theory too far. Mr. Hunter supposed, and succeeded in establishing a theory, that no poison could permanently affect the blood; and that it was subject to no disease, but inflammation: for that as soon as any poison was received it was deposited upon some solid part; for that if the blood was specifically affected, that fluid universally circulating, all parts would be affected alike: to this Mr. Coleman objects with great ingenuity, that every disease must have its particular seat, and it may be added, that every part almost has a disposition to take on some diseases more than others; thus the virus of glanders attack the nose, and when under the modifications of farcy, the superficial absorbents: but that the blood is still affected throughout.

"To prove this Mr. Coleman bled an ass from the jugular vein till he was to all appearance dead, when he introduced the blood from the carotid artery of a horse labouring under glanders till the ass was re-animated. In a few days the most malignant glanders appeared. Another ass was inoculated from this which became glandered. This experiment, I think, throws great light on this complaint, and, indeed, on pathology in general; and we may hence be led to hope,

that internal remedies may be more useful than external, which have been thought to be the only means by which we could hope for a cure: for provided we could destroy the poison existing in the blood, and keeping up the action in the part; the action, or at least the specific part of it, might cease in the affected part, and we might induce a healing process by the usual means. As such our only hope must consist in exciting a new action in the system, whereby the glanderous one will be suspended, till by the continuance of the new action, the virus of glanders is completely expelled by the change the fluids naturally undergo."

The chapter on founder contains a singular instance of the ignorance of farriers, with regard to the nature and origin of this complaint.

"This disease," the author states, "though a most destructive one, has been among farriers in general, always mistaken for an affection either in the loins or chest; and hence their applications being made to these parts, the disease has usually terminated in the death of the horse, or in incurable lameness. But founder is confined to the feet, and has nothing to do with any other part of the body, except by the symptomatic fever it occasions; and is a simple inflammation of the internal vascular part of the foot. It may be confined to one foot, or it may attack the whole four: but it is more usual to take place in the fore feet, from the effects of the weight being thrown upon them in hard-riding. When the inflammation attacks the fore feet, the hinder feet are brought under the horse, as near the line of the centre of gravity as possible, by which means the fore feet are relieved from a great part of the pressure. The horse when moved, still continues his hind feet as much as possible in the same position: and hence farriers have been led to suppose the disease in the loins, and have treated it accordingly. When it attacks the hind feet, the body is thrown forwards, and the fore feet are then placed under the chest to approach the central line, and thus to relieve the hind feet of the weight: the instability of the body when the horse is forced to move one of his fore feet, in this case, by the great weight thrown upon the other, has led farriers to conclude the chest affected, and they have denominated the disease from this, *chest founder*."

A considerable number of errors occur in the course of this work, which are not noticed in the table of errata, and for which the author must, therefore, be considered as responsible.

**ART. XXXVI.** *A Compendium of the Veterinary Art; containing an accurate Description of all the Diseases to which the Horse is liable; their Symptoms and Treatment; the Anatomy and Physiology of the Horse's Foot; Observations on the Principles and Practice of Shoeing; of Feeding and Exercise; the Stable, &c. Illustrated by Plates. By JAMES WHITE, Veterinary Surgeon to his Majesty's First, or Royal Dragoons. pp. 232. 14 plates.*

THIS is a useful little work, not only giving a general idea of the nature and treatment of the diseases to which horses are subject, but as affording a short, but correct view of some of the

peculiarities of that animal, and of the late improvements in the art of shoeing adopted by the veterinary college. The plates are very illustrative of the descriptions.

**ART. XXXVII.** *A Treatise on the Diseases of Horses; in which the various Causes and Symptoms are plainly and accurately delineated, and a Method of Cure recommended, conformable to practical Observations and Experience. To the Work is subjoined a Variety of efficacious and useful Prescriptions. Dedicated by permission to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. By JOHN DENNY, Veterinary Surgeon to His Majesty's Tenth, or Prince of Wales's own Regiment of Light Dragoons. 8vo. pp. 151.*

THE principles adopted by the author seem to be, in general, those of the veterinary college; but his long and extensive practice in the diseases of horses,

has enabled him to speak on the subject from actual observation and experience.

**ART. XXXVIII.** *Observations on the Structure, Economy, and Diseases of the Foot of the Horse, and on the Principles and Practice of Shoeing. By EDWARD COLEMAN, Professor of the Veterinary College, principal Veterinary Surgeon to the British Cavalry, and to his Majesty's most Honourable Board of Ordnance, and Honorary Member of the Board of Agriculture. Vol. I. pp. 128.—1798. Vol. II. pp. 251—1802.*

THE veterinary art has deservedly risen to a considerable degree of usefulness and respectability. While the exercise of it was confined to an ignorant and opinionated set of men from the lowest orders of society, its improvement was deemed unworthy the attention of the gentleman, or the man of education. But since its importance has been acknowledged, and its professors have obtained a higher rank in the estimation of the public, many men of respectable character and acquirements have come forward to cultivate and to practise it. The veterinary college has had a considerable share in promoting the respectability of the art, and under the auspices of its present ingenious professor, much has already been done in promoting the laudable purposes of its establishment. Considerable opposition to the improvement of rational practices, must necessarily be expected from the many who are interested in preserving the empiricism of the veterinary art; but when innovations are found to be justified by experience, such attempts to resist them, must soon be given up.

The volumes of which we are now to give our readers an account, appeared at considerable intervals. The first was published at a period far removed from that to which we principally confine ourselves in our review; but as the subject of it is intimately connected with that of the second, we think it will be most satisfactory to give a general view of both in the same article.

The first volume is occupied with the description of the external parts of the hoof, from which is deduced the method of shoeing, adopted by the veterinary college.

The best mode for obtaining a knowledge of the natural shape of a horse's foot, appears to the author, to be that of inspecting one which has never been shod. As a foot of this kind is uniformly round, he infers that this is the shape which we ought to aim at preserving, in shoeing a horse; for if it is altered, the parts within are pressed upon, and, being extremely sensible, lameness is thereby produced.

The parts of the hoof are divided into the crust, sole, frogs, and bars; and the cavity of the crust is filled by

the parts within it to a mathematical nicety. The weight of the animal, according to the author, is supported by the union of the crust with the coffin bone internally, and not by means of the sole or frog. This union is effected by the horny laminae of the internal and concave part of the crust, which are united, in a manner resembling the dove tailing of carpenters, to the sensible laminae of the coffin bone. The sole, the frog, and the bars, which are horny and insensible externally, are united within, to parts which are very vascular and sensible, and which are called the sensible sole, sensible frog, and sensible bars. The shape of the frog enables it, when in its healthy and natural state, to act as a stop to the animal, and by its ascent and descent in motion, it tends to keep the heels of the horse in their natural and proper state of expansion, and to act also as an elastic spring, and thus prevent concussion.

The improvements in shoeing have been deduced from the nature and uses of the frog. This part, in the usual mode of practice, is cut away, and hence is not allowed to press upon the ground; that pressure is necessary for the performance of its intended functions, and is also requisite for preserving it in health. When the frog is cut away, it becomes soft and inflamed, the heels of the horse become contracted, and the shape of the foot oblong; but when it receives appropriate pressure, it acquires a firmness, and callosity, which enables it to resist the application of any offending cause.

In the common mode of shoeing, which has been long in use in this country, the bars and part of the frog are cut away with the butteris, before the shoe is applied. The shoes are thicker at the heel than the toe; the upper surface is concave, the under convex, and four nails are placed in each quarter. The inevitable consequence of this conformation, the author is of opinion, is to contract the heels. The support given by the bars in their natural state, is taken away, the contact of the frog with the ground, and, of consequence, the side pressure, is prevented; and the nails, which are placed at the quarters, have a great tendency to diminish the natural degree of expansion in the hoof. At the same time, from

the oblique growth of the crust downwards, it soon becomes too large for the shoe, and the shoe, in a short time, is found to be "eating into the sole," thus producing corns and lameness.

According to the principles of the veterinary college, pressure upon the sole by the shoe, is to be carefully avoided, while the bars and frog are to be studiously preserved. In preparing the hoof for the shoe, a portion of the sole, "between the whole length of the bars and crust," is to be removed with a drawing knife. By this means, the sole is made concave or hollow, and is prevented from ever being in contact with the shoe. On the necessity of this, the author particularly insists; for, says he,

"If there be any one part of the practice of shoeing, more important than the rest, it is this removal of the sole, between the bars and crust. When this operation is performed, the horse will always be free from corns, whatever may be the form of the shoe; but, if the sole is suffered to be flat at the heels, and pressed upon by the shoe, it is of very little importance what kind of shoe is applied. Every groom, and every smith, is fully convinced that the sole will not bear pressure; and to prevent this effect they remove the whole of the bars, by opening the heels, and applying a concave shoe. We have endeavoured to prove, that the destruction of the bars is always improper; that this practice is the remote cause of corns, the very disease which it is intended to prevent; and that the bars are very necessary to preserve the circular form of the hoof. Besides this, the heels of the shoe should be made to rest on the junction of the bars with the crust; but if the bars are removed, then the shoe is supported by the crust only, and not by the solid broad basis of crust and bars united."

Shoes may be either short or long; the short ones, which are only proper in summer, should terminate at about three-fourths of an inch from the heels of the crust; the long ones should always extend so far, as to rest upon the junction of the bars with the crust. The nails should be principally confined to the toes of the hoof; but as the long shoes would be liable to come off, if too much of their extremities were left without nails, we must only leave about an inch and half of the heel of the shoe, without them. Hunters, which are very apt to lose their shoes, must have an additional nail on the outside quarter. The nails employed at the veterinary college, have conical heads, by which

form, they always keep their hold, even if partially worn away.

As the toe of the shoe is worn down much faster than the heel, it should be considerably thicker; but particular attention is always necessary in accommodating the shoe to the shape of the foot, and in avoiding a too speedy application of the new principles, to a horse which has been accustomed to the old practice. We are to aim at keeping the frog and the heel of the shoe in a proper line, in order that the former may be in contact with the ground; and when this is attended to in heels which are not contracted, the author is of opinion that "they never can contract."

The second volume of this valuable work, pursues the subject begun in the first, and supports the principles laid down in it with additional arguments and illustration.

The author commences with a description of the bones, ligaments, and cartilages of the foot of the horse. He then examines the coverings of the coffin bone, namely the sensible laminae, sensible sole, sensible frog, and sensible bars: and afterwards describes the muscles and tendons by which the bones are put in motion; and the arteries, veins, nerves, and absorbents. He concludes by answering some objections against the practice of the veterinary college, and considering how far a different practice is justified by the same principles.

We cannot go far into the descriptive part of this volume, on account of our readers wanting those helps which are afforded by the elegant plates which accompany it. We shall, however, endeavour to select such parts, as may be most interesting in a physiological or practical view. The principal bones connected with this description, are the cannon bone, large pastern, small pastern, and coffin; which last is entirely covered with the hoof. But besides these, there are often smaller ones, which are extremely useful in bearing weight, facilitating motion, and preventing concussion. There are the two splent bones, which are long and small, running down the side of the cannon bone, and articulated above, but not below; the two sesamoid bones, which are placed at the back part of the articulation of the cannon and large pastern bone, and are connected to both; and the navicular

bone, which is joined to the back part of the small pastern and coffin bones. The navicular and coffin bones bear the whole weight of the body, and descend at every step, forcing down the sensible and horny soles; but as these bones are firmly connected together, the weight of the body ultimately rests upon the connection of the horny with the sensible laminae mentioned in the first volume. The laminae, which resemble the mushroom in appearance, and are about 500 each in number,

"At every step act as so many elastic springs; and the navicular bone receiving part of the weight from the small pastern bone, and not articulating with any bone below, at the same instant that the laminae elongate, the navicular bone descends, and this motion of the navicular assists the laminae to prevent concussion. As the small pastern bone imparts all its superincumbent weight to the coffin and navicular bone, the horny sole, the horny bars, and the toe of the horny frog, would now receive the burthen, if the laminae of the coffin bone were not firmly united to the laminae on the inside of the crust. But although the weight be sustained by the laminae, yet these substances, in consequence of their elastic structure, must in some degree give way, whenever the lower edge of the crust meets the ground. This elongation of the laminae is, indeed, one great excellence of that wonderful piece of mechanism; for, if the same extent of surface, and the same degree of strength of union, had been formed of bone, or any other inelastic substance, concussion or fracture would probably have followed."

That the whole weight of the body rests upon the junction of the horny and sensible laminae, the author was satisfied from having seen

"Many horses with canker in all their feet, that is, with the lower part of the foot soft, without horny frogs, horny soles, or horny bars, and yet with no disposition in the coffin bone of either foot to separate and descend from the crust."

But in order to place this beyond all doubt, he made the following experiment.

"The soles, bars, and frogs, had been taken away from both the fore feet of a horse: I saw the animal a few minutes after the operation, and he was trotted several yards without any alteration in the situation of the foot or coffin bone. To increase the weight of the animal on the laminae of the fore feet, the off and near fore foot were alternately taken off the ground for several minutes, and the coffin bones were after-

wards found in the same situation as before. It also happened, that on placing the hand on the loins of this horse, he kicked with great violence, and repeated his stroke several times. Now, during the period his hind legs were in the air, all the weight of the animal was sustained by the laminae of two feet, and yet this extraordinary weight made not the smallest change in the situation of the foot bones."

The descent of the horny and sensible soles seems to be necessary, in order to allow the laminae to elongate and act the purpose of a spring; and that this actually does happen in the proportion that the elongation takes place, was proved by an experiment, in which

"The space between the shoe and horny sole was filled with a quantity of plaster of Paris, made of a sufficient thickness not to escape by the motions of the limb. The horse was then walked, in which action there appeared but a very trifling displacement of the plaster; but, on trotting the animal, which added force to weight, a large quantity of the plaster was displaced from under the shoe. I repeated this experiment," continues the author, "with stiff clay, and the same result followed. It has also been found, that a small stone, introduced with ease at the heels, between the shoe and horny sole, or the shoe being in contact with the sole, will frequently, while the horse is standing still, or only walking, occasion no inconvenience; but when his motions are quickened, the pain and lameness become manifest."

The effects of pressure upon the frogs in expanding the heels of horses, will appear from the following quotation.

"The superior part of the sensible frog being received between the two side cartilages, in proportion as the horny frog receives pressure, the cartilages, when in health, expand or recede from each other; but when the cartilages, from ossification, contraction of the hoof, or any other cause, are deprived of motion, the upper part of the sensible frog is confined between two fixed points: whereas, in the natural state, when the horny frog meets the ground, the superior portion of the sensible frog ascends between the side cartilages, and the wedge-like form of that organ necessarily opens the heels of the side cartilages. The expansion of the side cartilages at every ascent of the horny

and sensible frogs, not only gives a powerful spring to the animal, and enables the frogs to complete their function, but the direction of the growth of the crust at the quarters and heels, is absolutely governed by the motion of the side cartilages.

"If the horny frog has no pressure, the cartilages are at rest, and the heat of the stable evaporates the moisture of the crust, and contracts the quarters and heels of the hoof. Heat produces the same effect on the living hoof, as on every kind of dead or living horn: catgut, leather, hair, and, I believe, all animal substances are also diminished by heat. When the water is evaporated, the solid parts contract; but the crust at the interior part is preserved from any considerable contraction, in consequence of being opposed by the coffin-bone; but the upper part of the quarters, and the heels of the hoof, being placed opposite to cartilage, a substance naturally elastic, and incapable of much resistance, the overbearing contraction of the crust presses the cartilages towards each other, and narrows the heels. So long as the frog uniformly touches the ground, this effect will not take place; for the wedge-like form of that organ being pressed upwards between the cartilages, prevents the new crust at the quarters of the cornet from contraction. The weight and action of the animal forcing the frogs obliquely upward, laterally expands the side cartilages; and it is this expansion at the heels which puts the soft newly formed crust on the stretch, and directs its future growth obliquely outward. The crust at its origin, immediately below the hair, is very thin, and of a soft elastic nature; and, at the quarters and heels, is always governed in its growth downward by the natural expansion, or by the morbid contraction of the cartilages."

From the contraction which takes place in the circumstances now alluded to, the sides of the sensible frog are pressed upon, and the inflammation and suppuration called *thrush*, produced.

The distribution of the blood vessels in the horse's foot, is extremely curious. It seems to the author, to be intended, not only to obviate the effects of accidental interruptions, by the frequent anastomose which take place, but to retard the motion of the blood, and thus to prepare it for the secretion of horn.

ART. XXXIX. *A Dictionary of the Veterinary Art, &c. Part the First; to be completed in Sixteen Parts, to be published Monthly, forming Two handsome Volumes in Quarto, with near Fifty Plates. By THOMAS BOARDMAN, Veterinary Surgeon to the Third (or King's own) Regiment of Dragoons.*

FROM the title of this work it may be seen, that it takes a wide range over the principal sciences, introductory to the study of medicine in general. In



some points of view, the plan may be useful; but, as an introduction to the veterinary art, it does not appear to possess any particular advantages over a systematic treatise on the same subject. The author seems to have availed himself of the best and latest information in the different articles which compose the first part of his work. The following quotation on the mode of ascertaining the age of horses, may be interesting to some of our readers, and will serve as a specimen of the author's style.

**"AGE OF A HORSE.**—This is easily known by his mouth, till he comes eight, after which the usual marks wear out. A horse, like many other brute animals, has his teeth divided into three ranks, viz. his fore-teeth, which are flat and smooth, his tushes, and his back-teeth. His back-teeth, or jaw-teeth, are called his grinders, being those by which a horse chews and grinds his provender, and are twenty-four in number, twelve above, and twelve below: they are strong double teeth with sharp edges; but when a horse grows old, they wear much smooth.

"The first that grow are his foal teeth, which begin to appear a few months after he is foaled: they are twelve in number, six above, and six below; and are easily distinguished from the teeth that come afterwards, by their smallness and whiteness, not unlike the fore teeth of a man.

"When the colt is about two years and a half old, he casts the four middlemost of his foal teeth, viz. two above and two below; but some do not cast any of their foal teeth till they are near three years old. The new teeth are easily distinguished from the foal teeth, being much stronger, and always twice their size, and are called the **INCISORS** or **GATHERERS**, being those by which a horse nips off the grass, when he is feeding abroad in the fields, or, in the house, gathers his hay from the rack. When a horse has got these four teeth complete, he is reckoned three years old.

"When he is about three and a half, or in the spring before he is four years old, he casts out four more of his foal teeth, viz. two above, and two below, one on each side the nippers, or middle teeth: so that when you look into a horse's mouth, and see the two middle teeth full grown, and none of the foal teeth, except the common teeth, remaining, you may conclude he is four that year, about April or May. Some indeed are later colts, but that makes little alteration in the mouth.

"The tushes appear near the same time with the four last-mentioned teeth, sometimes sooner than these, and sometimes not till after a horse is full four years old: they are curved like the tushes of other beasts,

only in a young horse they have a sharp edge all round the top, and on both sides, the inside being somewhat grooved and flatish, inclined to a hollowness.

"When a horse's tushes do not appear for some time after the foal teeth are cast, and the new ones come in their room, it is generally owing to the foal teeth having been pulled out before their time, by the breeders or other dealers in horses, to make a colt of three years old appear like one of four, that he may be the more saleable; for when any of the foal teeth have been pulled out, the others soon come in their places; but the tushes having none that go before them, can never make their appearance till their proper time, viz. when a horse is about four, or coming four; and therefore one of the surest marks to know a four-years-old horse, is by his tushes, which are then very small, and sharp on the top and edges.

"When a horse comes five, or rather in the spring before he is five, the corner teeth begin to appear, and at first but just equal with the gums, being filled with flesh in the middle. The tushes are also by this time grown to a more distinct size, though not very large: they likewise continue rough and sharp on the top and edges. But the corner teeth are now most to be remarked; they differ from the middle teeth in being more fleshy on the inside, and the gums generally look rawish upon their first shooting out, whereas the others do not appear discoloured. The middle teeth arrive at their full growth in less than three weeks, but the corner teeth grow leisurely, and are seldom much above the gums till a horse is full five: they differ also from the other fore teeth in this, that they somewhat resemble a shell; and thence are called the **SHELL TEETH**, because they environ the flesh in the middle half way round; and as they grow, the flesh within disappears, leaving a distinct hollow-ness and openness on the inside. When a horse is full five, these teeth are generally about the thickness of a crown-piece above the gums. From five to five and a half they will grow about a quarter of an inch high, or more; and when a horse is full six, they will be near half an inch, and in some large horses a full half-inch, above the gums.

"The corner teeth in the upper jaw fall out before those in the under, so that the upper corner teeth are seen before those below; on the contrary, the tushes in the under gums come on before those in the upper.

"When a horse is full six years old, the hollow-ness on the inside begins visibly to fill up, and that which was at first fleshy, grows into a brownish spot, not unlike the eye of a dried garden bean, and continues so till he is seven; with this difference only, that the tooth is more filled up, and the mark, or spot, becomes faint, and of a lighter colour. At eight, the mark in most horses

is quite worn out, though some retain the vestiges of it a long time; and those who have not had a good deal of experience, may sometimes be deceived by taking a horse of nine or ten years old for one of eight. It is at this time only, when a horse is past mark, that one can easily err in knowing the age of a horse; for what practices are used to make a very young horse or colt appear older than he is, by pulling out the foal teeth before their time, may be discovered by feeling along the edges where the tushes grow, for they may be felt in the gums before the corner teeth are put forth; whereas, if the corner teeth come in some months before the tushes rise in the gums, we may reasonably suspect that the foal teeth have been pulled out at three years old.

"It will, perhaps, be needless to mention the tricks that are used to make a false mark in a horse's mouth, by hollowing the tooth with a graver, and burning a mark with a small hot iron; because those who are acquainted with the true marks, will easily discover the cheat by the size and colour of the teeth, by the roundness and bluntness of the tushes, by the colour of the false mark, which is generally blacker, and more impressed than the true mark, and by many other visible tokens, which denote the advanced age of a horse.

"After the horse has passed his eighth year, and sometimes at seven, nothing certain can be known by the mouth. It must, however, be remembered, that some horses have but indifferent mouths when they are young, and soon lose their mark; others have their mouths good for a long time, their teeth being white, even, and regular, till they are sixteen years old and upwards,

together with many other marks of freshness and vigour; but when a horse comes to be very old, it may be discovered by several indications, the constant attendants of age, viz. his gums wear away insensibly, leaving his teeth long and naked at their roots: the teeth also grow yellow, and sometimes brownish. The bars of the mouth, which, in a young horse, are always fleshy, and form so many distinct ridges, are, in an old horse, lean, dry, and smooth, with little or no rising. The eye-pits in a young horse (except those come of old stallions) are generally filled up with flesh, look plump and smooth; whereas in an old horse, they are sunk and hollow, and make them look ghastly, and with a melancholy aspect. There are also other marks which discover a horse to be very old, viz. grey horses turn white, and many of them all over flea-bitten, except their joints. This, however, happens sometimes later, and sometimes sooner, according to the variety of colour and constitution. Black horses are apt to grow grey over their eye-brows, and very often over a good part of their face, especially those who have a star or blaze fringed round with grey when they are young. All horses when very old, sink more or less in their backs, and some horses, that are naturally long backed, grow so hollow with age, that it is scarce possible to fit them with a saddle. Of this kind are several Spanish and Barbary horses, and many of the Danish and Flanders breed. The joints also grow stiff with old age, and their knees and hocks bend so, that they are apt to trip and stumble upon the least descent, though the way be smooth, and no ways rugged. After which they can be of little use to the owner."

## CHAPTER XVIII.

## GENERAL SCIENCE.

THE publications that properly belong to this division of our volume are works on general science, including cyclopedias, and the transactions of philosophical societies. The scientific exertions of the last year are truly honourable to the British nation, both for their own intrinsic merit, and their clear superiority when compared with those of any other country. The volume of Transactions of the Royal Society of London supports the long established fame of this celebrated institution; an institution which, from its origin to the present time, has most zealously, and successfully, devoted itself to the cultivation of experimental science. The Royal Society of Edinburgh, has not been wholly silent. The Royal Irish Academy, by the publication of its eighth volume, has added to a reputation already very honourable, and given a pledge for the vigour of its future exertions. The Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, humble and unobtrusive, ungraced with royal patronage, and chiefly upheld by the abilities of a few individuals, has given to the world a half volume of uncommon value, and is occupying a high place in the public esteem. Dr. Rees's new Cylopedia has commenced a brilliant career, and will, we doubt not, proceed with unimpaired, and even augmented claims on the public approbation.

ART. I. *Cyclopædia; or a new Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences: formed upon a more enlarged Plan of Arrangement than the Dictionary of Mr. Chambers, comprehending the various Articles of that Work, with Additions and Improvements, together with the new Subjects of Biography, Geography, and History, and adapted to the present State of Literature and Science.* By ABRAHAM REES, D. D. F. R. S. with the Assistance of eminent professional Gentlemen. 4to. Vol. I. (From A to AMA.)

WE believe that the dictionary of Mr. Chambers was the first attempt at a general collection and alphabetical arrangement of all the knowledge that existed in his time relative to the arts and sciences. Considering the difficulties arising from the novelty of the plan, and its vast extent, from the multiplicity of information, and inexhaustible patience and industry required in the original undertaker of such a work, our respect and surprise are equally excited

at his splendid, though imperfect, success. When a second edition was called for, the important task of revision and correction, and of supplying the large additions which were rendered necessary by the rapid advance of the experimental sciences, was entrusted to Dr. Rees. It would not have been easy to have made a better choice: the increased size of the dictionary is a visible testimony to the care and labour of the learned editor, and the large, though

for the most part unacknowledged, use that has been made of it by the authors of all succeeding cyclopædias and dictionaries of science in the English language, and by the writers of the French *Encyclopédié*, is a striking proof of its intrinsic merit. The interval that has elapsed since the publication of Dr. Rees's edition of Chambers, has been distinguished for nothing more than the immense acceleration of the march of science and the arts: investigations on every subject have been pursued with a minuteness and comprehensiveness of which there had existed before only few examples; and no human intellect is now sufficiently capacious to admit even a very imperfect outline of the various and complicated objects of human knowledge.

The second edition of Chambers, bulky and expensive as it was, experienced and deserved a large and rapid sale; encouraged by which the proprietors have commenced the publication of a new one. Two volumes have already made their appearance; but our remarks must be at present confined to the first. The alteration in size from the cumbersome folio form of the preceding edition, to the handsome quarto of the present, is an improvement sufficiently obvious indeed, but not the less real and important. Another circumstance in its favour is, that it is superintended by the abilities and matured experience of the former editor, assisted in various departments by men of learning and eminent professional skill: the names of these coadjutors have been published, and we are justified in expecting much from a work thus supported.

Among the *mathematical* articles of this volume are several of considerable importance, which, in general, are drawn up with great accuracy, and manifest the hand of a master. One great excellence common to them all is, that the sources whence the knowledge required on any subject may be drawn are well pointed out; so that a student who wishes to pursue his inquiries to a greater extent than this work from its very nature affords him, is directed to a catalogue of authors which, perhaps, errs sometimes rather on the side of excess than defect.

The most laboured article is *algebra*; in the composition of which much assist-

ance has been derived from the labours of Dr. Hutton. The history of this branch of science is well given to the days of Vieta, who understood the theory of equations, where the number of roots was equal to that of the highest index of the unknown quantity. After this time a hypothesis was admitted, for the honour of which a contest took place between the French and English writers; and Wallis is treated with a great deal of acrimony by the historian Montucla. As soon as the doctrine of the generation of equations had taken place of the theory and mode of investigation pointed out by Vieta, inquiries were daily made into the nature of positive, and negative, and impossible roots, and researches of this kind were carried to the greatest extent by Waring. Within the last fifty years the whole of this doctrine has been called in question; and as the innovation after Vieta's time has been so well explained, we expected to have also found an account of the resistance opposed to it, and the attempts made to restore the ancient method of demonstration. Here, however, we have been disappointed; for though Baron Maseres is honourably mentioned, yet his peculiar merit is forgotten, and no reference is made to the work published by him nearly fifty years ago on the negative signs: nor is it mentioned that he and Mr. Frend follow a system in their publications of algebra, by which every consideration of what are called negative or impossible roots is excluded. As Mr. Frend has laid down a different classification of equations, determining the greatest number of roots of which an equation is susceptible by the number of unknown terms, and not by the highest index of the unknown term, this distinction should also have been noticed: the defect, however, may be repaired under the article *equation*. Sir I. Newton is said to have discovered the binomial theorem; but as particular notice is taken of "the many valuable papers" of Baron Maseres on this theorem, we trust that when we come to the particular article, a due degree of merit will be assigned to the original inventors of this curious and hitherto not sufficiently developed theorem.

Under the article *acceleration* reference is made to Mr. Robertson's two propositions on this subject; but though it is said that "the laws of accelerated mo-

tion are demonstrated in a manner somewhat different" from that which had been given, yet we are not informed in what this difference consists, although it might have been shown in a few lines. The law of acceleration is considered when the force is constant, and the proper formulæ are given; but in treating of *acceleration on inclined planes*, it is not pointed out that in this case the accelerated force is represented by the height, by the length, when the force of gravity is unity; and thence every case described respecting velocity, time, and space, admits of an easy solution. For variable forces the proper fluxional expressions are given; but we should have been glad to have found the Newtonian theorem mentioned, that in the beginning of motion the force, though variable, may be considered as constant; and hence a law is laid down for the measuring of all variable forces, namely, that they are proportionate to the spaces directly, and to the squares of the times inversely.

Under the article *alligation*, the rules are given; but the principle on which those rules are founded is not laid down. We notice this because there is nothing by which the judgment is so much impaired as the acting by rules from authority merely; and as in these cases very few lines more would have rendered the article complete. Besides, as such a defect might, without particular care, creep into other articles, and thus deform a work which promises to be the most perfect monument of science yet erected in this country, this early mention may prevent its future recurrence.

In the articles of mathematical biography D'Alembert makes the most conspicuous figure; and from the justice done to that very distinguished character, we shall expect a worthy summary of the scientific efforts of Boscovich, of whom but little is yet known in this country. *Aerostation*, *air-gun*, and *air-pump*, are laboured, and, upon the whole, very excellent articles. In *adhesion*, we are presented with a judicious summary of the discoveries of Dr. Brook Taylor, Morveau, Achard, and Dutoir, on this obscure, but very interesting and important subject. The article *air* is not to be commended; but its omissions may be supplied, and its errors rectified,

under the words *atmosphere* and *gas*, to which indeed the reader is referred.

The *biography*, though well drawn up, appears to us somewhat too long; a similar disproportion also takes place in some of the geographical and historical articles, especially *Abyssinia*, which is compiled largely from Bruce; *New Albion*, copied from Vancouver; and *Aleppo*, for which Dr. Russell's elegant work supplied easily accessible materials. *Alexandria* furnishes an extremely interesting article, in which the history of the town is brought from the date of its foundation by the Macedonian prince, down to the period of its surrender to the British forces under Lord Hutchinson. *Africa* might have been done better; no notice is taken of Browne's discoveries in Darfur. Two important mountainous chains, the *Alps* and *Alay* mountains, are treated of largely, as they deserve: but the mineralogy of the latter is unintelligible to mere English readers, on account of Mr. Tooke's mis-translation of his German authorities, this gentleman's View of Russia being the only work referred to by the writer of this article.

The *botany* is chiefly taken from Professor Martyn's edition of Miller, and is therefore, on the whole, very respectable. The article *aloe* deserves particular commendation: *agaric*, however, is extremely imperfect; Dr. Withering's English Botany is the only book that has been here consulted; and the curious and important discoveries of Hedwig, with regard to the fructification of this genus, are entirely omitted. This serious defect, however, we trust will be repaired in the article *fungi*.

But few of the *zoological* articles occur in this volume, and we have observed a little confusion in their arrangement, which ought to be noticed in order to be avoided in future: the Linnæan genera are very properly adopted, and the species are for the most part described under the generic names; but the species belonging to the genus *accipenser* are unnecessarily and irregularly referred to their English trivial names. The article *actinia* is extremely well drawn up, and shews the hand of a master. *Alauda* and *alca* are also ably executed; from the latter of which we shall select the following specimen:

"*A. impennis*, *A. major* of Brisson, mer-



*gus americanus* of Clusius, *choenolopex* of Moehring, *goirfugel* of Clusius, *Nieremb.* and *Jonst.* Penguin of Worm. Will. Ray, Martin, Edwards, &c. *gare* of Sibb. grand pingouin of Buffon, and great auk of Pennant and Latham, has its bill compressed and furrowed on both sides, and has an oval spot on each side before the eyes. Its length to the end of its toes is three feet; the bill to the corner of the mouth is  $4\frac{1}{4}$  inches; part of the upper mandible is covered with short, black, velvety feathers; the head, neck, back, tail and wings are of a glossy black, the tips of the lesser quill-feathers white, the whole under-side of the body white, and the legs black. The wings are so small as to be useless for flight, their length, from the tip of the longest quill-feathers to the first joint, being only  $4\frac{1}{4}$  inches; and these birds are therefore observed by seamen never to wander beyond soundings, and by the sight of them they are able to ascertain the nearness of the land. They can scarcely even walk, and of course continue on the water, except in the time of breeding. According to Mr. Martin, they breed on the isle of St. Kilda, appearing there in the beginning of May and retiring in the middle of June. They lay one egg, six inches long, of a white colour; and if the egg be taken away, no other is laid in the same season. Some eggs are irregularly marked with purplish lines crossing each other, and others are blotched black and ferruginous about the thicker end. Mr. Macaulay, in his history of St. Kilda, p. 156, observes, that this bird does not visit that island annually, but sometimes keeps away for several years together; and that it lays its eggs close to the sea-mark, as it is incapable, by the shortness of its wings, of mounting higher. Birds of this species are said not to be numerous; they seldom appear on the coasts of Norway. They are met with near Newfoundland and Iceland. They do not resort annually to the Ferroe islands, and they rarely descend more to the south in the European seas. They feed on the cyclopterus, and such fish, and on the rose-root and other plants. The skins are used by the Esquimaux for garments. The *akpa* of the Greenlanders, which is about the size of a duck, with the back black and the belly white, and which can neither run nor fly, is supposed by M. Buffon to be this bird. These birds live in flocks at sea, and never approach the land except in very severe cold; and in this case they are so numerous that they cover the water like a thick dark fog. The Greenlanders drive them on the coast and catch them with the hand, as they can neither run nor fly. At the mouth of the Ball river they afford subsistence to the inhabitants in the months of February and March, and their down serves to line winter garments."

*Agriculture*, we confess, disappointed us; it is a very meagre article, and unworthy of the company in which it appears.

The *mineralogy* is compiled with care and judgment from original authorities. In some of the first articles, as *adamantine spar* and *agate*, we see none but French and English authors cited; but in the succeeding ones, we find that Emmerling, Widenmann, and the ablest German writers, have been consulted; the latter articles are, therefore, in every respect, better than the former ones.

The *chemistry* begins respectably, and improves as it advances. The article *acid* might have been fuller without detriment. *Affinity* is a long and, upon the whole, satisfactory statement of the discoveries that have been made, and the principles that have been established on this important subject. *Alchemy* is a cool and well-written article, which we would quote if its length did not prohibit us. *Alcohol*, *alum*, and *alumine*, are admirable examples of lucid arrangement and extensive research. The most original article is *alloy*, we shall therefore select a portion of this by way of specimen:

"The method that is given in most chemical books for ascertaining whether a mass of metal is a real alloy, or only a mechanical mixture, consists in fusing it with as little heat as possible, and keeping it in this state till its component parts separate from each other, like oil from water, according to their respective specific gravities; and perhaps there is upon the whole no other way equally simple and practicable of effecting this; at the same time that it is liable to a number of errors. In the first place, when experimenting at high temperatures, it is very difficult, and indeed impossible, to preserve an equal degree of heat through the process, and it is highly probable that a metallic combination may take place at a mere melting heat, which is decomposed by a higher one, or *vice versa*. If this may happen in alloys that consist of only two materials, it is still more likely to do so when three or a still greater number of metals are united into one mass. Thus, if an alloy made of one part zinc and two of mercury, be mixed with another of one part bismuth and one mercury, the whole may be fused together by a heat just sufficient to make them flow, may be kept in fusion for a considerable time, and then poured into a melting cone without any separation of the constituent parts; but when the alloy is heated so as to make the mercury boil, the

greater part of the zinc immediately rises to the surface and separates, owing to the destruction of the equilibrium between the antagonist affinities, by the presence of a certain quantity of caloric.

"Again, supposing no change in the affinities to take place, if the mixed metals are nearly of the same fusibility and specific gravity, a spontaneous separation by fusion is scarcely to be expected: so also, if they differ in these two particulars, and the metal of easiest fusion is of the greatest specific gravity, as in an alloy of copper and lead, where the two parts are in equal proportions, the first effect of the heat will be the separation of part of the lead before the mass enters into fusion, this will occupy the bottom of the crucible, and the fusibility of the alloy decreasing by the gradual separation of the lead, a temperature nearly equal to the melting heat of copper will be required to bring the whole to a fluid state; when this is effected, the lead receiving the first impression of the heat as it enters the crucible from below, being also covered with melted copper, will be made to boil, and in consequence will be continually thrown up into the copper notwithstanding its superior specific gravity.

"The only way, therefore, of determining with certainty the difference between an alloy and a mere mixture, is by a comparison of the properties of the compound with those of its elements, which if they are not intermediate, nor caused by mere mechanical action on each other, may be received as adequate evidence of a proper chemical union. Here, however, a number of difficulties and doubts, as yet wholly uninvestigated and incapable of being resolved by common cases of affinity, require examination.

"If two metals being fused together produce a mass, whose specific gravity is either greater or less than the mean specific gravity of its elements, the result is said to be an alloy, or proper chemical combination. How few, however, if even any, experiments for the purpose of ascertaining this, have been made with sufficient care? It is not enough that the specific gravity of each of the simple metals should be taken and compared with that of the alloy; but they ought to have been previously melted by themselves, and cooled in the same circumstances to which the alloy was afterwards to be exposed. For example, suppose an alloy to be made of copper and gold, equal parts; the copper to have been cut off from a piece of hard wire, and the gold to have been laminated, the specific gravity of the first will be nearly 8.87, and of the latter 19.36; the two metals being thoroughly mixed by a fusion, and either left to cool in the crucible or poured into a melting cone, are then weighed in the hydrostatic balance, and the difference or agreement between the specific gravity of the alloy and the mean gravity of the materials,

is considered as a fair ground of inference for the reality of chemical combination, or the contrary. But the specific gravity of copper cooled slowly, and not wire-drawn, is only 7.78, and that of gold in the same circumstances is 19.25; now the alloy is precisely in this state, having been merely melted and cooled gradually; if, therefore, no chemical combination whatever had taken place, yet the specific gravity of the alloy, instead of being = 14.11, as deduced by calculation from that of the materials, would be = 13.51, merely from the circumstance of slow cooling without compression. By cooling a malleable metal suddenly, as by pouring it into cold water, it becomes hard, and in some degree brittle, resembling in this respect a piece of the same metal that has been laminated without subsequent annealing; the specific gravity of the laminated metal is increased, and probably the same effect is produced by the sudden cooling: thus a great seeming change in specific gravity may exist where there is none in fact. Besides, it is possible that a real alteration of specific gravity may appear in a mixture of two metals, which, instead of being an evidence of chemical combination, shall be merely the effect of the hardness and tenacity of one of them. It is well known that all metals expand by heat, and alter their dimensions when passing from the fluid to the solid state. Let A B then be a binary mixture of three parts A, and one B: A is the least fusible of the two, and contracts least in cooling; it will necessarily happen, therefore, upon the supposition that no chemical affinity subsists between them, that when they are well mixed by fusion, and then allowed to cool, A will harden first, and by its excess in quantity will entirely envelope all the melted particles of B with a crust impenetrable to the air, and capable of supporting the whole atmospheric pressure; afterwards B will become solid and contract, leaving part of the cell which it occupied while fluid, a perfect vacuum, at the same time that these pores may easily be invisible even to common magnifiers; hence the result will be a mixture of less than the mean specific gravity.

"The change that takes place in the ductility of metals, when mixed together, is generally brought forwards as one of the most striking proofs of chemical combination; even here, however, difficulties occur that have not yet been explained. Macquer lays it down as a constant fact, that alloys are less ductile than the metals of which they are composed; and Gellert, in his *Chimie Metallurgique*, infers, that the mixture of gold with silver is not a true alloy, on account of its perfect ductility. From the want of accurate experiment, it is, perhaps, impossible at present to determine the question; but, so far from the position of Macquer and Gellert being universally true, the general result of the facts which have been

hitherto ascertained, if rightly understood, seems to render the direct reverse highly probable; and that the brittleness of alloys from ductile materials is, in all cases, a proof of supersaturation, or of mere mechanical mixture. When to any quantity of pure copper one third of zinc is added, the alloy called brass is produced; and that this is a chemical combination between the two metals may be inferred from the remarkable change of colour and fusibility of the mass; the ductility, however, of brass is fully equal to that of copper. But if the proportion of zinc is increased to an equality with the copper, the colour of the alloy, instead of being yellow like gold, will be nearly a medium between that of brass and of zinc, and its ductility will be destroyed; thus shewing, that the point of mutual saturation of these metals is between one third and a half of zinc to two thirds and a half of copper, and also that brass has little or no affinity with zinc. The ductility of any metal depends on the strong cohesive attraction of its particles, which slide upon each other when impressed by any external force instead of separating; now it may readily be conceived, that two ductile metals being intimately mixed so as that every particle of the one is in contact with a particle of the other, provided no very powerful affinity subsists between them, may be broken by a blow which would only have slightly altered the relative position of homogenous cohering particles; and therefore, that a brittle mixture of two ductile metals, does not necessarily infer a chemical combination between them."

Only a few articles relating to the sciences of medicine, anatomy, and surgery, appear in this volume.

**ABDOMEN** is accurate, but hardly sufficiently minute even for a general description. The course and principal reduplications of the peritoneum might, even here, have been introduced with advantage; and the interesting anatomy of the abdominal muscles and ring, besides being referred separately to the individual names of these muscles, would have furnished matter for a very instructive article, collectively considered.

**ABSCESS** is an article of importance. The author first considers the proximate cause of suppuration, the general seat of abscesses, methods of opening them, &c. and afterwards either describes in a few words the different varieties according to the part affected, or refers them to their particular names. This arrangement allows of much interesting description under the general heads, and provides for a more minute detail where it may be found requisite.

**Psoas abscess** is described with particular clearness, and sufficiently at length to afford real instruction to the reader; and we may observe the same of one or two of the other individual species; but in the general account of suppuration, too great a desire to break the subject into a variety of heads, and to introduce a profusion of leading references, has occasioned a poverty and meagreness of description, which must in some degree disappoint and perplex the reader. If intended as a full account of the interesting process of suppuration, it is deficient in many essential points; if otherwise, the whole might with more propriety have been referred on to some other part of the work.

With more satisfaction we turn to the article **ABSORBENTS**, which is executed with peculiar neatness, elegance, and accuracy. The whole article is divided into three parts. The first contains a general description of these vessels, the mode of injecting them, their structure, and of the lymphatic glands connected with them. The following will give an example of the interesting manner in which this article is executed:

"In structure and arrangement these vessels have great similitude to veins; they have in consequence been named by some anatomists the lymphatic veins. Like the veins their sides are thin and transparent, though of considerable strength: like the veins they frequently communicate with each other, or, as it is technically termed, anastomose. The advantage derived from these communications is obvious; for by these means the dissimilar matters which they take up from various parts, are mixed together, and blended with the lymph, which they imbibe from the interstices of the body, and which serves as a vehicle for such heterogeneous particles: they also prevent accidental pressure made on a few vessels from obstructing the progress of the absorbed fluids, which are in that case conveyed forward by collateral channels. Like the veins also, these vessels, by conjoining, form a tube of smaller area, than the united areas of the vessels before their junction. The effect of this construction is the same as in the veins, that is, an acceleration in the current of the lymph, in proportion as it comes nearer to the trunks of the absorbing vessels. The diameter of the thoracic duct bears but a small proportion to the united diameters of all the minute absorbents in the body, and when this duct has been opened, the lymph has flowed from it with a force and jet like that with which the blood issues from a large vein. Like the veins the absorbents are

furnished with numerous valves, which prevent any retrograde motion of their fluids, and also prevent any portion of the vessel from sustaining the weight of more fluids than it contains between its valves. The absorbents, however, differ from the veins in one very material circumstance, viz. that they have a power of contraction, and are able, of themselves, to propel their contents. Whoever reflects on the phenomena of absorption, can scarcely doubt that the mouths of these vessels have a contractile power, by which they refuse admission to noxious substances, whilst they readily imbibe those that are salutary. If these vessels are observed in the mesentery, when turgid with the absorbed chyle, their contents will disappear in a certain tract of the vessel, and again become visible; a phenomenon that cannot be explained, unless by supposing the vessel to contract at that part, and urge forwards its contents. Haller found that the thoracic duct contracted when stimulated, so that there can be little doubt of these vessels being muscular throughout their whole extent. The absorbents are found in considerable numbers beneath the skin of the extremities, and when they arrive at the groins and armpits, they pass through little bodies about the size of small beans, which are called lymphatic glands. The absorbent vessels, as they approach the gland, generally separate into several branches, which terminate in that body, and again about an equal number of absorbents emerge from the gland, conjoin, and form one or more principal absorbing vessels. The absorbents which enter the gland are usually denominated *vasa inferentia*, and those which go out of it, *vasa efferentia*. If quicksilver be poured into the former vessels, the gland swells, and a great deal of quicksilver appears to be deposited in it; and afterwards, if the power propelling the injection be continued, it is seen coming out of the gland by the *vasa efferentia*. It seems therefore to follow, that the progress of the absorbed fluid is checked a little in these glands, and it is probable that some change is effected in it during its passage through them. This opinion is confirmed by observing that these glands abound with blood vessels, which probably pour some fresh animal juices into those which are contained in the lymphatic vessels."

The second part is an excellent condensed description of the distribution of the absorbents over the different parts of the body; and the third is the diseases of the absorbents.

The present volume affords so few articles of importance in the class of medicine, as hardly to give a fair specimen of the general execution. The article AGUE is both redundant and deficient.

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cient. The power of amulets and charms in repelling the attack of the fit of an intermittent, instead of being accounted for in a rational and philosophical manner, is allowed to remain a mystery under the sanction of the learned, but credulous, Boyle; and many valuable additions to the subject of ague, which have been made since the publication of the former edition of this work, are entirely neglected. However, the references to the subsequent articles of *intermittent*, *tertian*, &c. may repair this omission.

The musical articles are by Dr. Burney, or in other words, are peculiarly excellent; they display practical skill, scientific information, and are written in a style of such lively simplicity, as is very rarely found in unison with profound knowledge. The article *accent* will furnish us with an example:

"ACCENT, in music. In the mechanism of melody, or measured musical tones, musicians have long agreed to regard the *first* and *third* notes of a bar, in common time, whether vocal or instrumental, as accented, and the *second* and *fourth* notes as unaccented. In triple time, divided into three portions, the *first* note and *last* are accented, the *second* unaccented. But these accents are variously modified; often to produce some comic effect, as wantonly limping to ridicule lameness. If the *third* note in triple time is accented in serious music, it is always less forcibly marked than the *first*. In the speech or elocution of the natives of every country, and almost in every province of a country, there is a peculiar tone or tune, by which nice observers discover the residence of the speaker. A native of Scotland, e.g. however carefully educated, and accurate his pronunciation, has a cantilena, a tone of voice, by which an Englishman discovers his country. The language that is the most forcibly and frequently accented, is indisputably the best fitted to receive musical tones. When it was said in a conversation with Metastasio on the subject of languages, that the Italian was the best calculated for music of any dialect in Europe, he cried out "*è musica stipa*," it is music itself. Another Italian (Eximeno) observed, that the conversation of a Roman matron, *val un aria*, is equal to an air. In setting songs, the structure of the verse regulates the musical accents; and instrumental music is but a succedaneum to vocal. It may be said, therefore, that no music, even for instruments, is so generally pleasing as that which can be sung. The genius of instruments, and abilities of performers, require more notes to display their powers, than a human voice can, with propriety, attempt to execute.

9 K

In very rapid divisions, ascending or descending the scale in notes of equal length, no regard is had to accents; and, though the execution may be neat and articulate, an Italian, fond of simplicity, would say of it, as of a shake misapplied; *non dice niente*, it says nothing. Without accent there is no more melody in song, than in the humming of a bee; and without the regular arrangement of long and short syllables, there can be no versification. There are as many different accents in music as in speech, or modes of enforcing or enfeebling the meaning of words. There is a *yes* that says *no*, and a *no* that says *yes*. There are accents of spirit and accents of violence, of tenderness and of friendship. The voice of a feeling singer can modulate all these shades, or affect the hearer on the side of intellect as well as of sense. Dionysius Halicarn. regards accent as the source of all music. Accents is a poetical name for verse itself.

'Winds on your wings to heav'n her accents bear

Such words as heav'n alone is fit to hear.'

"Passions and affections are the food of vocal music. Dryden's *Virgil*, past. iii.

"Give to the musician (says Rousseau) as many images and sentiments to express as possible; for the passions sing, the understanding only speaks."

The *theological and biblical criticism* is most meritoriously distinguished by the total absence of party spirit. From the temper and erudition which the articles uniformly display, we are at no loss in attributing them to the learned and indefatigable editor. The most curious and important of those in the present

volume are *Acts of the Apostles, Acts of Pilate, Alexandrian Manuscript*.

The limits of our plan will not allow us to enter into more particulars relative to the present volume, and our remarks on the second must be deferred to a future opportunity: we cannot take our leave, however, without saying a few words concerning the plates. These, thirty in number, are of such superior merit in every respect, as to rank far above the very best of those which have ever illustrated similar works. Messrs. Lowry and Milton, the artists employed, have exerted their talents to the full, and have produced engravings worthy of the work, and of their own high reputation; the subjects of the plates are also, for the most part, new, and obviously taken from original drawings.

A work thus auspiciously begun must necessarily increase in correctness and value as it proceeds: the references from the leading articles to others of inferior consequence afford a convenient method of amending errors, and supplying defects: the gentlemen engaged will become habituated to the mode of writing which is best adapted to secure the great end of the design; and we do not doubt, that it will prove, when finished, a magnificent repository of science, honourable not only to those personally concerned in its execution, but to the language in which it is written, and the nation by which it is patronized.

ART. II. *A Pocket Encyclopædia, or Library of General Knowledge, being a Dictionary of Arts, Sciences, and polite Literature; compiled from the best Authorities. By EDWARD AUGUSTUS KENDAL. 6 vols. 12mo. About 200 pages in each Volume.*

A WORK of this kind must, from its very nature, abound in errors. It is not worth the bookseller's while to employ more than one person in the compilation of it, and the wisest man that ever lived would show his wisdom rather in declining than accepting of such a proposal. As a specimen, take the following article.

"DREAMS. The physicians who have accurately examined the state of their patients in every particular circumstance, have not omitted at times to inquire into their dreams, in those hours of sleep which their ill state allows them; and partly from experience, partly from reason and analogy, have found that there are many presages of diseases to come, and many indications of

such as are present (but unperceived, at least not seen in their full extent), to be had from what the senses suffer in dreams. Indeed if dreams are different from what might be expected from the business of the day, or the turn of thought before, they may always be looked upon as signs of a more or less disordered state of body, and the true condition of that state may often be better learned from them than from any other means. What has been observed by physicians in regard to the prognostics from dreams, may be summed up in the following manner; to dream of fire indicates a redundancy of yellow bile; to dream of fogs or smoke, indicates a predominance of black bile; to dream of seeing a fall of rain or snow, or a great quantity of ice, shows that there is a redundancy of phlegm in the body; he who fancies



himself among offensive smells, may be assured that he harbours some putrid matter in his body; to have red things represented before you in sleep, denotes a redundancy of blood; if the patient dreams of seeing the sun, moon, and stars, hurry on with prodigious swiftness, it indicates an approaching delirium; to dream of a turbid sea, indicates disorders of the belly; and to dream of seeing the earth overflowed with water, or of be-

ing immersed in a pond or river, indicates a redundancy of watery humours in the body; to dream of seeing the earth burnt or parched up, a sign of great heat and dryness; the appearance of monsters and frightful enemies, indicates deliriums in diseases; and to dream often of being thrown from some very high place, threatens approaching vertigo, or some other disorder of the head, as an epilepsy, apoplexy, or the like."

ART. III. *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh.* Vol. V. Part 2. 4to.

THIS half volume has rather disappointed us. The acknowledged strength of the society, in men of activity and talents, warrants the highest expectations from their associated labours, yet the seven following papers are the whole of their yearly contribution to the general stock of science and literature.

6. *Remarks on a mixed Species of Evidence in Matters of History. With an Examination of a new historical Hypothesis, in the Memoires pour la Vie de Petrarque, by the Abbé de Sade.* By ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER, Esq. Judge Advocate of North Britain.

The Abbé de Sade, it seems, in his "Memoires sur la Vie de Petrarque," asserts, that Laura was a married woman; and that the poet was her cicisbeo. Mr. Tytler, zealous for the honour of Petrarch and his mistress, enters into a formal analysis of the Abbé's hypothesis, and devotes sixty-eight quarto pages, to show that "the affection of Petrarch for Laura was an honourable and virtuous flame." There are few persons, we imagine, who would not rather accede to Mr. T's deduction, than read his paper.

7. *Description of an Extra-Uterine Fetus.* By Mr. THOMAS BLIZARD, F.R.S. Edinburgh, Lecturer on Anatomy and Surgery, and Surgeon to the London Hospital.

This case is marked with one or two curious circumstances. The subject of it was a woman who after having miscarried of her fifth child only five weeks before her death, was seized with violent pains in the lower part of the abdomen, and swelling of the belly, which proved fatal on the same evening. On dissection full two quarts of blood appeared extravasated into the pelvis, and in the middle of the left fallopian tube, a pouch

about the size of a pigeon's egg was found ruptured, the only apparent cause of the hemorrhage. The enlargement of the uterus, gelatinous effusion into its cavity, and closing of the mouth, indicated a state of pregnancy in some forwardness, which was confirmed by the traces of membranes (probably the chorion and amnios), in the bursten sac of the fallopian tube. The cause of the obstruction to the passage of the ovum, through this tube, does not clearly appear, since it remained readily pervious to mercury after death.

8. *Meteorological Abstract, for the Years 1797, 1798, and 1799.* Communicated by JOHN PLAYFAIR, F.R.S. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh.

That there was a real deficiency of crop in the year 1799, is at present, we believe, universally allowed; in confirmation of which we find the following interesting observation.

"The mean temperature of the whole year, is  $46^{\circ} 18'$ , more than  $1^{\circ} 5'$  below the usual mean. But the mean temperature of the season of vegetation, computed from the 20th of March to the 20th of October, is no more than  $51.27$ , almost  $5^{\circ}$  below that of 1798. This deficiency of temperature may appear at first sight hardly adequate to that deficiency in the crop which is ascribed to it. But it should be considered that vegetation scarcely proceeds at all with a temperature under  $40^{\circ}$ , so that this may not improperly be regarded as the point of heat at which vegetation begins, and the boundary, inasmuch at least as regards agriculture, between fruitfulness and sterility. Now  $56^{\circ}$  is the mean temperature of a good season in this country, as we know from the instance of 1798, and therefore  $16^{\circ}$  of heat is the whole distance between the mere germination of vegetables, and the fullest maturity they can attain in our climate. A deficiency of  $5^{\circ}$  therefore, which is nearly a third of the whole  $16^{\circ}$ ,

must necessarily be accompanied with a great shortcoming in the maturity of all vegetable productions."

9. *A new and universal Solution of Kepler's Problem.* By JAMES IVORY, Esq.

Kepler's problem is solved in this paper by approximation. It is well known to propose the determination of the anomaly of the eccentric from the mean anomaly being given; and to do this, the writer takes unity for radius,  $m$  for the mean anomaly,  $\mu$  for the anomaly of the eccentric,  $\epsilon$  for the eccentricity, and then from a figure, in which it is evident that the difference of two circular sectors, whose bases are the mean and eccentric anomalies, is equal to the area of a triangle, whose base is the eccentricity, and one side radius, terminated by the extremity of the arc of eccentric anomaly, it appears that the perpendicular from the eccentric point let fall upon the radius produced, is equal to  $m - \mu$ . This perpendicular is made equal to  $\epsilon \times \sin. \mu$ . Therefore  $m - \mu = \epsilon \times \sin. \mu$ .

Now let  $m = 2\pi$   $\mu = 2\nu$ , and consequently  $\sin. \mu = \sin. 2\nu = 2 \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ , the following equation is obtained,  $n - \nu = \epsilon \times \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ . Let  $\epsilon = \epsilon \times \frac{(n - \nu)}{(n - \nu)}$  then  $\sin. (n - \nu) = \epsilon \times \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ .

Now since the arches  $m$  and  $\mu$  can never exceed  $180^\circ$ , the arches  $n$  and  $\nu$  never exceed  $90^\circ$ ,

For the first approximation  $\epsilon$  is made equal to  $\epsilon$ , and this may with propriety be assumed for the maximum value of  $\sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu = \frac{1}{2}$ , and consequently  $n - \nu$

$= \epsilon \times \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ , can never exceed  $\frac{\epsilon}{2}$  and  $\epsilon$  being never greater than unity,  $n - \nu$  cannot in the extreme case of  $\epsilon$  being unity, be greater than  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Now the difference of two small arches, and the difference of their sines is nearly the same. Therefore  $\epsilon = \epsilon \times \sin. \frac{(n - \nu)}{(n - \nu)}$  is nearly equal to  $\epsilon$ .

Hence from the equation  $\sin. (n - \nu) = \epsilon \times \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ , we may obtain  $\pi$ , the value of  $\nu$  corresponding to this first value of  $\epsilon$ , which may be considered as a first approximation to half the arch of eccentric anomaly.

From this value we may proceed by the same method to other values, by substituting  $\pi$  for  $\nu$ , and making  $\epsilon' =$

$\times \sin. \frac{(n - \pi)}{(n - \pi)}$ . Then let  $\epsilon$  be substituted for  $\epsilon$  in the equation  $\sin. (n - \nu) = \epsilon \times \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ , and let  $\pi'$  denote the corresponding value of  $\nu$ , it will be a second approximation, and so on. Our limits do not permit us to enter into the ingenious proof that the series of approximations are alternately too small or too great, and that it converges to the true length of half the arch of eccentric anomaly with uncommon rapidity. These points being settled, the rule is investigated for computing the arc  $\nu$  from the equation  $\sin. (n - \nu) = \epsilon \times \sin. \nu \times \cos. \nu$ , supposing  $n$  and  $\epsilon$  to be given quantities: and to illustrate the method two instances are taken from Euler, the one to draw a chord from the extremity of the diameter of a semicircle, which shall divide the semicircle into two equal parts; and the second, to draw from a given point, in the circumference of a circle, two chords that shall divide the circle into three equal parts. Three approximations bring out very nearly the same conclusions with Euler in the first, as he makes one segment of the semicircle  $47^\circ 39' 12'' 46''$ , our writer giving it  $47^\circ 39' 12''$ . In the second instance Euler makes one arch  $30^\circ 43' 33''$ , and by this method it is found to be after the second approximation  $30^\circ 44' 11''$ .

By applying this method to the planetary orbits, it is shewn that the error of the first approximation is of little account, except in the orbit of Mercury, and some places of planets and comets are determined. The whole forms a very valuable paper, which will be read with great pleasure by the profound geometrician, and be found of great practical utility to the astronomer.

10. *Description of some Improvements in the Arms and Accoutrements of Light Cavalry.* Proposed by the Earl of ANCRAM, Colonel of the Mid-Lothian Regiment of Fencible Cavalry, and F.R.S.

These proposed improvements might have been very properly laid before a board of general officers, but are entirely out of place in the transactions of a philosophical society.

11. *A new Method of expressing the Coefficients of the Development of the algebraic Formula,  $(a^2 + b^2 - 2 ab. \cos. \phi)^n$ , by Means of the Perimeters of two Ellipses,*

when  $n$  denotes the half of any odd Number; together with an Appendix, containing the Investigation of a Formula for the Rectification of an Arch of an Ellipse. By Mr. W. WALLACE, assistant Teacher of the Mathematics, in the Academy of Perth.

This is a worthy companion to the last article but one. In the development of the proposed expression, namely  $A + B \cos. \phi + C \cos. 2\phi + D \cos. 3\phi +$ , the degree of labour in calculating a competent number of terms is known to be very great; to obviate which, a method is devised in this paper, of effecting the solution by means of the perimeters of ellipses. This is shewn by a fluxionary process to be efficacious, for the two first coefficients of the series are made to depend on the rectification of an ellipse, and all the others are determined from them, by means of an infinite series. As the rectification of an ellipse is necessary, the investigation of a formula for that purpose is considered in an appendix. The formula is not to be made intelligible in our limits, as it involves several fluxional equations, and various series, but it contains these advantages,

that it is applicable to every case of excentricity, and to every length of an arch that can possibly occur in calculation, and it is remarkable for the quickness of its convergency.

12. *Chemical Analysis of an uncommon Species of Zeolite.* By ROBERT KENNEDY, M.D. F.R.S. F.A.S. &c.

This mineral was found inclosed in prehnite, in the basalt of the castle-rock at Edinburgh: it differs from the usual species of zeolite, in becoming phosphoric by friction and by heat, and in its superior specific gravity. Its analysis afforded

Silex	-	-	-	51.5
Lime	-	-	-	32.3
Alumine	-	-	-	0.5
Oxyd of iron	-	-	-	0.5
Soda, about	-	-	-	8.5
Carbonic acid and water				5.0
				98.0

with some traces of magnesia and muriatic acid.

ART. IV. *The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. VIII. 4to.*

THE great contributor to this volume, is the learned and excellent president, Mr. Kirwan, who has furnished eight papers; nor have his associates been wanting either in zeal or abilities; the present publication being, upon the whole, highly creditable to the institution. The first article is,

1. *Observations on the Proof of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth adduced by Sir James Hall, Bart.* By RICHARD KIRWAN, L.L.D. F.R.S. & P.R.I.A.

Mr. Kirwan is a strenuous advocate for the aqueous formation of rocks and mountains; Sir James Hall, on the contrary, is induced to consider granite, porphyry, and all the rocks of trap-formation, as owing their present appearance to the action of subterranean heat. With regard to the igneous origin of granite, Mr. K. objects, and in our opinion very justly, even allowing it to be a fact, which however has never been proved experimentally, that granite composed of quartz, felspar, and mica, in the usual proportions, may be brought

into complete fusion; and that by gradual cooling, the several ingredients will again separate according to their respective degrees of fusibility, yet that there still remain difficulties which cannot be overcome. Quartz is certainly by far the least fusible of the three, and therefore would concrete the first, and from being deposited in a fluid medium, ought to occupy the lowest parts and to be more or less crystallized, while the felspar, becoming solid by mere cooling, should form amorphous mass, resting upon the quartz. This, however, is not agreeable to actual appearances; the quartz is mingled with the felspar, and is not crystallized except when lining the inside of cavities, and in some instances is even impressed by the crystals of felspar; thus clearly shewing the latter to have been solid and completely formed while the former was in a fluid, or, at least, in a soft state.

A much stronger argument, however, in favour of the volcanic origin of basalt and the other rocks of trap-formation, is deduced from the experiments

of Sir James Hall. It had been objected, that though these minerals are fusible at a moderate heat, not exceeding 55° Wedgewood, yet the result was a homogeneous glass possessing the vitreous fracture and other external characters belonging to this mode of aggregation; Sir James, however, discovered, that although a perfect glass was certainly the first result, yet by increasing the heat and cooling slowly, all the characters of vitrescence disappeared, and the mass assumed an earthy appearance with the rudiments of crystallization, bearing a near resemblance to the natural whins. Mr. Kirwan is inclined to attribute the earthy appearance and fracture of the acknowledged lavas to their slow refrigeration, but maintains that this very interesting and important discovery of Sir James Hall's is not conclusive with regard to the igneous origin of the rocks of trap-formation, or as they are called in Scotland, *whins*; because, 1st, These contain frequently calcareous spar and zeolite, and as the former of these holds carbonic acid and the latter water, as an essential constituent part, it is not easy to conceive how they could have been vitrified or fused. 2nd. The natural whins lose by being heated to redness, about five per cent. of volatile matter, whereas even the most ancient lavas lose none in similar circumstances. 3d. The external characters and other properties of the artificial whins bear only a general similarity to the natural ones, but differ in various important particulars; and 4th. The college of Dublin is possessed of fragments of basaltic pillars, in which marine shells are imbedded.

2. *An Illustration and Confirmation of some Facts, mentioned in an Essay on the primitive State of the Globe.* By RICHARD KIRWAN, Esq. &c.

According to Buffon and other French theorists, the race of fishes existed previous to the emersion of any of the solid part of our globe above the primeval waters, which covered its surface. According to the Mosaic cosmogony, which Mr. Kirwan, in the essay alluded to, undertakes the defence of, the creation of fish was posterior to this event. Mr. K. has therefore asserted, that no remains of marine animals are found imbedded and incorporated in masses of

stone, at a greater height than 9000 feet above the actual level of the sea. But Don Ulloa found petrified shells on a mountain near Guancavelica, in Peru, at the height of 13,869 feet. The object of the president, in this memoir, is to shew that the altitude of this mountain is greatly overrated, which he does, first by pointing out the imperfections of the barometer at the time when Don Ulloa made his observations, and secondly, by shewing from the same author, that the mountain was every where habitable, and therefore could not be of the height supposed,

3. *An Essay on the Declivities of Mountains.* By RICHARD KIRWAN, Esq.

This, like many of the papers of Mr. Kirwan, is incapable of analysis, on account of the quantity and condensation of the matter that it contains. The object of the author is to shew, that the south and south east sides of primitive mountains are steep, while their northern and western sides form a much more obtuse angle with the horizon, on account of the secondary strata by which they are covered. Numerous authorities are cited to prove the fact, and the explanation of it is referred to the particular direction of the tides and currents of the primeval ocean.

4. *Of chemical and mineralogical Nomenclature.* By RICHARD KIRWAN, Esq.

In this memoir the author defends himself from the charges of inconsistency and inaccuracy in not admitting the French chemical nomenclature, in all its integrity, as has been done by the greater part of the English chemists. Whatever Mr. Kirwan writes is well worthy of attentive perusal; but, though we agree with him in many of his remarks, we are, upon the whole, of opinion, that the ancient names which he has retained, and most of the new ones which he has invented, are clearly more faulty and ambiguous than the present received nomenclature. Chemistry is already sufficiently perplexed, by a double system of names, to render it injudicious in any one to make wanton alterations, even if they are upon the whole improvements; and the reasons why the nomenclature of the French chemists has been so readily admitted,

are, first, the great facility with which it is acquired; secondly, its intimate connexion with the Lavoisierian theory; and thirdly, the extreme irregularity and difficulty of the nomenclature that it superseded. When the new chemical terms were introduced, a few old ones were suffered to remain, because the substances that they represented were of such frequent use and occurrence, and therefore the names so familiar, that the reformers chose rather to violate their system than subject themselves to the charge of wanton innovation. Thus water was preferred to oxyd of hydrogen; borax to sub borat of soda, &c. For the same reason, Mr. Kirwan pleads for Epsom (salt) and glauber (salt) instead of sulphat of magnesia and sulphat of soda. On this subject we happen to differ entirely from the learned president, and are of opinion that the concessions made by Lavoisier and his associates to public prejudice, have materially injured his system of nomenclature. Thus water, ice, and steam, express the same chemical substance, but in peculiar states of aggregation; and neither the vulgar nor scientific language of chemists affords a term to denote this substance generally, which oxyd of hydrogen would do, and therefore should be allowed of, for the same reason that Mr. K. tolerates the word *saphuret*, and confines it to the general expression of sulphur combined with any other substance. Mr. Kirwan objects to the term *pot-ash*, because it is also the common and commercial appellation of a very impure alkali. In this instance, as well as in the general principle, we perfectly agree with him, and on the same grounds object to the use of *epsom*, because the salt procured by the evaporation of the *epsom* water is not pure sulphat of magnesia; and because the *epsom* salt of commerce is always mixed with sulphat of soda. But even allowing Mr. K. the use of the term *epsom*, instead of sulphat of magnesia, how does he justify the expressions *nitrous epsom* and *marine epsom*, in which *epsom* is synonymous with magnesia, instead of sulphat of magnesia? If he uses *selenite* for sulphat of lime, with what propriety does he call nitrat of lime *nitrous selenite*? Mr. K. objects to the term *oxide*, because it cannot in pronunciation be distinguished from *ox-hide* (the hide of an ox) he therefore proposes to substi-

tute the word *oxat* or *oxidat*. He forgets, however, that the termination *at* is appropriated to the salts of the acids in *ic*, and as he writes *sulphat*, &c. not *sulphate*, there can surely be no objection to *oxyd* instead of *oxide*. After all, we did not expect a pun to be advanced as a serious argument, and if *oxide* can ever be mistaken for the hide of an ox, Mr. K's own new term *Hepotules* may be confounded with a *heap of tools*.

We coincide with the author's observations relative to the absurd and unnecessary new mineralogical nomenclature of Hany; and of the expediency of distinguishing by name, mineral substances from their analogous chemical compounds. But we cannot sympathise in the reasons that induced him to substitute *phosphorite* for *apatit*, more especially on account of the great probability of confounding this with *phospholite*.

5. *A Description of a reflecting Level, on an artificial Horizon, for taking Altitudes of the celestial Bodies, &c. on Land, by HADLEY'S Quadrant, with some Remarks on different Levels. By the Rev. JAMES LITTLE.*

The level here proposed seems likely to answer the intention of the inventor, with sufficient precision; but without a plate it is impossible to give an intelligible description of it to our readers.

6. *On the Naturalization of Plants. By JOHN TEMPLETON, A.L.S.*

We do not find any thing new in this slight essay. The practical directions are imperfect, and are besides well known to all those who concern themselves with these subjects. It is a pretty essay, but not at all worthy of the situation that it occupies.

7. *Description of an Apparatus for impregnating Water and other Substances strongly with carbonic Acid. By the Rev. GILBERT AUSTIN, M.R.I.A.*

That part of the apparatus in which the compression is made, being of glass, requires an unusual thickness, in proportion to its capacity, in order to secure it from bursting, and after all, the water cannot with any safety be charged with more than its own bulk



of carbonic acid. The brass pipe and syringe, as Mr. A. himself observes, communicate to the water a strong coppery flavour; hence the use of the apparatus in its present state is wholly unadvisable. We doubt much, whether it is possible to construct it entirely of glass, and even if this was effected, it would still remain infinitely inferior in practical utility to many that are in common use. The great difficulty consists in transferring the impregnated water into bottles and other vessels without allowing the greatest part of the gas to escape, and many contrivances have been invented for this purpose; but in the apparatus before us, this main object has not even been taken into consideration.

8. *Analysis of Turf Ashes.* By Lord TULAMORE, M. R. I. A.

A quantity of peat was burned, and the ashes were lixiviated, with the hope of procuring from them some disengaged potash. The experiment, however, totally failed; the only salt that they contained being sulphat of soda. These ashes were *white*; but some *red* ones being submitted to a similar process, afforded only a very small portion of muriatic soda.

9. *A Memoir of the Mines of Glan, the Royalty of Richard Martin, Esq.* By MONS. SUBRINE, Engineer to the King of France.

The interest of this paper is wholly local. The mines in question are of galena, blende, and pyrites, in slate, and present no unusual appearances.

10. *Remarks on some sceptical Positions in Mr. Hume's Enquiry concerning the Human Understanding, and his Treatise of Human Nature.* By RICHARD KIRWAN, Esq. &c.

This paper, which seems rather improperly introduced among the scientific memoirs, is a vigorous and acute attack on Mr. Hume's celebrated essay on miracles, and the other sceptical tenets of that ingenious writer.

11. and 17. *Synoptical View of the State of the Weather at Dublin, in the Years 1800 and 1801.* By RICHARD KIRWAN, Esq. &c.

These are monthly meteorological tables, containing the variations of the barometer, thermometer, rain, and wind.

12. *Observations on Calp.* By the Hon. GEORGE KNOX, M. R. I. A.

Mr. Kirwan was the first mineralogist who gave a description of the calp, or black quarry-stone of Dublin: in addition to which, we learn from the present paper, that the calp quarries are situated in the neighbourhood of Lucan, and exhibit the following appearances.

Immediately under the vegetable mould is a thin bed of limestone gravel, beneath which, to a considerable depth, are strata of dark limestone, separated from each other by beds of argillaceous schistus. The deeper the quarry is dug, the nearer the limestone seems to approach to the nature of calp; to which it at length arrives by a gradual and scarcely perceptible transition. Upon analysis it afforded

68	Carbonat of lime.
2	Oxyd of iron.
7.5	Argill.
18	Silex.
3	Carbon and bitumen,
1.5	Water.

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100.0

13. *On the Orbits in which Planets revolve, being acted upon by a centripetal Force, varying as any Function of the Distance, when these Orbits have two Apisides.* By the Rev. J. BRINKLEY, A. M. Andrews Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin.

The intention of the author of this learned memoir is to show, that when an orbit has two apisides, whatever be the function of the distance which expresses the law of the centripetal force, the orbit may be determined by a series of sines of multiple arcs converging by the powers of the excentricity: hence the angle between the apisides is immediately determined.

14. *Observations and Experiments, undertaken with a View to determine the Quantity of Sulphur contained in sulphuric Acid, and of this latter contained in Sulphates in general.* By RICHARD CHENEVIX, F. R. S. M. R. I. A.

We have been highly gratified by the perusal of this paper. Its singular

modesty forms a most striking contrast with the disingenuousness and grasping assertions in which the French chemists have of late indulged themselves, at the same time that the clearness and accuracy of the experiments recorded, and the importance of their results, evince that successful and well-directed zeal in scientific investigations, by which Mr. Chenevix is most honourably distinguished.

According to Fourcroy, 100 parts of sulphuric acid contain 71 sulphur and 29 oxygen. And by the experiments of Lavoisier, sulphat of barytes contains 33 per cent. of acid. Hence every 100 parts sulphat of barytes hold 23.43 sulphur. The results, however, of Mr. Chenevix's analyses of pyrites, leading him to suspect the proportions assigned by the two French chemists, he was induced to institute a series of experiments for this express purpose. 100 parts of pure sulphur were put into a tubulated retort, with a quilled receiver connected with a Woulfe's apparatus, upon which was poured some strong nitric acid. Heat was applied, and all the liquor that came over was returned upon the sulphur till it was completely dissolved. None of the sulphur was volatilised, nor was any sulphureous acid produced. Nitrat of barytes being then added, afforded a copious precipitate of sulphat of barytes; from comparing the weight of which with the sulphur employed, it appeared that 100 parts of sulphat of barytes contain 14.5 of sulphur instead of 23.43 according to the French calculations.

Mr. C. then prepared sulphat of lime by adding sulphuric acid to a solution of pure lime in muriatic acid, and then driving off every thing but the earthy salt, by long continued heat in a platina crucible, the result of this process gave him, in 100 parts,

Lime	57
Real sulphuric acid	43
	100

This sulphat of lime being dissolved in oxalic acid, and then decomposed by muriat of barytes, afforded 183 sulphat of barytes. Hence as 183 sulphat of barytes contains as much sulphuric acid as 100 sulphat of lime, sulphat of barytes contains 23.5 per cent. of acid. But by the first experiment, 14.5 sulphur, when acidified by nitric acid,

form that portion of sulphuric acid contained in 100 parts sulphat of barytes, therefore 100 of real sulphuric acid contain 61.5 sulphur, and 38.5 oxygen.

15. *Meteorological Observations made at Londonderry in the Year 1800. By WILLIAM PATTERSON, M. D. and M. R. I. A.*

After the tables of meteorological phenomena, occur several interesting remarks on the weather of the year, and on the climate of Ireland in general.

16. *On the Variations of the Atmosphere. By RICHARD KIRWAN, Esq. &c.*

This is by far the longest and most important paper in the volume: being, in fact, a treatise on meteorology, which, in the hands of an author less economical of words than the able president, might easily be expanded into a quarto volume. We regret that the limits to which we are confined by our plan, will not allow us to do more than take a very cursory view of a memoir on every account deserving of serious study.

The first chapter is on evaporation, as influenced by heat, by chemical affinity, by wind, and by electricity and light. Chapter 2, treats of the state of vapours subsisting in the atmosphere, of the quantities of vapour at different barometrical heights, and of clouds. Chapter 3, is on the temperature of the atmosphere, on the different altitudes at which congelation takes place in different latitudes, on the mean temperature of the atmosphere, on the temperature of the summer and winter months, on the origin of the trade winds and variable winds, and the succession of winds. Chapter 4, relates to the density of the atmosphere, and the method of ascertaining heights by the barometer. Chapter 5, is on precipitations from the atmosphere of atmospheric electricity, dew, rain, and the great haze of 1783. The 6th chapter treats of prognostics of the weather. To the whole is added an appendix on the manner of taking observations on the hygrometer. Interspersed through the memoir are many very valuable tables, forming altogether so large a mass of information on this interesting subject, and collected from such various sources, as hardly any one, except Mr. Kirwan, possesses industry to accumulate, and discrimination to arrange.

17. *On determining innumerable Portions of a Sphere, the Solidities, and spherical Superficies of which Portions are, at the same Time, algebraically assignable.* By the Rev. J. BRINKLEY, &c.

The object of this paper is to show, that "there are innumerable constructions by which portions of a sphere may be obtained, so that the spherical superficies, and solidity of each portion, are accurately assignable." To give an analysis of it is impossible.

The class of polite literature contains two memoirs by W. Preston, Esq., M. R. I. A. The first is on the *Choice of Subjects for Tragedy*. Mr. P. considers the stage as one of the great engines of public instruction, and instead of confining it to the representation of ancient or foreign events, would allow the dramatic poet to select modern incidents, and even the political topics of the day. "The genius of a free government," says he, "requires that every mode and form of addressing the public feelings, and enlightening the public mind, should not only be permitted but encouraged, provided they confine them-

selves within the bounds of decorum and moderation."

The second paper is on the *peculiar Style of the fashionable German Authors, and the Tendency of their Productions*. In this the author exposes, in a spirited and striking manner, the bad taste, and licentious morals, of the German ballads, novels, and plays, by which the British public was a short time ago so strangely infatuated, but which now seem happily to be in a great measure superseded by native productions, superior, for the most part, in literary worth and moral tendency.

The two antiquarian articles that conclude the volume, are not valuable either for their novelty or importance.

It would be worthy of the Royal Irish academy to set an example to the literature of the island, more useful, indeed, than splendid, by emancipating their transactions from the stigma of incorrectness in the printing, which has long been characteristic of Irish typography. The volume before us is shamefully faulty in this respect.

**ART. V.** *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1802.* 4to. pp. 540.

THE value of a work like the present, depends entirely on that of the separate memoirs of which it is composed. As we shall give an account, more or less particular, of all these, it is only necessary for us here to express our satisfaction at finding, that this dignified and respectable society continues to fulfil the high expectations of the public, by devoting itself to the zealous investigation of every branch of the mathematical and experimental sciences.

The first article in the volume is

1. *The Croonian Lecture. On the Power of the Eye to adjust itself to different Distances, when deprived of the crystalline Lens.* By EVERARD HOME, Esq. F. R. S.

This paper is the continuation of a controversy between the author and Dr. Young, on the interesting subject of the power by which the eye adapts the point of perfect vision to different distances. The object of Mr. Home, in this place, is to bring some further experiments to shew, that this power does not reside in

the crystalline lens, by experiments made on a person whose eyes had been deprived of this part of the organ of sight, in the operation of extraction of the cataract. Similar experiments had been brought by Mr. Home, in a former paper, to which Dr. Young had objected as inconclusive.

By Dr. Young's optometer (employed without the glass lens) Mr. Home found in himself that the range of distinct vision, from the nearest to the furthest point, was from  $12\frac{1}{2}$  inches to  $29\frac{1}{2}$ , distant from the eye. In Sir Henry Englefield's eyes, the range was from  $12\frac{1}{4}$  to  $28\frac{1}{4}$ . In the eyes of the person who has lost the crystalline lens, the range was from 8  $\frac{3}{10}$ ths to 13  $\frac{3}{10}$ ths, and, when fatigued, no more than from 11  $\frac{2}{8}$ ths to 13  $\frac{3}{10}$ ths. It must be confessed that this great difference of range would at first seem to prove the direct contrary to Mr. Home's inference, and would shew that the power of accommodating the eye to different distances, *does* reside in the crystalline lens, since it is so much impaired by the loss of this organ. But the determi-

nation of this question would require a much greater number of experiments on natural eyes of all kinds, and we cannot but think the paper before us much too loose and inconclusive.

2. *The Bakerian Lecture. On the Theory of Light and Colours.* By THOMAS YOUNG, M. D. F. R. S. &c.

The difficulty of this subject is universally acknowledged. What is light? or what is the nature of its motion? The writer is anxious to sanction his opinions by the name of Newton, whose queries are a good clue to his doubts, and proofs of the little satisfaction which he received in every hypothesis. The following hypotheses are the basis of the writer's opinion.

"A luminiferous æther pervades the universe, rare and elastic in a high degree. Undulations are excited in the æther, whenever a body becomes luminous. The sensation of different colours depends on the different frequency of vibrations excited by light on the retina. All material bodies have an attraction for the æthereal medium, by means of which it is accumulated within their substance, and for a small distance around them, in a state of greater density, but not of greater elasticity."

The following propositions give the nature and theory of the undulations.

"All impulses are propagated in a homogeneous elastic medium, with an equable velocity. An undulation originating from the vibration of a single particle must expand through a homogeneous medium in a spherical form, but with different quantities of motion in different parts. A portion of a spherical undulation admitted through an aperture into a quiescent medium, will proceed to be farther propagated rectilinearly in concentric superficies, terminated laterally by weak and irregular portions of newly diverging undulations. When an undulation arrives at a surface, which is the limit of mediums of different densities, a partial reflection takes place, proportionate in force to the difference of the densities. When an undulation is transmitted through a surface terminating different mediums, it proceeds in such a direction, that the signs of the angles of incidence and refraction are in the constant ratio of the velocity of propagation in the two mediums. When an undulation falls on the surface of a rarer medium so obliquely, that it cannot be regularly refracted, it is totally reflected at an angle equal to that of its incidence. If equidistant undulations are supposed to pass through a medium at which the parts are susceptible of permanent vibrations somewhat slower than

the undulations, their velocity will be somewhat lessened by this vibratory tendency, and, in the same medium, the more as the undulations are more frequent. When two undulations, from different origins, coincide either perfectly, or very nearly in direction, their joint effect is a combination of the motions belonging to each. Radiant light consists in undulations of the luminiferous æther."

The importance of the propositions has led us to transcribe them, and it is easily seen in what the writer's theory differs from that of Newton. Our knowledge of undulations is very imperfect in the two fluids water and air, the one non-elastic, the other elastic. How difficult, then, must it be to form a true conception, when the number of undulations in the luminous fluid is calculated at 463 millions of millions in a second. The subject merits, and will receive ample discussion.

3. *An Analysis of a Mineral Substance from North America, containing a Metal hitherto unknown.* By CHARLES HATCHETT, Esq. F. R. S.

This accurate and indefatigable chemist has here added to the list of metals a new one, the ore of which has long lain in the British Museum, and is described, in Sir Hans Sloane's catalogue, as being sent, by Mr. Winthrop, from the province of Massachusetts, in North America. Mr. H. with great propriety gives it the name of columbium. The ore is iron combined with columbium in the proportion of 1 to 3. The title of columbium to its rank in the list of metals, is inferred by its habitudes with prussic acid, galls, and phosphoric acid. Mr. H. has not yet succeeded in reducing it to a reguline state.

4. *A Description of the Anatomy of the Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus.* By EVERARD HOME, Esq. F. R. S.

This singular animal is a small amphibious quadruped found in the fresh water lakes in New South Wales, a country which seems to promise to the naturalist the most curious "varieties of untried being," and many valuable accessions to comparative anatomy. In external appearance its resemblance to the aquatic birds is strongly marked by a mouth in every respect similar to the bill of a duck. Anatomy shews other still more curious approaches to the

structure of the feathered race. Our limits will not allow us to give the particulars of this interesting dissection; we shall only mention, that the urethra opens into the rectum in both sexes; in the male no external organs of generation appear, and in many other essential particulars the resemblance to the anatomy of birds is very striking; and in the female, neither nipples nor a regularly formed uterus can be found; but there is every reason to suppose, that the fœtus is first an egg, formed in the ovary, and thence propelled to a species of uterine cavity, where it is hatched. In this respect it resembles the lizard, and has been properly termed ovi-viviparous.

5. *On the Independence of the analytical and geometrical Methods of Investigation; and on the Advantages to be derived from their Separation:* by ROBERT WOODHOUSE, A. M. &c.

The subject is here treated in so abstruse a manner, that it is far beyond the reach of most mathematical readers; and yet it might have been made level to the meanest capacity. By analytical, it is to be observed, the writer means algebraical; and as algebra is the science of number, and geometry the science of magnitude, it is evident that every question in each may be discussed on its own principles, without requiring the assistance of the other; and yet, as every magnitude may be divided into any number of parts, the truths of each science may alternately assist each other. The second book of Euclid might have at once proved the whole of the writer's first position; for in most of the propositions, by inserting the word number for line, product for rectangle, second power for square, each proposition may be enumerated, and proved algebraically, without having any recourse to geometry. This is proved in the paper before us, by having recourse to  $x$ , and functions of  $x$ , and shewing that the expressions which relate to arcs of circles, and conic sections, may be considered as fluxions and fluents found at these expressions, though it were not known by the algebraical student that the circle or the conic sections had any existence. No one will hesitate on this head; for a person may learn algebra without studying geometry, and *vice versa*. We agree also entirely with the writer, that the

two sciences of algebra and geometry should not be confounded together: that the quadratic divisors of  $x^n \pm a^n$  may be found without any reference to curves: and that there is not much advantage in the aim of some persons to bring every question to the ancient mode of demonstration. This, however, is a very rare mistake. In most questions where the algebraical process can be applied, it is now almost universally done. But to improve this practice simpler methods must be used than those adopted in this paper; for what person in finding the divisors of  $x^n \mp a^n$ , would

think of making  $x = m^{\frac{1}{n}} e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}} \sqrt[n]{-1}$ ;

and therefore  $a^n = m e^{2\pi i} \sqrt[n]{-1}$ , when it is impossible to form any conception of the expression into which the numbers  $x$  and  $a$  are transformed. We have heard of heresies in religion: the writer of this paper is afraid of being esteemed a mathematical heretic. "If I cannot add to truth, I do not desire distinction (he says) from the heresies of paradox." This is very much like the address of an old father of the church, when he was stepping too near the path of heresy; and we fear that this writer will be considered as heretical by his academical neighbours, for he denies, and with great reason, that it has ever been proved, "that every equation has as many roots as it has dimensions."

6. *Observations and Experiments upon oxygenized and hyperoxygenized muriatic Acid, and upon some Combinations of the muriatic Acid in its three States:* by RICHARD CHENEVIX, Esq. &c.

It was the opinion of Berthollet, that the acid contained in the oxygenated muriat of potash held a larger quantity of oxygen in its composition, than it did previously to its union with the alkali. His reason for so thinking was, that when oxymuriat of potash was formed by passing the acid gas through a solution of potash, a considerable quantity of common muriat was produced, together with the oxygenated muriat of potash. This able chemist, however, did not pursue the subject any further; in consequence of which Mr. Chenevix has turned his attention towards this interesting investigation, and has published the result in the important paper now before us.



The first object was to ascertain the component parts of hyperoxygenized muriate of potash (common oxymuriat of potash.) This salt by distillation afforded 2.5 parts of water, 38.3 of oxygen, and 58.5 of salt; which last, by the test of nitrat of silver, appeared composed of 20. muriatic acid, and 38.5 of potash. Hence the elements of hyperoxygenized muriate of potash appear to be

Oxygen 38.3	{ Hyperoxygenized	} 58.3
Muriatic acid 20.	muriatic acid	
Potash - - -	- - -	39.2
Water - - -	- - -	2.5
<hr/>		
100.0		

Having thus found the proportion of oxygen in hyperoxygenized muriatic acid, Mr. C. proceeded to the analysis of oxygenized muriatic acid (oxymuriatic acid). He first passed the acid procured from common salt and manganese by sulphuric acid, through a solution of potash in a Woulfe's apparatus, till the alkali was saturated. By cautious distillation of this liquor he reduced it to a mass of dry salt, without decomposing it in the smallest degree, thus showing that all the oxygen formerly combined with the oxygenized muriatic acid was now contained in the salt. The salt itself consisted of muriat of potash and hyperoxygenized muriat, from which, by the rule of proportion, it appeared, that oxygenized muriatic acid consists of

Muriatic acid - - -	84
Oxygen - - -	16
<hr/>	
100	

Thus the oxygenized muriatic acid, when brought in contact with an earthy or alkaline base, is decomposed, and affords two kinds of salts, a muriat and hyperoxygenized muriat; of which the former contains less, and the latter more oxygen, than the acid did previous to its entering into combination.

All those alkaline and earthy salts which have hitherto been considered as oxygenated muriats, are shown by this very excellent chemist to be hyperoxygenated muriates; and if an oxygenated muriat is a possible compound, which Mr. C. is inclined to maintain, it appears at least that the existence of such a salt has not yet been demonstrated.

The next part of this memoir treats

of the alkaline and earthy hyperoxygenized muriates. Here we meet with much interesting and novel information. It is well known, that the oxygenized muriatic acid when added to ammonia, either in a liquid or gaseous state, entirely decomposes and destroys it. Mr. Chenevix is the first person who has procured a neutral salt by adding a solution of carbonated ammonia to any of the earthy hyperoxygenized muriates. This salt is hyperoxygenized muriat of ammonia; and it is a very remarkable circumstance, that muriatic acid, in its highest state of oxygenation, should unite with ammonia into a salt, while in the next inferior state of oxygenation, it should wholly decompose this alkali.

The latter part of this paper relates to the metallic salts formed with muriatic acid in the different states of oxygenation, especially of calomel and corrosive sublimate, which last is usually denominated, oxymuriat of mercury. It appears, however, that these two salts contain only oxyd of mercury and muriatic acid, and that they differ from each other not in the oxygenation of the acid, but in the proportion of their ingredients and the oxydation of the base. In calomel, according to Mr. Chenevix, the oxyd of mercury is composed of

Mercury - - -	89.3
Oxygen - - -	10.7

100.0

and calomel is composed of

Mercury 79.	{ Oxyd of	} 88.5
Oxygen 9.5	Mercury	
		Muriatic acid 11.5

100.0

Whereas in corrosive sublimate the oxyd contains,

Mercury - - -	85
Oxygen - - -	15

100

and corrosive sublimate is composed of

Mercury 69.7	{ Oxyd of	} 82.
Oxygen 12.3	Mercury	
		Muriatic acid 18.

100.0

Hyperoxygenized muriat of mercury, a salt hitherto undescribed, is made by passing a stream of oxygenized muriatic

acid through a mixture of water and red oxyd of mercury. A considerable proportion of the product is corrosive sublimate; but it also contains hyperoxygenized muriat of mercury. This, by sulphuric acid, gives out the usual smell of oxygenized muriatic acid, which corrosive sublimate does not.

We meet besides with some interesting facts concerning hyperoxygenized muriat of silver, but for these must refer to the original paper. Mr. C.'s proposal of naming muriatic acid, *muriatic radical*, we can by no means assent to, since it is eminently possessed of all the characters of acids, differing from them only in being capable of being carried to a higher degree of oxygenation than the rest.

7. *Experiments and Observations on certain stony and metalline Substances, which at different Times are said to have fallen on the Earth: Also on various Kinds of native Iron.* By EDWARD HOWARD, Esq. F. R. S.

There exists a series of evidence from the earliest records to the present time, of certain stony and metallic substances having fallen from the upper regions of the atmosphere upon the surface of the earth. In many, however, of the instances recorded, the supposed fact has been associated with circumstances so evidently absurd, that natural philosophers of late years, appear to have generally agreed in rejecting, without further enquiry, all reports and even authenticated attestations of such events. But, notwithstanding the almost universal incredulity upon this subject, the evidence of facts became gradually stronger; and several recently concurring instances, without the smallest possibility of collusion or concert, having taken place, induced Mr. Howard to direct his attention particularly to the subject, and the result of his inquiries is stated in the present interesting and curious memoir.

Omitting the earlier and more dubious accounts of stones having fallen from the heavens, we shall first notice a letter received by Sir William Hamilton from the Earl of Bristol, dated Sienna, July 12, 1794. In this the writer asserts, that "in the midst of a most violent thunder storm, about a dozen stones of various weights and dimensions fell at

the feet of different persons, men, women, and children." They fell about eighteen hours after the enormous eruption of Mount Vesuvius; but the distance, at least 250 miles, renders it dubious, whether they were carried thus far by being exploded from the crater of this mountain. One of the largest of these stones, weighing upwards of five pounds, was sent to Sir W. Hamilton, and presented by him to Sir Joseph Banks. On the 13th December, 1795, a stone, weighing 56 pounds, was seen by several persons to fall near Wold Cottage, in Yorkshire, about three o'clock in the afternoon. It had penetrated through twelve inches of soil and six inches of chalk-rock, throwing up a vast quantity of earth, and as it fell, a number of explosions were heard, about as loud as pistols. When the stone was dug up, it was warm, smoked, and smelt very strong of sulphur. A portion of this stone was procured by Sir Joseph Banks. On the 19th December, 1798, a luminous meteor was observed at Benares in the East-Indies, accompanied by a loud noise resembling thunder; this was immediately followed by the sound of heavy bodies falling. Strict inquiry was immediately made by the British magistrate and others resident on the spot, and several of the stones, supposed to have fallen on this occasion, were sent to England, one of which weighed two pounds twelve ounces. In the catalogue to Baron Born's collection of minerals, there is a substance from Bohemia described, concerning which it is said in a note, "that credulous people assert it to have fallen from heaven, during a thunder storm on the third of July, 1753." The collection of Baron Born now forms a part of Mr. Greville's magnificent cabinet, and upon strictly searching, the very substance thus described was found.

Thus there happened to be in England at the same time, specimens from four different places, of stones, agreeing with each other, in the very extraordinary circumstance of having fallen from the upper regions of the atmosphere. Through the liberality of Sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Greville, and Mr. Williams in whose possession the stones from India were, Mr. Howard was supplied with portions of each for analysis, and Count Bournon contributed his distinguished mineralogical knowledge to the under-

taking, by drawing up an admirable and detailed account of the external characters of the several specimens.

The stones from Benares are covered all over with a thin crust of a deep black colour, attracted by the magnet. When broken, they appear internally of a grayish ash colour and granulated texture, and are composed of four different substances. The first of these is in the form of globules, from the size of a pin's head to that of a pea, of a grayish brown colour and conchoidal fracture: they are perfectly opaque, and give faint sparks with steel. The second substance is martial pyrites, irregularly distributed through the mass of the stone. The third substance consists of small particles of malleable metallic iron. The fourth substance, which serves as a cement to the rest, is an earthy matter of a whitish gray colour. Sp. grav. 3.352.

The stone from Yorkshire has exactly the same constituent parts, but differs from that from Benares, chiefly in the proportion of pyrites which is less, and of iron which is greater, than the former. Sp. gr. 3.508.

The stone from Italy differed from the preceding merely in containing a single small globule of a pale greenish yellow colour, vitreous lustre, and transparent. Sp. gr. 3.418.

The stone from Bohemia differs from the others in containing a much smaller portion of pyrites, and a much larger of metallic iron, which amounted to nearly one fourth of the whole. Sp. gr. 4.281.

Hence it appears that these stones, though they have not the smallest analogy with any known mineral, either of a volcanic or other nature, have a peculiarly striking resemblance to each other. By the analysis of Mr. Howard, a concurrence equally striking, in the component parts of these stones, was manifested. The metallic iron in all of them was alloyed with nickel, and the whole mass of each was made up of silex, magnesia, iron, nickel, and sulphur.

The considerable proportion of metallic iron alloyed with nickel in these stones, induced Mr. H. to turn his attention to the large insulated mass of native iron discovered by Pallas, in Siberia, and which, according to the Tartars, also fell from heaven. Specimens of this

were presented by Professor Pallas to Mr. Greville, who, with his accustomed liberality, furnished Mr. Howard with a sufficient quantity for analysis. This likewise turned out to be an alloy of iron and nickel. The Siberian iron is a cellular mass, containing globules like the one found in the stone from Italy; and which, being analysed, afforded silex, magnesia, and oxyds of iron and nickel. Specimens of native iron from South America, Senegal, and Bohemia, were also examined, and found to consist, like the others, of iron and nickel.

Mr. Howard draws no conclusions from his interesting researches, but submits the following queries.

"1st. Have not all fallen stones, and what are called native irons, the same origin?

"2nd. Are all, or any, the produce of the bodies of meteors?

"3d. Might not the stone from Yorkshire, have formed a meteor in regions too elevated to be discovered?"

#### 8. *Observations on the two lately discovered celestial Bodies. By Dr. HERSCHEL.*

The two new planets, Piazzi and Olbers, have been examined with glasses of different powers by Dr. Herschel, whence he concludes that the diameter of Piazzi is 161,6 miles, and of Olbers 110 1-3d. He cannot discover any satellite to either, and if there is any it must evidently be very small. The colour of Piazzi is ruddy, but not very deep; but still more ruddy than Olbers, which is of a dusky whitish colour. The nature of these bodies is examined, and because they move without the zodiac, the fanciful name asteroid is given to them; and they are supposed to be something between a planet and a comet. As it is probable, that there are many bodies of the same kind, that differ only from the other planets in being without the zodiacal limits, (for magnitude is not of any importance) it has been suggested by a gentleman of this country, that there cannot be any need of a new name, and that the only distinction necessary is to divide the planets into two classes, zodiacal and extra-zodiacal. It is to be remarked that the present zodiacal limits are merely accidental, and formed only on observations previous to the invention of the telescope.

9. *Description of the Corundum Stone, and its Varieties, commonly known by the Name of Oriental Ruby, Sapphire, &c. with Observations on some other mineral Substances.* By the Count de BOURNON, F. R. S.

Of this most admirable mineralogical memoir, we are not able, consistently with the limits to which we are restricted, to offer a satisfactory analysis. In the year 1798 Count Bournon and Mr. Greville presented to the Royal Society a paper on the Corundum stone, proving that it was of the same nature with those gems, that among jewellers and the older mineralogists were distinguished by the epithet *oriental*. Since that time opportunities have occurred to the able author of this paper, of making many additions and corrections to his former memoir; and the present communication is offered to the society as a complete history of the state of our mineralogical knowledge respecting this substance. We have perused it with considerable attention, and beg leave to bear our willing and grateful testimony to its uncommon excellence: like all the writings of its eminent author, it discovers a perfect mastery of the subject, an unwearied patience of research, and a prompt sagacity, together with that candour and modesty, which are the certain criterions of high and unquestionable merit.

10. *Analysis of Corundum, and some of the Substances which accompany it: with Observations on the Affinities which the Earths have been supposed to have for each other, in the humid Way.* By R. CHENEVIX, Esq. &c.

THE analysis of the gems has always presented peculiar difficulties, on account of the extreme hardness of these substances, and the uncommon obstinacy with which they resist solution.—Klaproth was the first who was enabled to make a tolerably satisfactory analysis of them by the united energy of caustic potash and a high heat; but the large proportion of menstruum required, and the tedious repetitions of the process not only consumed a great deal of time and alkali, but threw somewhat of uncertainty on the general result. It is, therefore, no mean obligation that the science of chemistry is under to Mr.

Chenevix for the discovery of a ready, unequivocal, and easy method of effecting this grand desideratum. Two and a half parts of calcined borax fluxed with one of corundum in a platina crucible, run into an uniform glass, which is entirely soluble in muriatic acid, from which the earthy and metallic contents are to be separated in the usual way. This method of analysis, applied to the different varieties of corundum, afforded results that differed from those obtained by Klaproth as to the proportion of silic in this mineral. The German chemist found not more than one or two per cent.; whereas Mr. C. found from five to seven per cent.

The second part of this paper is a satisfactory refutation of Guyton's experiments on the affinities of the earths for each other in the humid way. The inaccuracy of the experiments alluded to, had, indeed, been previously demonstrated in an excellent paper by Daracq, in the *Annales de Chimie*; and the coincidence of Mr. Chenevix's results with these is highly valuable, as settling a point of great importance, both to the science and practice of chemistry.

11. *Description of the Anatomy of the Ornithorhynchus Hystrix.* By EVERARD HOME, Esq. F. R. S.

Another variety of the species described in article 4. of this volume, approaching somewhat more to the perfect quadruped.

The dissection is highly interesting and important.

Mr. Home gives the following characters of the ornithorhynchus as a genus, or tribe of animals:

"The male has a spur on the two hind legs close to the heel.

"The female has no nipples.

"The beak is smooth, the rest of the body hairy.

"The tongue has horny processes, answering the purposes of teeth.

"The penis of the male is appropriated to the passage of semen, and the external orifice is subdivided into several openings, so as to scatter the semen over an extent of surface. The urine passes by a separate canal into the rectum.

"The female has no common uterus; and the tubes which correspond to the horns of the uterus in other quadrupeds, receives the semen immediately from the male."

2. *A Method of examining refractive and dispersive Powers by prismatic Reflection.*  
By W. H. WOLLASTON, M.D. &c.

This paper describes a very ingenious instrument, which cannot, without a figure, be easily explained, to measure the refractive power of any substance. By means of it, the refraction may be discovered from only one surface, and the result is obtained at once without computation. It is of use not only in philosophical enquiries, but in the common affairs of life; as is instanced in the purchase of oil of cloves, whose refractive power ought to have been 1,535, but by adulteration proved to be only 1,498. A table of the refractive powers of various substances is given, which, when the instrument is in many hands, will be considerably enlarged, with great utility both to philosophy and the public. Very important observations are also made on the dispersive powers of substances, and tables are formed of them: and the following remark on colours is too curious to be omitted.

"I cannot conclude these observations on dispersion, without remarking that the colours into which a beam of white light is separable by refraction, appear to me to be neither 7, as they usually are seen in the rainbow, nor reducible by any means (that I can find) to 3, as some persons have conceived; but that, by employing a very narrow pencil of light, 4 primary divisions of the prismatic spectrum may be seen, with a degree of distinctness, that, I believe, has not been described, nor observed before.

"If a beam of day-light be admitted into a dark-room by a crevice 1-20th of an inch broad, and received by the eye at the distance of ten or twelve feet, through a prism of flint-glass, *free from veins*, held near the eye, the beam is seen to be separated into the four following colours only, red, yellowish green, blue, and violet."

13. *On the oblique Refraction of Iceland Crystal.* By W. H. WOLLASTON, M.D.

Huygens has amply described the optical properties of this substance, and in this paper is given a new and easy, and we may add, very ingenious and satisfactory proof of the justness of his conclusions. According to Dr. Young, light proceeding from any luminous centre is propagated by vibrations of a medium highly elastic that pervades all

space. The incipient undulations are of a spherical form, but in the Iceland crystal they appeared to Huygens to be portions of an oblate spheroid. With this hypothesis of Huygens, the observations made by the writer coincide in a very remarkable manner, and the mensuration of the angles and the theory of the spheroid are equally deserving of attention. We may now say with the writer, "that the oblique refraction, when considered alone, seems to be nearly as well explained as any other optical phenomenon."

14. *An Account of some Causes of the Production of Colours, not hitherto described.*  
By THOMAS YOUNG, M.D. &c.

These causes rest on the following simple and general law, that "Wherever two portions of the same light arrive at the eye by different routes, either exactly or very nearly in the same direction, the light becomes most intense, when the difference of the routes is any multiple of a certain length, and least intense in the intermediate state of the interfering portions, and this length is different for light of different colours." This law is applied in a very ingenious manner to the colours of fibres and the colours of mixed plates.

15. *On the Composition of Emery.* By SMITHSON TENNANT, Esq. F.R.S.

Emery is a substance that has long puzzled chemists and mineralogists, some ranking it as a refractory iron ore, and others associating it with substances, to which it appears to have but little affinity. Mr. Tennant has undertaken the analysis of it by caustic soda; and though unsuccessful in bringing the whole to a state of solution, has shewn a striking analogy between this mineral and corundum, in which case, its refractoriness and use in polishing, &c. are easily explained. We trust Mr. T. will repeat his analysis according to Mr. Chenevix's method described in article 10 of the volume now under consideration.

15. *Quelques Remarques sur la Chaleur, et sur l'Action des Corps qui l'interceptent,*  
par P. PREVOST, Professeur de Philosophie à Geneve, &c.

Of this paper, it is scarcely possible to give a clear idea by an abstract, on



account of the numerous calculations that it contains; together with the references to Dr. Herschel's paper on this subject, in the Transactions for 1800, and the theories of professors Pictet and Prevost, with which English philosophers are not so familiar as they ought to be.

17. *On the Rectification of the Conic Sections.*  
By the Rev. JOHN HELLINS, B. D.  
F.R.S. &c.

In this memoir, several new series are introduced for the rectification of the hyperbola, together with the methods of computing the constant quantities, by which the ascending series differ from descending ones. The expression for the rectification of the hyperbola is well known to be

$$z = y \frac{\sqrt{1+e^2} y}{\sqrt{1+y^2}}$$

and this expression appears in different forms, according to the different series into which the numerator or denominator is converted. These forms are examined with great judgment; and examples are given of the utility of the four, to which the writer gives the preference. The little use of a series given by Dr. Waring, is properly pointed out, with the means of improving it. And we are concerned to find, the writer hinting "the want of patronage, which the liberal arts (or ought we not to say) sciences have of late years experienced."

18. *Catalogue of Five Hundred new Nebulae, nebulous Stars, planetary Nebulae; and Clusters of Stars, with Remarks on the Construction of the Heavens.* By Doctor HERSCHEL.

The number of stars seen by the naked eye in these climates, at any one time, scarcely amounts to a thousand; the late improvements in the telescope have discovered to us many millions. These seem to the writer of this paper worthy of a particular arrangement, and he proposes that they should be divided into the following classes. 1. Insulated stars. 2. Double stars, or binary sidereal systems. 3. More complicated sidereal systems. 4. Clustering stars, or the milky way. 5. Groups of stars. 6. Clusters of stars. 7. Nebulae. 8. Stars with burrs, or starry nebulae. 9. Milky nebulosity. 10. Nebulous stars.

11. Planetary nebulae. 12. Planetary nebulae, with centres.

The insulated stars are those stars which are at such a distance from each other, that their influence on each other's motions, is too small for consideration. Of this number is the sun. Double stars are those which, being in appearance one to the naked eye, are within the sphere of each other's gravity, and therefore so as to revolve round a common centre of gravity. As two stars may revolve in this manner, so a system may be formed of three or more stars, which shall act thus upon each other; and it is shown, that whilst two stars are revolving in the same plane round the common centre of gravity, a third star may move up and down perpendicularly to that plane, and passing through the common centre of gravity. Clustering stars are those where there is evident appearance of separate collections, the number of stars not being the same in equal spaces. This will be observed by a greater brightness towards the centre of each collection, than towards its edges. Groups of stars are collections of closely and almost equally compressed stars, of any figure or outline, without any condensation to point out a centre of force, though sufficiently separated from other stars to show that they form peculiar systems. Clusters of stars are generally round, and this compression shows a gradual and pretty sudden accumulation towards the centre. The other names are formed in a similar manner, and a conjecture is hazarded on the nebulae, which will astonish a common reader. The light by which the remote ones are seen, must have been almost two millions of years on its way, before it met the eye of the observer. The whole hypothesis is ingenious and plausible. It resolves itself into this question: gravity pervades the whole system of the world, in any portion of it; and if there is a body very large in proportion to the others near to it, these bodies will revolve in ellipses round the larger body, and form one system, like our planetary system, which at a distance appears like a fixed star. This system must have an effect, however small, on all the adjoining systems, and these systems may be formed of equal or unequal bodies, varying in number, whose actions on each other may form circular or elliptical orbits, or even make one body move in a straight line. Ac-

cording to the number, and motion, and distance, of the bodies in each separate system, will be their appearances to the eye of the spectator, who will see in them double stars, groups of stars, nebulae, &c. &c. All of these systems will

act upon each other, and the centre of gravity of the whole, is the centre of gravity of the world. Gravity being admitted, these positions seem to be a necessary consequence, and there is matter for the speculation of infinite ages.

ART. VI. *Memoirs of the literary and philosophical Society of Manchester.* Vol. 5. Part 2d. 8vo.

IT gives us much pleasure to observe the vigorous state of this respectable society. The half volume now before us is decidedly the most original and important that it has ever published. Considerable accessions have also been made to the number of its members, among whom we perceive several names of high respectability. Long may it flourish, and diffuse more and more through the wealthy, ardent, and crowded population in the midst of which it is situated, the refinements of literature, and the resources of science! The following is a brief summary of the contents of this publication.

1. *On Tragedy, and the Interest in tragical Representations. An Essay by the Rev. GEORGE WALKER, F. R. S.*

The author of this paper first examines the solution proposed by the Abbé du Bos, to the question, why we take pleasure in tragical representations, and is of opinion, that the natural delight which we experience in the agitation of the passions, is by no means a satisfactory reply. Nor is he better satisfied with the theory of Fontenelle, which, besides the cause admitted by Du Bos, includes also the consideration that the distress by which our emotions are excited is only fictitious. To this Hume superadds the elevating and pleasing effect of the poetry and measure in which the fable is related. Mr. Walker, however, differs in opinion from all these writers, and refers the delight experienced from the perusal or exhibition of tragedy to the feeling of compassion or sympathy, by whose agency "the distressing sensations to which we are exposing ourselves appear with that softened aspect, that grace, which a virtuous and benevolent melancholy always wears."

2. *Experiments and Observations to determine whether the Quantity of Rain and Dew is equal to the Quantity of Water car-*

*ried off by the Rivers, and raised by Evaporation; with an Enquiry into the Origin of Springs.* By JOHN DALTON.

This memoir appears to us to be by no means satisfactory, though perhaps as much so as the nature of the case will at present admit of. Mr. Dalton, by collating the registers of the various rain-gages that have been kept in different parts of England, estimates the mean quantity of rain that falls during the year, in England and Wales. at 31 inches. To this he adds 5 inches for the dew, for no other reason, that we can find, except that Dr. Hales estimated its quantity at 3.28 inches. Thus, according to Mr. Dalton, there are 36 inches, or multiplying this by the surface, 153,176,320,000 cubic yards of water annually deposited on the surface of England, which must be disposed of by the rivers, by the evaporation, and if these are not sufficient by some other means.

In order to estimate the quantity of water carried down by the rivers, the author divides South Britain into 1. The southern district, including every thing south of the Thames and Severn; 2. The Thames district; 3. The Severn and Wye district; 4. The eastern district; 5. Part of Wales, not included in No. 3; 6. The Humber district; 7. The northern district. Dr. Halley computed the water of the Thames at 20,300,000 tons in a day: this quantity however Mr. Dalton, unsupported by any observation, chooses to reduce to 2.9ds; he therefore estimates the flowing waters of the Thames district, at 1.25th of the rain and dew of all South Britain. The Severn and Humber districts he estimates as each equal to the Thames; the southern district he takes at 1½ times the Thames; the eastern district at 1; and the two remaining districts at 4. Thus the whole of the water carried off by the rivers is = 13 inches, there remain 23 inches yet to be accounted for. The

annual evaporation, from some inaccurate experiments by Mr. Dalton, at Manchester, appeared to equal 30 inches; as this however is 7 inches too much, Mr. Dalton, being apparently resolved to make the quantity of water deposited tally with that carried off by evaporation and the rivers, makes an allowance of 7 inches for errors in his experiments, and thus procures the sum of 36 inches required. From the same vague estimates and guesses he might have deduced any greater or lesser number that he pleased.

3. *Experiments and Observations on the Power of Fluids to conduct Heat, with reference to Count Rumford's Essay on the same Subject.* By JOHN DALTON.

Count Rumford, from the novel and highly interesting experiments invented by him, and published in his seventh essay, was induced to deny the power of water and all other fluids to conduct heat downwards; and maintained, that the sole reason why heat is propagated through them at all is in consequence of the heated particles of fluid ascending through the cooler ones by their diminished specific gravity. Mr. Dalton, however, in this paper has decisively shewn, that though heat is propagated through fluids chiefly in the way that Count Rumford has discovered, yet that they also possess, though in a small degree, a proper conducting power.

4. *Experiments on the Velocity of Air issuing out of a Vessel in different Circumstances; with the Description of an Instrument to measure the Force of the Blast in Bellows, &c.* By MR. BANKS, Lecturer in Natural Philosophy.

By a simple instrument, the construction of which cannot be understood without reference to the plate, Mr. Banks ascertains that a pressure equal to 33 feet of water, will expel air out of bellows with a velocity of 845 feet per second; that one foot of water in depth will produce a velocity of  $147\frac{1}{4}$  feet, and one inch a velocity of 42 feet per second. The instrument for measuring the force in bellows, is the same in principle, but not so elegant in construction, as the barometer in common use for this purpose in steam engines.

5. *Essay on the Beautiful in the human Form; and Enquiry whether the Grecian Statues present the most perfect Beauty of Form that we have at present any acquaintance with.* By a Correspondent.

The object of this paper is two-fold; first, to ascertain the standard of beauty, and then to shew its application to the statues of the Grecian sculptors.

According to this writer, the standard of beauty is generated like an abstract idea, by insensibly comparing a multitude of original forms, and making out of them an image which shall be as it were the mean of the whole. This he illustrates by supposing that impressions were taken from the faces of all the women in this kingdom at the age of twenty, excluding only such as were deformed and blemished, and that an artist were to form a face that was the mean of all these, this face would be the perfect model of our national beauty. And if from several national standards thus obtained, the mean of these should also be taken, this last image would be as perfect a representative as possible of the beauty of the female face. This kind of argument pervades the whole of the essay, and is manifestly false. By such a mode of proceeding our artist might perhaps gain a correct average representation of the female face; but the author seems not to be aware that beauty is an uncommon as well as an harmonious arrangement of features, and therefore that the ideal standard of perfect beauty cannot originate by the same process as is made use of in forming an estimate of the national or general character of mind or features.

In the second part of the essay, which is an enquiry whether the Greek statues do actually correspond to the average standard thus laid down, we meet with sentiment and assertion, but not a single fact at all applicable to the point in question. The Greek statuary was so far from making his Hercules, his Apollo, or Venus, a representation of the mean of manly strength, manly grace, and female beauty, that from the most perfect living models in each kind of corporeal excellence, he selected the leading features of each, and thence composed a harmonious and super-human figure. He even did more; he aspired to improve upon Nature herself, and thus produced statues exceeding, in particular

proportions, not only the average, but the most exaggerated living types, where he thought that by this deviation he could produce a more striking effect. Thus in all the Greek statues the head is unnaturally small, and the facial angle is unnaturally large.

6. and 7. *A Defence of Learning and the Arts, against some Charges of Rousseau, in two Essays. By the Rev. GEORGE WALKER, F. R. S.*

This is a spirited refutation of the baseless charges brought against civilization, by Rousseau, in his celebrated essay which was crowned by the Dijon academy.

8. *Observations on the nervous Systems of different Animals; on original Defects in the nervous System of the human Species, and their Influence on Sensation and voluntary Motion. By JOHN HULL, M. D.*

In this curious and interesting paper Dr. Hull endeavours to shew that the vital powers, and sensation, and voluntary motion, are not in all cases dependent upon the brain. He first establishes, by means of Cuvier's researches on this subject, that some of the lower orders of animals, which unquestionably exert voluntary motion, are destitute of brain and spinal marrow. He then details a number of striking cases of infants born destitute of brain and spinal marrow, who have lived a few days, and during that time have taken food, and given other unquestionable evidences of voluntary action. He also shews that in the most defective human monsters, not only brain and spinal marrow, but even distinct and visible nerves have been wanting, and yet the principle of vitality has existed, the arteries and veins have circulated the blood, and several parts have grown and expanded as regularly as if the nervous system had been perfect.

9. *Experiments and Observations on the Heat and Cold produced by the mechanical Condensation and Rarefaction of Air. By JOHN DALTON.*

The mercury of the thermometer, placed in a receiver, suddenly drops when the air is exhausted, and as suddenly rises when the air is condensed.

The suddenness of the rise and fall suggested to Mr. Dalton the idea that there was a much greater change of temperature than the thermometer indicated, but that the inequality existed for only a few seconds of time, on account of the rapidity with which so bulky a substance as air receives or parts with heat. If this suspicion was well founded, it is obvious that of two thermometers of different sizes placed in the receiver, the smaller one should in equal times indicate greater changes of temperature than the larger one. Several experiments for the ascertaining of this are detailed, the results of which were correspondent to the theory.

10. *Account of some Antiques lately found in the River Ribble. By Mr. THOMAS BARRIT.*

This is an interesting paper, but cannot be understood without the engraving that accompanies it.

11. *Experimental Essays on the Constitution of mixed Gases; on the Force of Steam and Vapour from Water and other Liquids in different Temperatures, both in a Torricellian Vacuum, and in Air; on Evaporation, and on the Expansion of Gases by Heat. By JOHN DALTON.*

This communication is of great value, and reflects much credit on the ingenuity and talents of the author. The experiments appear to have been drawn up with every possible attention to accuracy, and the results are of singular importance. In many particulars they entirely contradict the received theories, but they seem to be remarkably in accord with each other, and with natural appearances. The closeness of the reasoning would be mutilated and impaired by an abridgement, and the nature of our plan will not allow of that detailed examination which alone is capable of doing justice to the author. Thus circumstanced, we can do no more than earnestly recommend to the scrutiny of our philosophical readers, an essay, in which, among other important matter, it is maintained, That the force of vapour from all liquids, from ether to mercury, is precisely the same at equal distances, above or below their respective boiling points; and that all elastic fluids under the same pressure expand equally by equal degrees of heat.

12. *A Review of some Experiments which have been supposed to disprove the Materiality of Heat.* By WILLIAM HENRY.

The experiments referred to are those of Count Rumford and Mr. Davy, on the production of heat by friction; which Mr. Henry is of opinion by no means disprove the distinct and peculiar materiality of heat.

13. *An Investigation of the Method whereby Men judge by the Ear of the Position of sonorous Bodies, relative to their own Persons.* By Mr. JOHN GOUGH.

This is a curious paper, and contains

some ingenious experiments; but we conceive the author to be in an error, when he supposes, and explains many of the phenomena by the supposition, that the head itself is a sensitive solid possessed in a considerable degree of the faculty of hearing independently of the ear.

14. *The Theory of compound Sounds.* By Mr. JOHN GOUGH.

This is a short defence of Dr. Smith's theory, against the objections that have been urged by Dr. Young in his papers on this subject, inserted in the Philosophical Transactions.



## CHAPTER XIX.

## M A T H E M A T I C S,

AND

## NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

SEVERAL detached memoirs on these very important topics are to be found in the preceding chapter: no works being admitted into this that are not entirely devoted to mathematical subjects.

The Italians have been more practical assertors of the natural equality of the sexes than any other European nation, and several instances have occurred of the professorial seats in their most celebrated universities having been most ably and meritoriously occupied by ladies. The *Analytical Institutions* of Donna Maria Agnesi, mathematical professor at Bologna, were published in the Italian language more than half a century ago; they were translated by a Lucasian professor of mathematics at Cambridge, and are at length published by the disinterested munificence of Baron Maseres. Mr. Bonnycastle has rendered a service to his country by a neat version of *Bossut's General History of the Mathematics*; and Mr. Gregory has published a very useful *Treatise on Astronomy*. Professor Leybourn, of the Royal Military College, has been usefully employed in his *Synopsis of Data for the Construction of Triangles*, a work whose value must not be estimated by its size: the *Mathematical Repository* also, and a volume of mathematical tracts, will add to his reputation for science and industry. The interests of navigation have been promoted by the Tables of Mr. Rios: and, as honourable testimonies of the ardour of our French rivals in this department of science, we have selected Lalande's *Tables des Logarithmes*, Berthoud's *Histoire de la Mesure du Temps par les Horloges*, and the *Connoissance des Temps*.

ART. I. *A general History of Mathematics from the earliest Times to the Middle of the Eighteenth Century; translated from the French of John Bossut: to which is affixed, a Chronological Table of the most eminent Mathematicians.* 8vo.

THIS work stands in no need of commendation, when it is known to have been thought worthy of a translation by Mr. Bonnycastle, who himself undertook the task of translating it, and in so doing, has performed a very acceptable service to the public. In his preface to the translation, he has justly appreciated the merits of the original,

in which are evident proofs that on most subjects "of a curious and difficult nature, the author appears to have thought for himself; and on many occasions he will be found to display a shrewdness and perspicuity of observation, accompanied with anecdotes which afford a pleasant relief to the dry part of the narrative, and tend to impress the sub-

ject more strongly on the mind." The work is divided into four periods; in the first the state of the mathematics is considered from their origin to the destruction of the Alexandrian school; in the second, from their revival among the Arabs to the end of the fifteenth century; in the third, from the end of the fifteenth century to the invention of the method of fluxions; in the fourth, from the discovery of fluxions to the present times. In an octavo volume it is impossible to enter into all the details which are requisite to give full information on every point, yet the general history is displayed in a very pleasing manner; and on subjects of great importance, such as the discovery of gravity and of fluxions, the steps which led to the discovery of the one, and the disgraceful altercation which followed the

invention of the other, are laid open, with equal judgment, energy, and perspicuity. In this work the mathematical student will see traced, in an easy manner, the progress of science, from the earliest to the present times; will become acquainted with the illustrious names which have adorned it in every age, and be excited by their success to an emulation of their labours. If Montucla occupies the leisure of the deeper student, the younger part will find a more agreeable companion in Bossut.

The translation is made with great spirit, and if Gallicisms occasionally occur, they will be readily pardoned by a candid reader, who will join with us in thanking the translator for introducing so good a history of the mathematics into the English world.

ART. II. *A Treatise on Astronomy.* By O. GREGORY. 8vc,

TREATISES on astronomy are very numerous; some are popular, and explain a few only of the phenomena of the heavens; others enter deeply into physical causes, and investigating them on mathematical principles, evade the researches of general abilities. In this work both plans are mixed, the popular part is explained in a manner sufficiently intelligible, but it is so mixed with the mathematical, that no one who has not made considerable progress in the mathematics, can

follow the train of reasoning here adopted. Great improvements have been also made of late years in this science, which are judiciously inserted in this work, and it embraces every topic generally introduced into this branch of philosophy. A sufficient variety of problems exemplifies the principles laid down, and a number of tables close the work, which will be found very useful to the student in practical astronomy.

ART. III. *Analytical Institutions, in four Books, originally written in Italian, by Donna Maria Agnesi, Professor of the Mathematics and Philosophy in the University of Bologna. Translated into English by the late Reverend JOHN COLSON, M.A. F.R.S. Lucasian Professor of the Mathematics in the University of Cambridge. Now first printed from the Translator's Manuscript, under the Inspection of the Reverend John Hellins, D.D. F.R.S. and Vicar of Potter's Bury, in Northamptonshire.* 2 Vols. 4to.

THE history of these volumes is curious, and does honour to one of the most liberal patrons of science, ever known in this country. The original, the work of a very distinguished lady on the Continent, was published in Italian, her own language, in the year 1748. Professor Colson, an ornament to the chair which he filled at Cambridge, learned the Italian language for the sole purpose of translating it, which he accomplished a little before his death. This, with several other writings, then fell into the hands of an alderman at Cambridge, where they most probably would have lain buried in oblivion, if

Baron Maseres had not drawn them from their retreat, and taken upon himself the whole expence of the publication. The papers were put into the hands of Mr. Hellins, an eminent mathematician, who has so well performed his part, that we should rejoice to hear that the alderman was determined not to yield in generosity to the Baron, nor to derive any benefit from the labours of the editor. We must record it also, for the honour of the Baron, that this work is entirely built upon those prejudices, which he has been endeavouring for nearly half a century to counteract; but he can acknowledge

merit, though in some places clouded with error, and as the system universally adopted, of allowing or supposing quantities to be less than nothing, was that in which the lady was educated, the very excellent demonstrations she has given, were not, he thought, to be lost to the English public, because he could not allow an hypothesis which had been so strangely introduced into science.

Of the lady herself little is known. She was the daughter of a respectable tradesman at Milan, and born, it is supposed, about the year 1720, and soon distinguished herself so much by her skill in the learned languages and in science, that she was visited by every man of learning, who passed near her residence. The powers of her mind were not, however, sufficient to preserve her from the superstition and fanaticism of the country in which she was born, and after having been, from her merit, raised to the rank of professor of mathematics in Bologna, she sacrificed her eminent talents to the follies of monastic life, and became a nun of one of the severest orders in the church of Rome. This work, she modestly informs us, was written partly for her own amusement, and partly for the instruction of one of her brothers. That it is calculated for the amusement of the ladies, the translator was so strongly convinced, that he was in some degree led to translate it with the hopes of exciting their curiosity, and not doubting, that the fair sex in England may vie with that in Italy, as much in the powers of their mind as the beauty of their persons, he would suggest an exchange of Whist, Cassino, and Commerce, for these supposed abstruser studies.

The work is divided into two parts, of which the first is algebraical, the second fluxional. The first volume contains the algebraical, and the second the fluxional part. The first volume begins with the usual definitions of algebraical terms, proceeds to the operations by the common rules, and then enters upon the doctrine of equations, which are all explained by geometrical figures. This portion, which is by far the greater part of the volume, may be considered as the doctrine of the law of equations of various orders, in which there are many very elegant constructions that will bear the examination of adepts, and afford very useful lessons to those who are

entering on their mathematical studies. The whole, we have already observed, is built upon the doctrine of positive and negative quantities, and the only peculiarity of the lady's system is, that she attempts to give a demonstration, that a negative quantity multiplied into a negative quantity, produces a positive quantity from the nature of proportion. Thus since  $1 : a :: 6 : a$  to a fourth, and the three terms are positive, the fourth must be a positive term, and had the second or third term been negative, the fourth must be negative, since it must be such a multiple of the second or third, as the third or second is of the first. This will not be allowed, by the opponents of the negative system, who contend, that from the nature of proportion the four quantities must be such, that equimultiples of the first and third being taken, and of the second and fourth, the equimultiple of the first must be greater, equal to, or less than that of the second, and the same must hold of the equimultiples of the third and fourth. Now suppose,  $1 : -a :: 6 : -c$  then equimultiples may be taken of 1 and 6, but equimultiples cannot be taken of  $-a$  and  $-c$ ; for it is not yet decided, that a positive quantity multiplied into a negative quantity will be productive of any effect. And as the truth of proportion depends on multiplication, proportion cannot be made the proof of multiplication. If true logic will not then admit of this proof in its simplest cases, it cannot *a fortiori* be admitted in the most difficult case, when it is asserted, that  $1 : -a :: -6 : -c$ . The attempt, however, to get over this famous difficulty in the entrance of the algebraical studies, is very ingenious, and is assuredly superior to that of MacLaurin and Clairault.

As the whole theory of algebra is in this volume made to depend upon geometry, the work will be less useful to algebraical students, who will prefer to study the science in the easier works, which are very numerous upon this subject. When they have, however, acquired a sufficient knowledge of quadratic equations, they will reap great benefit from pursuing the lady's method of constructing not only those but the higher equations. Our limits and the nature of the work will not permit us to select many instances, but they are all so well laid down, that very little

application is necessary to understand the operation or the mode of reasoning to which it gives rise.

In the second volume, the doctrine of fluxions is considered, or as it is here called, the analysis of infinitely small quantities, a definition which will not please the English mathematician, who, with justice, expects, that the notions of fluxion and of an infinite small quantity should be kept perfectly distinct. An infinitely small quantity may be the measure of a fluxion, and so may an infinitely large quantity or a finite quantity; but the whole of the doctrine of fluxions is best explained by considering their measures as, what they in strictness always are, finite quantities.

A fluxion, according to the definition in this work, is "any infinitely little portion of a variable quantity, which is so small that it has to the variable itself a less proportion than any that can be assigned, and by which the same variable being either increased or diminished, it may still be conceived the same as at first." It is needless to enter upon the lady's attempt to make us believe, that these infinitely little portions are real and not imaginary beings, since she tells us, that there may be other beings infinitely less than these, and so on *ad infinitum*. Such accounts naturally make the unlearned stare, and justify the poet in qualifying mathesis with the epithet of madness.

Having overcome, however, the difficulty in supposing these different orders of infinitesimals to exist, we find the processes of fluxions explained in an easy and familiar manner. In drawing tangents the case of a quantity is explained, when it is equal to nothing, divided by nothing, which is, as in most other works of the same kind, very difficult of comprehension; but the various problems solved on maxima and minima; the finding of areas and radii of curvature, &c. will amply repay the

student for the few difficulties he meets with in the onset of this part of the work, and in some places in his future progress. In the inverse method or the finding of fluents, very great ingenuity is displayed, and in the fluxional equations, where fluxions of several orders occur, the developement of them excites the highest admiration of the talents of the author. It is not to be expected, that in the lapse of time, since the work was originally written, many improved demonstrations may not have been given of several problems; yet upon the whole, from the elegance with which every question is solved, the work will not suffer in a competition with any that have been published upon the same subjects. The profound mathematician may frequently find opportunity for the exercise of his talents, and the inferior scholar will derive a pleasure in comparing various processes in this work, with those to which he has been hitherto accustomed.

In the translation of a mathematical work there is little room for the display of taste; perspicuity is the chief thing required, and this seems every where to have been sufficiently attained. The editor also deserves great praise for his care in superintending a work of so much nicety, and which must have very frequently required the exercise of great talents; and the mathematical world is under great obligations to him, and will look forward with pleasure to his intended publication, by which the defects in this work will be amply and judiciously supplied. The methods of finding the roots of numerical equations by approximation; of solving literal and fluxional equations by infinite series, and of comparing together homogeneous fluents, will be given in a supplement, if it should appear to be desired by the mathematical reader, a desire, which we have presumed, and on good grounds, we trust, to anticipate.

ART. IV. *Geometrical Propositions demonstrated after the Manner of the Ancients, from the Latin of Dr. STEWART.*

PROFESSOR Leybourn, of the royal military college, announced some time ago his intention of publishing a collection of mathematical and philosophical tracts, of which this is part; and the first volume, which ought to have had a general title, corresponds to the

publisher's intentions. The tracts are well selected and are of great merit. Playfair on prisms is judiciously added to Dr. Stewart's work, and the whole is divided into two parts, of which the mathematical is in the first, and the philosophical in the second. The pub-

lishing of parts of works together in one volume, does not, however, seem to us, a very judicious mode, as few readers will be pleased with the delay in completing each respective work, and as the parts of the volume must hereafter be separated by the purchaser, and bound

with what may appear in future numbers; the first trouble would be the least, and the satisfaction in having entire works the greater. The intention, however, of publishing the collection is worthy of great praise, and will, we hope, meet with encouragement.

ART. V. *Table de Logarithmes pour les Nombres et pour les Sines. Tables of the Logarithms for Numbers and Sines; with their Explanation and principal Uses in Astronomy, Dialling, Geometry, Navigation, Geography, Natural Philosophy, Tactics, Architecture, Mensuration, Statisticks, and Annuities.* By JEROME DE LA LANDE, senior, Director of the Observatory. Ed. Stereotype.

A VERY elegant little volume, containing the logarithms of numbers from unity to 10000, and of the sines, tangents, cotangents, cosines of arcs, whose number of degrees and minutes is given. The logarithms are indeed calculated to only five places of decimals; but the editor, whose experience and sagacity cannot be doubted, declares, that in calculating several hundred eclipses, he scarcely ever used any other tables than these, and seldom found any other at all necessary. The reason is, that there is not sufficient accuracy in observations, to require a greater accuracy in the tables. Still we may observe, that in a work of this kind, accuracy should be studied as far as is compatible with its design, and here might have been six figures of decimals, without at all increasing the size of the volume. The affixing

of the index to each logarithm is perfectly superfluous, or, if it might be thought necessary to point it out, the index might have been placed at the head of each column, and then another figure might have been added to the decimals in each logarithm. The advantage, however, which the French schools enjoy in having so good and useful a work, for only two shillings and a penny, will be duly appreciated by schoolmasters in this country, who, from the expence of books in this kind, are prevented almost entirely from teaching logarithms; and this very admirable branch of knowledge, which every boy, not injured in his intellects, might easily attain to, before the age of fourteen, is ranked in this country, in the number of abstruse studies.

ART. VI. *Histoire de la Mesure du Temps par les Horloges, par FERDINAND BERTHOUD, Mécanicien de la Marine, Membre de l'Institut National de France, and de la Société royale de Londres.* 4to. 2 Vols.

*History of the Measure of Time by Clocks, Watches, and Timekeepers.*

TIME is measured by motion, but there is not a body in nature whose motion is uniform. The obvious measure of time is the sun; and the sun-dial was probably a very early invention to point out the passing moments. As this measurer fails us one half of the day, the ingenuity of man endeavoured to supply its place, by the descent of water through vessels, so formed that its surface might perform the same office as the gnomon on the sun-dial. The defects in both contrivances are obvious, but many ages elapsed before mechanism was introduced; and it was found that, by means of wheels, a balance, and a weight, the desired uniformity in motion might be obtained. This was the great step in

the measuring of time. The subsequent improvements in the machinery are of very high importance, and have resulted from the great progress made in later times both in science and arts. Bells were added to sound the hour, and, as we derived our clocks from the French, the name itself, clock, was given to the instrument from its sounding the hour; cloche being the French for a bell. Watches, pendulums, and springs, gradually became common; and what was once the surprise of the greatest monarchs in Europe, is now the companion of the labours of every mechanic.

In this work the history of every mode of measuring time is traced, as well as it can be, to its earliest source. The ob-



security in which the origin of dials and clepsydras is placed cannot be dispelled; but due honour is given to Archimedes, for his application of wheels with teeth, to produce the motion of his artificial sphere. These toothed wheels were certainly of a more antient date, but though they were soon applied to the clepsydras, several ages elapsed before a regular time-keeper, by mere mechanical contrivances, was discovered. To whom the great merit of this contrivance is to be ascribed we cannot ascertain; but in this, as many other useful things in life, we are indebted to the industry of the Germans. Their first essays would naturally be rude and imperfect; but the production of motion by weight, balance, and scapement, however coarse the parts were, was a grand invention, and superior to any that has since given credit and fame to men of eminence in this art. Several of the early clocks are described in this work, with very useful and excellent remarks on their machinery.

When a clock had been once made, it was natural for man to wish that some contrivance might be discovered, by which the motion by wheels might be performed in less compass; and to the Germans we are again indebted for the spring which produced a watch first in the sixteenth century. To that nation then we must look for the origin of the useful time-keeper, by which the longitude may be ascertained at sea, and for which an English artist has been so deservedly rewarded. The theory of the motion was still in its infancy. Galileo about this time was making his observations on the descent of bodies by the force of gravity; the motion of the pendulum became of importance in his calculations, and in the middle of the seventeenth century its application to clocks forms an important epoch in this history. It is well known, that this led to the discovery of the motion in a cycloid, by Huygens; and thence to the nature of the vibrations of pendulums in small arcs of circles, and the necessity of changing their length with the change of latitude. To Huygens we are indebted also for the improvement of the spring of a watch, though our author, who every where shews a desire to detract as much as possible from the merit of the English, would ascribe

to him a great part of that merit which is due to Dr. Hook as the first inventor.

A uniformity of motion having been obtained, a greater degree of exactness in the measuring of time might naturally be expected. The irregularity of the sun's motion was investigated, the clock was regulated by its mean motion, and the equation of time was discovered. Clocks to mark this equation were first made in London, towards the close of the seventeenth century; and a remarkable one is mentioned by our author, to have been seen in the palace of Charles II. of Spain. The motion of the clock might be well regulated, the machinery all perfect, yet accurate observations discovered that there was a variation in the vibrations of a pendulum in summer and winter. Hence arose a new set of experiments, the theory of the contraction and dilatation of metals was gradually established, and a pendulum was constructed, in which the metals were adjusted in such a manner as to destroy the effects of the temperature of the seasons.

In relating the progress of these discoveries many curious instruments are described, which our limits will not permit us to notice; and we hasten to the great question, on the importance of time-keepers, to ascertain the longitude at sea. The difficulties attending the process by observations on eclipses of the stars, and the places of the moon, are properly stated; and after the mention of several attempts we are brought to the famous time-keeper of Harrison, and the efforts in the same career of Pierre Leroy, and Ferdinand Berthoud. An attempt is here made to give the credit of this instrument to the Frenchmen:—"The principles," it is said, "which they have established belong exclusively to them; and the construction of the French time-keepers is so different from those of the English, that nothing could have been borrowed from the latter." The different proofs which have been made of these time-keepers are related, and form a very important part of the history with which the first volume is concluded.

The second volume commences with the history of various scapements, in which those of Graham, Sully, Berthoud, Mudge, and others, are described. The history of the pyrometer is then related,

and the various modes of regulating and forming pendulums pass in review. The effect of heat and cold upon the spring of the watch is considered, with the means of counteracting it; and the various instruments used in the art of clock and watch making, with their several improvements, are very well delineated. The application of clock-work to planetariums and orreries, forms the subject of an excellent chapter, which is followed by a chronological table of the authors of improvements made in time-keepers from the earliest to the present times. A very useful appendix is given, containing a catalogue of authors that have written upon this subject, in which, however, we perceive a lamentable want of German writers; and we are much inclined to suspect, that the *Ausführliche Geschichte*, by John Heinrich Maurice Poppe, published at Leipzig, 1801, in 8vo. will contain much useful matter, freed from those idle marks

of partiality with which this work is disfigured. The author regrets that his ignorance of the German language disqualified him from perusing the work above mentioned, by Poppe, but it is certainly worthy of the attention of English artists; and from that work, and the work before us, with a proper consultation of preceding authors, and a free communication with the artists in London, a very useful work might be given to the public, which would do honour to the country, at the same time that it paid the just tribute of applause for original invention to the Germans, and for the improvements in machinery to the inhabitants of Geneva and Neuchâtel. The work is elegantly printed at the press of the French republic; the plates are remarkably well executed, and we can almost pardon the partiality of an author to a nation which is so laudably employed in disseminating useful knowledge and information over Europe.

ART. VII. *A Synopsis of Data for the Construction of Triangles.* By THOMAS LEYBOURN, *Editor of the mathematical and philosophical Repository and Review.*

THIS is a work which may employ, very usefully, the leisure of a mathematician. A variety of data for the construction of triangles is given in 409 propositions, which the editor wishes to be answered both geometrically and al-

gebraically. From the solutions sent to him, it is his intention to select what appear to him the best, and to give them to the public. A work published in this manner cannot fail to be very interesting.

ART. VIII. *Tables for facilitating the Calculations of nautical Astronomy.* By JOSEPH DE MENDOZA RIOS, Esq. F. R. S.

THE improvements made of late years in astronomical calculations, have rendered tables of this kind very useful and necessary. They are the result of great pains employed in astronomical and nautical pursuits. To use them requires a considerable degree of skill and practice, but this will be learnt by mariners, if, instead of confining themselves to the meridian observation, they accustom themselves to take the altitudes of the sun at different times of the day, and

thence, by means of these tables, ascertain the latitude. A sufficient number of instances is given to teach the use of the tables, which are thirty-three in number by Mr. Rios, and six by Mr. Cavendish; and they contain every thing requisite for the calculation of altitudes or distances of objects in the heavens, and for the correction of errors arising from deviation, depression, or dip parallax, refraction, &c.

ART. IX. *A Set of Tables for shewing the exact Bearing.* By T. PYMAN. 4to.

THESE are very useful tables, and ought to have a place in every ship's library. They are easily formed, but they are not on that account the less useful; for it is well known that many persons who have the charge of ships, are not always very accurate in the solution of an oblique angled triangle. In the tables

before us, the base is given, being the distance run during the time between two observations of a light on shore; and the two angles at the base, consequently the two sides, are easily found by trigonometry: these two sides are the distances of the ship from the light. The bases are taken in succession, at half a

mile, three-quarters, and so on, to seven miles, in some tables; in others not so far, as the distances from the light would be too great; but this rule is not followed with the precision that seems desirable. The angles are determined by the points of the compass, and they vary from each other for each half mile, by half a point, one point, and two points.

In all schools of navigation this work will be very useful, as it affords an easy praxis in trigonometry; and by seeing what the distances come out on exact calculation, the learner will place a confidence in these tables, which, in many places, point out only the tenths of a mile, a degree of exactness quite sufficient for all purposes of navigation.

ART. X. *Connaissance des Temps à l'Usage des Astronomes et des Navigateurs, pour l'An XII de l'ère de la République Française.*

*Astronomical and nautical Almanack, for the Year XII of the Republic, or 1803.*

THIS work dates its origin from Picard, in 1769. Lieutand superintended it from 1702, Godin 1730, Maraldi 1735, Lalande 1760, Jeaurat 1776, and Mechain 1788. It is divided into two parts; the first, containing the places of the sun and moon for every day in the year, and the distance of the latter's centre from various fixed stars and the sun, calculated from three hours to three hours; as also the position of the planets and the phenomena in the heavens, upon the same plan as in our nautical almanack, published by the board of longitude, from which "to hasten the publication of this volume some calculations have been borrowed." We were glad to see this acknowledgement, and we esteem the French astronomers too highly not to feel considerable satisfaction that they can derive some assistance from the labours of this country. The second part contains a variety of observations of importance to astronomy and navigation. The whole work is, according to a decree, to consist always of five hundred pages, and is presented to such persons, in every part of the world, as are distinguished for astronomical knowledge. The first part occupies two hundred and thirty-two pages, and in this, besides the usual matter found in our nautical almanack, are given the longitude and latitude of the chief places on the globe; whence, as the volume is sent to all parts of the world, a complete register may be formed in time, and the advantage to geography will be inestimable. There are sixty places in the British isles marked down, of which the position of several is the result of trigonometrical observation; our astronomers will doubtless establish the position of the rest, and if it

differs from that given by the French, the difference should be pointed out to the editors of this work, that a due correction may take place in future editions. It is not of so much consequence from what quarter we derive an accurate knowledge of the globe, as that the means of acquiring such a knowledge should be established; and the French, by the universality of their language, the attention which they pay to foreigners, and their great exertions, seem to be the best qualified of any nation upon earth for such a deposit.

In the second part, are calculations of various eclipses of Jupiter, and the sun; observations on the obliquity of the ecliptic; a catalogue of the position of a great number of fixed stars, and especially an ample catalogue of the stars newly discovered by the Lalandes being the tenth catalogue; with many other useful catalogues and tables, and explanations of astronomical theorems, which will make this work deservedly the yearly book of foreign astronomers. The nautical almanack of England is designed for the purposes of navigation; but still if it were rendered more subservient to the purposes of astronomy, and presented regularly to the astronomers of the united kingdom, and to the principal astronomers of the East and West Indies, and America, the expence would not be great, and the advantage resulting to the British name very considerable. If something of this kind is not done, the French will become the dictators in astronomy to the civilised world. Every astronomer in this kingdom, conversant with the French language, will certainly make a point to examine this work with attention.

ART. XI. *An Essay intended to establish a new universal System of Arithmetick.* By J. KING. 8vo.

NO one can doubt of the advantages attending a general agreement in an uniform system of weights and measures. The alteration, however, here proposed in our arithmetic is liable to considerable objections: instead of the present decenary plan, or numbering by tens, the octonary, or numbering by eights, is to be substituted, in which the quarters and three quarters of a number will be represented each by one decimal figure. The year is to be divided into fourteen months, and the zodiac into fourteen signs; the commencement of the year to be placed at the vernal equinox. For the proper division of the day into hours, the circle is to be divided into 384 equal parts, or,

according to the octonary arithmetic, 600 equal parts or degrees; each degree is to be divided into 64 minutes, each minute into 64 seconds; sixty-four being, in octonary arithmetic, 100. The day is divided into 24 hours, and each hour into 64 minutes, each minute into 64 seconds, and so on. The metre, or invariable standard for measures is to be found at the equator, in some place where, the air being of a given temperature, a pendulum vibrates 98,304 times in a day. The system now very much resembles that of the French, except that it is accommodated to the octonary arithmetic. Supposed improvements are also suggested in the compass, and the gamut.

ART. XII. *The Mathematical and Philosophical Repository.* By T. LEYBOURN. 3 Vols. 12mo. many Plates.

VARIOUS are the causes which, in the course of the last century, have contributed to the extension of science, and the dissemination of true philosophy. The discoveries of Newton, of Leibnitz, of the Bernouillis, and other great men, not only poured forth a torrent of light upon the regions of science, but contributed to the raising into action a spirit of enquiry and improvement, which had long lain dormant: this laudable spirit soon began to operate, and to direct its course into different channels: it not only produced many excellent original publications, in which the principles of mathematics and natural philosophy were elucidated and applied; but it also led to the publishing of various periodical works, small in size, but of great importance, in which mathematical and philosophical questions were proposed for discussion, the solution of which cleared up many difficulties, and removed numerous obstacles previously unconquered. Among publications of this kind it will be sufficient for our present purpose to name the Ladies' Diary, the Miscellanea Curiosa, the Mathematician, the Gentleman's Diary, the Palladiums, and Turner's Exercises. The plan and the merits of these performances are so well known, that it would be an affront to the reader, were we to enlarge upon them. The volumes now before us were originally published in half yearly numbers, upon a plan nearly similar to that of most of the publications just mentioned: and we think it our duty to

state, that the work is conducted with spirit and with judgment. The editor appears to be a gentleman of considerable talents as a mathematician; and, as several of his correspondents are not only able, but celebrated, in their respective departments, no doubt can be entertained of the general utility of the Repository. Besides the questions and solutions, of which there are several in each number, the editor has enriched his work with various useful and ingenious articles, either selected from scarce and expensive publications, or from the original correspondence of his learned contributors. We should have been glad to point out, more distinctly, some of the most valuable papers, but as we have not room to specify many, and are unwilling to be charged with making any invidious distinctions, we must content ourselves with making the preceding general statements. Of the volumes before us, two are devoted to pure and mixed mathematics, occupying together about 890 pages; the third is appropriated to the subjects of natural philosophy, chemistry, and the arts, and occupies 368 pages: these, we think, were the substance of the first ten numbers. The thirteenth number of this work was published in December last; and we hope the editor will continue to lay the future numbers before the public at the stated half-yearly periods; for, as we are convinced of the utility of such an undertaking, we doubt not that it must be solicitously enquired after.

## CHAPTER XX.

## EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY,

INCLUDING

## CHEMISTRY, ELECTRICITY, MAGNETISM, &amp;c.

THE rapid changes that have taken place in the experimental sciences, the increased precision and labour of modern investigation, and the numerous facilities that are afforded by the institution of philosophical societies, and the publication of their transactions, have greatly diminished the number of separate works on the subjects of chemistry, magnetism, electricity, and the like. The whole life of an individual would scarcely suffice to fill a very few volumes with the details of accurate and original experiments, the greater part therefore of the important accessions to this branch of knowledge has been already mentioned in Chapter XVIII. In the present, the most laborious work, *Doctor Thomson's System of Chemistry*, though upon the whole praise-worthy, and in many parts highly meritorious, has not earned the reputation of uniform and equal excellence. *Mr. Chenevix's Remarks on Chemical Nomenclature*, bear strong indications of that candour, good sense, discriminating accuracy, and ingenuous modesty, which are the constant characteristics of this eminent and rising philosopher. And *Dr. Skrimshire's Chemical Essays* exhibit in a pleasing and popular manner, the application of chemistry to the various uses and conveniences of human society.

ART. I. *A System of Chemistry.* By THOMAS THOMSON, M.D. Lecturer on Chemistry in Edinburgh. 8vo. 4 Vols.

A WORK on chemistry which aspires to so high a rank as the present publication, which professes to give "a full detail of the vast number of facts which constitute this important science, blended with the history of their gradual development, and of the theories which have been founded on them, and accompanied with exact references to the original works, in which the different discoveries have been registered," claims for itself the most respectful attention. Having had some experience ourselves of the labour that must be gone through, and the judgment that is required in consulting a multiplicity of authors, in discriminating truth from falsehood, in reconciling apparent contradictions, even when a single difficulty occurs, we were, we confess, surprised that any one man, however intense may have been his application, and however great may be his sagacity, should venture to undertake a

full detail of the facts and history of, perhaps, the most comprehensive division in the whole circle of science. Neither was our surprise diminished, when we found that four moderate sized octavo volumes, was the whole space allotted by the author to this vast design, including besides, a system of mineralogy, and a considerable number of articles on animal and vegetable physiology. Having been much prepossessed in its favour, we have perused the book with considerable attention, and with every possible disposition to be entirely satisfied. We should, however, be negligent of our duty to the public, if we were to profess that our expectations have been wholly fulfilled.

For our own sake, for the author's sake, and from a regard to our readers, instead of dictating a few general sentences of blame or praise, we shall, as far as is consistent with our limits, enter



into an analysis of the volumes before us, an attention which their merit well deserves, and which, perhaps, may be of service to a future edition.

The first of the three books into which the first part of the work is divided, treats of simple substances, and first of all of oxygen; but as it is an essential part of Dr. Thomson's plan not to mention any compound till he has described all the elements of which it consists, we here meet with little else than the usual methods of procuring this gas, its physical properties, and its capability of supporting flame and animal life.

The second chapter is devoted to the consideration of five simple combustibles, viz. sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, hydrogen, and azot.

Besides the physical properties of sulphur, the combinations of this substance with oxygen in different proportions are mentioned, and we are introduced, somewhat prematurely, to the Stahlian theory of the composition of sulphur, and its refutation by Lavoisier. Phosphorus is treated of on the same general plan, and its combination with sulphur, as investigated by Pelletier, is also mentioned. The combustibility of the diamond is described under carbon, and the component parts of carbonic acid and charcoal are affectedly and improperly stated to be diamond and oxygen. Lavoisier's term carbon, is by no means a "mere useless synonym," for it is a matter of serious importance to keep the terms of mineralogy as distinct as possible from those of chemistry.

The third chapter is devoted to the metals, their physical properties, alloys, and combinations with the preceding substances, but is by no means satisfactory; there are several errors, and still more omissions, from not consulting the German chemists. In the introductory section, Mr. T. says, that the oxyd of lead is reducible *per se*, by heating in close vessels, which is a mistake. The action of caustic potash on platina, is not noticed either here or under potash, though it is a fact sufficiently notorious to all practical chemists, having been mentioned first by Klaproth, five or six years ago. The possibility of sulphuret of platina is denied, though Proust expressly describes this compound. Of the alloy of gold and platina, there is a very meagre account, from Dr. T's not being acquainted with Vauquelin's

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admirable experiments on this important mixture: they may be found in his *Manuel de l'Essayeur*. Putty is described as a simple oxyd of tin, which it never is, the tin being always combined for the sake of more easy oxydation with a large proportion of lead. Instead of the proper method of preparing aurum musivum, we are only presented with a reference to Pelletier. No notice is taken of Newton's fusible metal, composed of tin, lead, and bismuth. The general remarks with which this chapter is concluded, are very trifling, and shew that the author has pursued this part of his subject rather in his study than his laboratory. The assertion that most of the metallic sulphurets are destitute of metallic lustre, is a singular oversight, and can only be attributed to haste or inattention.

With more satisfaction we turn to chapters four and five, which treat of light and caloric. These are upon the whole very well drawn up: the arrangement is clear, the proportion assigned to the several sections is judicious. no important facts are omitted, difficulties are advanced with candour, and a sober spirit of doubt befitting the intricacy of the subject is very properly inculcated.

The second book relates to compound bodies, which are divided into primary and secondary. In the former of these divisions we were somewhat surprised at finding the alkalies and earths, apparently for no other reason than because one of these thirteen substances, ammonia, has been decomposed. Dr. T. was under no sort of necessity to adopt the absurd distinction of simple and compound bodies, as the essential principle of his arrangement; but having done so, it was incumbent on him to adhere to it. In wanton deviation, however, from his own plan, we find fifteen simple substances, viz. two alkalies, ten earths, and three acids, placed among the compounds. The account of the alkalies, though brief, is satisfactory. With regard to the earths, we remark a want of minute accuracy, that is extremely inconsistent with the promise made in the preface of a "full detail of facts." The methods of obtaining alumine and silex, as mentioned here, are not the most accurate; and Agustine, which rests upon the sole and insufficient authority of Trommsdorf, ought to have been omitted.

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The oxyds of carbon, of hydrogen (or water), and azot, are next described, and the controversy concerning the decomposition of water is ably and fully stated; the oxyds of azot, however, would be more in place under nitrous acid.

The second volume commences with the acids. Their properties are described with general exactness, but by no means with that attention to minute circumstances, which is so peculiarly valuable to the practical chemist. Thus in the preparation of nitric acid, no notice is taken of the use of nitrat of barytes and nitrat of silver, in purifying it from the sulphuric and muriatic acids with which it is always contaminated. The method of forming oxalic acid from sugar is transcribed from Bergman, but the most economical preparation of it from galls, is omitted. The preparation of gallic acid, according to Scheele's method, is not truly reported.

To the acids succeed the compound combustibles, including the fixed and volatile oils, alcohol and ether; the account of the latter of which articles is drawn up with great care, and is highly satisfactory.

The secondary compounds are introduced by a description of the combinations of earths, both natural and artificial: one section of the chapter is on the manufacture of earthenware, and shows that the author never visited a pottery in his life; the processes are described from imagination, and are almost entirely erroneous, as well as miserably defective. To this succeeds a chapter of half a dozen pages on glass, in which the interesting experiments of Reaumur and Lewis are totally omitted; and, incredible as it may appear, not a single word is mentioned of the indispensable use of manganese, in rendering flint glass colourless.

The salts with earthy, alkaline, and metallic bases, are next treated of, but in our opinion not sufficiently at length, considering their vast importance; of this the articles borax and tartar are striking examples. After the salts come the hydrosulphurets, which are briefly described, and the division of secondary compounds is terminated by a chapter on soaps. This contains some good matter from Pelletier, but betrays a want of acquaintance with the practices of our own manufacturers. The class of

acid soaps, though improperly so named, ought not to have been left out. Starkey's soap too, and the rest of the savonules, had a claim to notice, which was by no means invalidated by the few words said about them, under essential oils.

Having thus gone through the various chemical substances, Dr. T. proceeds to investigate the philosophy of chemistry, in a long chapter on affinity. In the perusal of this we have been particularly pleased, nor shall we by petty objections attempt to detract from its great merit.

The second part of this work is entitled a *Chemical Examination of Nature*, and is divided into five books.

The first book treats of the atmosphere, its chemical composition, and the science of meteorology.

The second book relates to waters, both common and mineral, and their analysis.

These subjects are largely and well treated, but are for the most part by no means essential to a system of chemistry.

The third book treats of minerals, and is executed as well as can be expected from a person who is obviously acquainted with them only through the medium of books, and who, from being a stranger to the German language, labours under additional disadvantages. To one only beginning to study mineralogy, this abstract will be wholly unintelligible, and the practised mineralogist will despise it. At the end of this book is a chapter on the method of analysing minerals, which we are sorry to say is by no means correct. The last section of it, containing the methods of obtaining the metals in a state of purity, is faulty in almost every article. For example:

"Lead may be dissolved in nitric acid and precipitated by sulphat of soda, wash the precipitate, and melt it in a crucible, with two and a half times its weight of black flux."

Now it is obvious that this process will not separate lead from arsenic, bismuth, silver, or antimony, and the lead, instead of being in the metallic state, will be a sulphuret.

Book IV. is concerning vegetables, and contains three chapters. The first relates to the vegetable principles, and is both defective and incorrect; of which the section relating to resins, is a most

flagrant instance. The second and longest chapter treats of vegetation, and contains much physiological matter, which has nothing to do in a system of chemistry. The third chapter, in the short compass of twenty-three pages, affects to give an account of the manufactures of bread, wine, beer, and vinegar, together with vegetable putrefaction.

The fifth book treats of animal substances; first concerning the animal principles; secondly, concerning the animal solids and fluids; thirdly, concerning the chemical changes that take place in digestion, respiration, the secretion of urine, perspiration, and assimilation; fourthly, on the decomposition of animal bodies.

This book is much more laboured and satisfactory than the preceding; proper use has been made of the investigations of Fourcroy and Vauquelin, and the other modern inquirers into this intricate but interesting subject. The analysis of urine, milk, and blood, and the section on respiration, do credit to the author as a medical chemist.

Our opinion of Dr. Thomson's work may readily be inferred from the short abstract which we have just given.—

He appears to be familiarly acquainted with those parts of the science which Priestley, Cavendish, Black, Lavoisier, and his associates, have investigated with so much ardour, and with such splendid success: the application also of modern chemistry to meteorology, and physiology, is a subject on which he feels himself at home, and concerning which he writes with interest. But he appears to have spent more of his time in reading than in the practical details of a laboratory. Hence his accounts of apparatus, utensils, lutes, fuel, &c. are excessively imperfect and incorrect; the same vagueness and errors, arising from a want of personal inspection and experience, in too many instances vitiate his descriptions of processes both on a large and small scale. The arrangement of the work, besides being inconsistent with itself, however prepossessing from its seeming simplicity, is very different from those generally adopted, and therefore requires a much more copious index of reference, than these volumes possess. We do not think that this system of chemistry supersedes those in common use, or is by any means equal to its lofty pretensions.

ART. II. *A Series of popular Chemical Essays, containing a Variety of Instances of the Application of Chemistry to the Arts and Manufactures, &c. &c.* By FENWICK SKRIMSHIRE, M.D. lately President of the Natural History Society of Edinburgh; Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh. 2 vols. 8vo.

"THE substance of the present essays," as the author observes, "is part of the materials collected with a view of delivering an experimental course of popular lectures on chemistry and natural history." He therefore does not profess to give it as a strictly scientific work, but as adapted to convey useful information to general readers.

Considered in this light, the two volumes before us possess much of that kind of merit which belongs to the careful and judicious compiler: the information conveyed is on the whole accurate, and the execution respectable. It may, however, be questioned how far the reader can receive adequate instruction from a system so condensed as this. It is to put into his hands the lecturer's notebook, well arranged indeed, but deficient in the filling up, and not explained and enlivened by entertaining or brilliant experiments. Yet there is some-

thing so interesting in tracing the connection between theoretical science and practical skill, that the uninformed, who peruse a work like the present, may easily be seduced into the study of the dry elementary axiom, or the meagre narrative of experimental truths.

The space allotted for the different subjects is unequal, compared with their relative importance. A considerable space is very properly devoted to the subject of heat, in its various modifications; and the execution of this part is performed with so much judgment and selection, as to present a very excellent compendium of all that is known on this most interesting topic.

The metals well deserve a fuller notice, especially in a work that professes to dwell peculiarly on the arts and manufactures connected with chemistry, and several errors occur, shewing, however, a want of attention, rather than of

knowledge of the subject. For example, "The ores of metals are friable, have an earthy appearance, have different colours according to the degree of oxydation, and have *no lustre*." This last assertion is totally erroneous; the native oxyds of tin, the ruby copper ore, and many other ores, possess a beautiful lustre. The existence of gold in vegetable ashes stands on such very questionable authority, as hardly to be worth mentioning. Galvanism comes in but awkwardly under the description of zinc, merely because this metal is much employed in forming the galvanic pile.

As an example of the execution of this work, let us take the manufacture of soap.

"The alkalis will all of them unite with oils, and the result of such a combination is a SOAP, the kind and quality of which depends upon the kind and quality, and also upon the proportion, of the ingredients.

"The first part of the process consists in making the alkali pure or caustic, by mixture with quick lime, which abstracts from it the carbonic acid, or fixed air. This caustic lie, mixed with oil or tallow in due proportion, and boiled to a proper consistence, forms soap.

"Boil one part of good barilla, with two of quick lime, in a sufficient quantity of water, strain the liquor through a cloth, and evaporate till a phial, holding eight ounces of water, will hold eleven of this solution; then boil one part of the lie with two of the oil, and you will have a good hard soap.

"In manufactories, where the fuel is of material consequence, the lie is made without boiling. Equal measures of barilla and slaked quick lime are heaped up together, water is poured on the top, and filtering through the heap, is caught in proper vessels;

more water is then poured on, till no salt comes with it, and the lie of different strengths is kept separately. It is now mixed with the oil and tallow in boilers, the weakest lie first, then that which is stronger, and so on; and when boiled sufficiently the soap is made.

"The best soft soap is made with five parts of potash, three of whale oil, and one of tallow.

"For soaps of an inferior quality, more tallow, kitchen-grease, or oil of an inferior quality is used. And lately the French chemists have recommended a cheap soap to be made, by using woollen rags, and old woollen cloths of all kinds, locks of wool, hair, and even the horns of animals, instead of oil. These substances are all soluble in the caustic lie, and by proper boiling form a soap. The chief inconvenience of such a soap is, that it possesses a very unpleasant smell. It is, however, used by many of the cloth manufacturers in cleansing their stuffs; and as they require repeated washings, the smell is thereby completely taken off.

"The most delicate soap is made with olive oil; and a peculiar kind, called Starkey's soap, is made by triturating ten parts of caustic alkali hot, with eight parts of oil of turpentine, which instantly forms a very hard soap."

The subject of mineral waters is, comparatively, very full and detailed. Opportunity is taken to introduce a description of a well at Wellingborough, in Northamptonshire, which appears to be a simple chalybeate, like that of Tunbridge, and many others.

The concluding articles of tanning and currying, are very good and entertaining.

The work is dedicated to the governors of the Kettering dispensary.

**ART. III.** *A Syllabus of a Course of Lectures on Chemistry, delivered at the Royal Institution of Great Britain.* By H. DAVY. 8vo. pp. 91.

A SYLLABUS of lectures is scarcely an object of criticism, either as to its style or matter. The little volume before us is a concise, and, for the most part, judicious selection of the prominent facts in chemical science. The arrangement of the lectures is in some measure new, and well calculated to lead the pupil from the easiest and simplest, to the more difficult and complex phenomena, and then to shew the application of both to the purposes of the arts. The whole is divided into three

parts: the first treats of the chemistry of ponderable substances, and concludes with the general laws of chemical action: the second part treats of imponderable substances, viz. caloric, light, electricity, and galvanism. The third part is entitled the chemistry of the arts, and relates to agriculture, tanning, bleaching, dying, metallurgy, glass, and porcelain, the preparation of food and drink, and the economical management of fuel.

**ART. IV.** *Remarks upon Chemical Nomenclature, according to the Principles of the French Neologists.* By RICHARD CHENEVIX, Esq. F. R. S. M. R. I. A. &c.

WHEN the brilliant and extensive discoveries of Scheele, Priestley, Black, Lavoisier, and many other eminent philosophers, had thrown a blaze of light upon chemical science, and in a few years had accumulated a vast mass of information on these important subjects, a reformation in the nomenclature of the science became highly necessary to assist the further progress of chemists, by giving them a common language. This task was undertaken by Messrs. Lavoisier, Berthollet, Guyton, and Fourcroy, and the present valuable system of nomenclature was established. "It was a peculiar object with the French neologists," says the ingenious author of the work before us, "to construct such expressions as might with easy changes be received by every nation where literature flourishes, or the sciences are cultivated. It was intended to be an universal language, which should not require to be translated, but merely modified according to the radical idiom and pronunciation of all that should adopt it." The extent to which the French system of nomenclature has been adopted, makes it highly desirable that the modifications which it has undergone in different languages, should fulfil the intention of the proposers, not by a servile imitation of syllables and terminations, but by transfusing the force of the original into equivalent expressions, consonant with the idiom of the language that receives it.

The object of the truly philosophical essay before us, is to point out some common mistakes in nomenclature, that occur in chemical writings; to show that the terms which we have adopted are not always the most apposite to render the French expressions; and to propose several amendments in the system, where the first principles of nomenclature have been manifestly departed from. We shall not attempt an abstract of the author's observations on these respective heads; to the general reader it would be uninteresting, and the chemist should peruse the whole treatise with attention. It will well repay his pains. The following observation shews a delicate ear and a nice judgment.

"The French and English languages have each an orthoepy peculiar to itself; and

where the differential qualities of substances are to be marked by a letter or a syllable, it is essential that the word be constructed in such a manner, that the discriminating letter, or the discriminating syllable, be the prominent feature of that word. This principle the French have observed; but so much does our language differ from theirs, that we cannot, without offending its radical pronunciation, enjoy the same advantage. They lay the accent generally upon the latter syllables; and their natural manner of speaking, sufficiently marks the distinction between *nitrique* and *nitreux*, *nitrate* and *nitrite*. On the other hand, we cannot so well render those delicate modifications of sound sensible to the ear, without forcing the accent from its usual situation. For, in the common course of speaking, we should pronounce *nitric*, *nitrous*, *nitrate*, *nitrite*. This unavoidable imperfection must leave the nomenclature, in our language, inferior to its original; for the advantages we should reap, by striking at the root of the evil, would not compensate the greater merit, arising from the facility of universal communication."

The following suggestions are of importance.

"Chemistry is now in a state that demands a revision of the nomenclature. Discoveries have been made, and frequently their authors have not known how to name them. The new theory has been proved; and its principles have been found good. The object, therefore, in such a revision, would be to establish and extend the principles in a manner that would leave no room for arbitrary nomination.

"For this purpose, a select number of chemists should be deputed with full powers. It would be of little consequence in what language the terms should be originally proposed; as the very first idea of the new nomenclature is, that it should be taken from a dead language, in order to render it universal; and subject, not to capricious change, but to modifications founded upon reason.

"The persons chosen should be chemists; chemists in the strictest sense of the word; persons who every day find the advantages of the present nomenclature, and who every day feel its imperfections. It is not very necessary that they should have read Condillac, or other authors, who tell us why we make use of words. If they are men of letters at the same time that they are chemists, it may, in some respects, be useful. But, above all, let them not be men of letters, ignorant of chemistry. In the nomenclature of a science, it is not the taste of the literary man, but the wants of the philosopher, that are to be considered. The latter



is to be the creator and the regulator of the language; the former may be considered as little more than a living lexicon, and a living prosody."

The author is a very zealous partisan of the French school of chemistry. In this he will be joined by all who admire the beautiful and invaluable discoveries of Lavoisier, Berthollet, Vauquelin, and many other eminent names, but is not the following concession too great to be allowed by impartial judges?

"So far from throwing ridicule upon the French neologists, for having derived the greater part of the new terms from Rome and Athens, we must confess that they have shown great judgment, and unusual impartiality, in turning to languages so generally understood. I repeat impartiality; and I might add complaisance; for their own language being the most generally spoken of the living languages, they might have pleaded its universality in favour of any terms which it might have afforded, or which they might have proposed. This mode of proceeding might, in some very slight degree, have facilitated the study of chemistry in France; but other nations would have been excluded from the benefits of the nomenclature."

True it is, that of all modern languages the French has the greatest plea for preference, on the ground of its most extensive circulation; but it is equally true, that the legitimate and acknowledged language of philosophy is the Greek or Latin, and a recognition of this law of nations in philosophical matters, prevents many jealousies and prejudices which would otherwise occur; and, moreover, in the present instance, it should not be forgotten who were the principal discoverers to whom chemistry is indebted for the *facts*, which alone could be the basis of the reformed nomenclature. Without recurring to the labours of Boyle, Hook, and Mayow, we may ask, whether the names of Priestley, Black, Kirwan, Cavendish, Brownrigg, and Crawford, do not present as respectable a phalanx as those of Lavoisier, Berthollet, Fourcroy, Morveau, and Chaptal; and we fear that a faithful history of chemical discovery would reveal, in more than one instance, examples of want of candour and good faith, which ought to render us somewhat cautious in giving unlimited credit to the philosophic impartiality of all the French chemists.

## CHAPTER XXI.

## MINERALOGY AND GEOLOGY.

ONLY two publications on these important subjects, have, during the last year, issued from the British press: they are both, however, works of considerable merit. Professor Playfair has skilfully, if not successfully, defended the Theory of the Earth invented by his friend the late Dr. Hutton. And Mr. Mawe, in his Mineralogy of Derbyshire, has set a worthy example of liberal communication to all those who are practically and personally acquainted with the mineral districts of this kingdom.

ART. I. *Illustrations of the Huttonian Theory of the Earth.* By JOHN PLAYFAIR, F. R. S. Edin. and Professor of Mathematics in the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 528.

THE theory of the earth invented by the late Dr. Hutton, has laboured under peculiar disadvantages, on account of the singular obscurity and confusion of style, by which Dr. Hutton's own work on this subject was characterised. Professor Playfair has, therefore, performed an acceptable service to geological science, by stating, in a brief and perspicuous manner, the bases upon which the theory of his friend is founded. But it is not on this account alone that the volume before us merits regard: the greater part of it is occupied with annotations, in which difficulties are explained, new arguments are advanced, the objections of Mr. Kirwan and the other Neptunians, are replied to, and a masterly attack, on various points, is urged against the opposite theory, and some peculiar notions of Mr. Kirwan.

Dr. Hutton's first position is, that the stratified parts of the earth were formed, and are continually forming from the detritus of more ancient rocks, that the abraded particles were carried by the torrents into the rivers, and thence into the sea: when arrived in the great reservoir of water, being gently and uniformly moved by the agitation of the fluid in which they were almost suspended, they became equally diffused over the whole bottom of the ocean, and more gradually deposited *stratum super stratum*. All geological theories agree in

supposing the stratified minerals to have been formed by deposition in water; and as none of them explain why the matter deposited should be at one time siliceous, at another time argillaceous, at another calcareous, and at another carbonaceous, &c. we see no peculiar difficulty in admitting Dr. Hutton's representation as at least equally probable with any other. Mr. Kirwan's objection, that the particles brought down by the rivers are always deposited at their mouths, or on the adjacent coasts, is, in our opinion, very satisfactorily refuted by Professor P. who observes that the Maranon and Plata, and other great rivers, which carry down vast quantities of mud, do not deposit it in deltas at their mouths, and that the great rivers of China pour such large quantities of earth into the yellow sea, as to make it very shallow, and even muddy, for many leagues distance from shore.

After Dr. Hutton has thus formed his strata at the bottom of the sea, being of opinion that they cannot consolidate of themselves, he supposes that they become penetrated by the central heat, and thus acquire a stony hardness. To the hypothesis of a central heat residing in a nucleus of melted matter, it may be objected, that free caloric is so far from possessing a gravitating quality, that its constant tendency is to dispersion: there must therefore be a constant

generation of free caloric to supply the perpetual waste, more especially as Dr. H.'s theory supposes the eternal duration of the earth. Combustion, which is one of the most rapid and effectual methods of generating heat, cannot take place without the presence of oxygen and combustible matter, but the intense heat required by Dr. H.'s theory, would long ago have consumed all the oxygen that could be accumulated in the centre of the earth. Neither Dr. Hutton nor the Professor pretend to account for this perennial spring of heat, and defend their hypothesis by an appeal to facts, which they say consist in the evident marks of fusion that are exhibited in the stony crust of the earth. For our own parts, we are disposed to concede thus much to the volcanic philosophers, and to allow them their central and eternal fire, of whatever intensity they please, provided they can hereby satisfactorily and consistently account for actual appearances.

The infusible nature of some minerals, and the ready decomposition of others by fire, is urged by Mr. Kirwan and others, against Dr. H.'s theory. If, say they, the utmost concentration of the solar rays, or the effect of a blow-pipe charged with oxygen gas, cannot melt a visible portion of calcareous spar, or rock crystal, how is it conceivable that the vast mountainous tracts of limestone, and the immense quantities of quartz that occur every where, should have been brought to a fluid state? How is it possible to prevent the carbonic acid of the limestone from having escaped? To this forcible objection the only reply that has been attempted is this, that the pressure of the ocean and superincumbent strata, upon the lower ones, may be so great as to prevent the formation and escape of elastic fluids, hence the carbonat of lime may be fused without decomposition: the quartz also, under such a pressure, may be more fusible than in atmospheric air. As it is conceivable, that infinite heat and infinite pressure combined, may effect the fusion of any compound substance without the gassification of one of its ingredients, there appears no reason for rejecting the hypothesis of the consolidation of limestone strata and quartzose sand, by such means, provided it does not necessarily include direct contradictions to our experience from other

quarters: for, in researches of this kind, so great is the difficulty of obtaining satisfaction, that every theory which is consistent with itself, has a fair right to be admitted. But that this part of the Huttonian theory is inconsistent with acknowledged facts, is manifest from numberless examples. Quartz, even allowing its fusibility, is certainly much less so than felspar, schorl, mica, and chlorite, and yet in the *ierre graphique* of Portsoy, the quartz is impressed by the crystals of felspar, showing the former of these to have been in a soft state, while the latter was hard. Crystals of quartz are also often found penetrated by schorl and chlorite, shewing these to have been crystallized and solid while the quartz was fluid: which being directly the reverse of the order of fusibility, shows, to demonstration, that some other agent than heat was employed in liquefying the quartz. Again, seams of coal are often found penetrated by thin laminæ of quartz, and quartz crystals, therefore according to Dr. Hutton, the quartz must have been subject to a most intense fusing heat: but in this case the shale strata above and below, would have been completely liquefied, the shale being far more fusible than quartz; the schistose texture, therefore, and all the vegetable impressions, must have been destroyed; and though by slow cooling, according to Sir James Hall, the vitreous character may have been prevented, yet the stratum would have assumed a compact uniform appearance, and have acquired a degree of hardness very different from what we find to be actually the case.

Till these fundamental objections are answered, we do not see how Dr. Hutton's theory can be maintained: at the same time it must be allowed that the appearances observed in whinstone mountains, their columnar arrangement, the rupture and incurvation of the strata which are penetrated and involved by them, the irregular thickness of their beds, situated between regular and parallel strata, seem to claim for this class of mountains an igneous origin.

The most important part of the work before us, is that in which the learned Professor discusses the question of the origin of valleys, and of the immense accumulations of gravel and rounded stones that are found in various parts. Rejecting, with much good sense, the

violent hypothesis of Kirwan, Deluc, and Saussure, who choose to have recourse to the sudden agency of a *grande débacle*, he attributes the formation of valleys to the gradual and constant erosion of the rivers, and supposes the beds of gravel to be pudding-stone mountains in a state of decomposition, or to indicate the former course of a river.

The improper conduct of Kirwan and Deluc, in implicating theological dogmas in the discussion of a purely phi-

losophical question, is very properly reprehended. The bigots of old persecuted Galileo because, by discovering that the sun was fixed, and the earth was in motion, he shewed that the bible was not to be considered as a revelation of the principles of astronomy. Modern bigots would raise the cry of infidel against Dr. Hutton and his disciples, because in their geological speculations they refuse to consider Moses as the inspired promulgator of the Neptunian theory.

ART. II. *The Mineralogy of Derbyshire; with a Description of the most interesting Mines in the North of England, in Scotland, and in Wales; and an Analysis of Mr. Williams's Book, entitled, "The Mineral Kingdom." Subjoined is a Glossary of the Terms and Phrases used by the Miners in Derbyshire.* By JOHN MAWE. 8vo. pp. 226, and four Plates.

WE have derived much satisfaction from the perusal of that part of the work before us, which relates to the mineralogy of Derbyshire. Without any parade of learning, with the utmost plainness and simplicity of language, and with as much brevity as is consistent with perspicuity, Mr. Mawe has presented his readers with the result of his personal observations, made not in the usual hasty manner of superficial travellers, but collected at leisure and from repeated inspection. It is much to be wished that so laudable an example may be followed by equally able men in the other mineral districts of our island, that a country which yields to none of equal extent in the variety and value of its subterranean treasures, may be illustrated in a manner not unworthy of the advanced state of mineralogical science.

Although Derbyshire, like all other mountainous tracts, occasionally displays in the disorder, fracture and confusion of its strata, the effects of external or internal violence, yet they are, for the most part, very regularly arranged.

The uppermost stratum in Derbyshire is argillaceous grit, being an indurated mass of sand and other substances in a base of clay: it has a granular fracture, an earthy smell when breathed upon, does not effervesce with acids, and may be easily scraped by a knife: brownish red veins, occasioned by a mixture of oxyd of iron, are occasionally met with, and these parts are heavier and harder than the rest. This stratum contains, in various places, large

massive accumulations of gypsum or alabaster, which is quarried in the neighbourhood of Derby, and manufactured into columns and other ornaments, or converted by calcining into Paris plaster.

Underneath the grit is a bed of argillaceous iron ore, disposed in laminæ, intermixed with nodules of various sizes: these nodules may, for the most part, be readily split, and exhibit within them very beautiful and perfect impressions of plants, flowers, coralloids and shells. The proportion of metal obtained from this ore rarely exceeds thirty per cent.

The coal strata lie below the bed of iron stone, and consist of parallel bands of coal of various thickness, alternating with sandstone, tender shale, indurated clay, and bituminous schistus. The beds of coal are sometimes from eight to ten feet thick, and masses of this combustible weighing three or four hundred pounds, may be easily procured. Pyrites is not unfrequent in these strata, and specimens of lead ore have been occasionally found.

The bed below the coal consists of coarse siliceous grit, sometimes of the thickness of 120 yards: it is an assemblage of coarse quartzose pebbles, and exhibits several varieties. Some kinds serve as freestone for building, others are cut into mill-stones, and one, laminated with mica, is an excellent substitute for slate in roofing houses. It often contains crystallised fluor or barytes; and sometimes, though rarely, presents a little lead ore.

To this grit succeeds a bed of shale,

sometimes 120 yards thick; it is of a dark brown or blackish colour, containing pyrites, and sometimes carbonat of lime. The warm springs of Buxton, Matlock, &c. all originate from this stratum.

A thin bed of clay separates the preceding from the first stratum of limestone. The limestone is of very various thickness, sometimes exceeding 200 fathoms; it lies in large beds, divided from each other by seams of marl. It is full of marine remains, and in many parts forms very beautiful marbles: like all other secondary limestone it incloses chert, in thin seams, and detached nodules. It is this stratum that contains the chief riches and curiosities of Derbyshire, and all the caverns are formed in it. The metallic veins of galena, blende, calamine, and manganese, and the spars, fluors, barytes, &c. are situated in the limestone. Below this is a mass of very various thickness of a substance called toadstone, in Derbyshire. It resembles some of the Scottish whins, and is a variety of mandelstein, containing nodules of calcareous spar, zeolite, and calcedony. It exhibits no marks of stratification, contains no organic remains, and totally cuts off all the veins of lead and other metals. In many places it runs to an unknown depth, but where it has been wrought through, the miners come to a second

stratum of limestone, exactly similar to the first, and beyond which no mines have yet been sunk.

Besides giving us much interesting information respecting the strata of Derbyshire, Mr. M. describes the celebrated fluor mine, from which almost the whole of this beautiful material is procured, together with the manner of working it into vases, &c. He also mentions the long subterranean galleries for draining the mines, and rectifies an error of Faujas St. Fond, who has mentioned a vein of lead running through toadstone, but which Mr. Mawe found on examination to be only pyritaceous limestone. The account of Derbyshire concludes with a descriptive catalogue of the curious and rare specimens with which this county enriches the cabinet of the mineralogist, and with a short notice of the celebrated Ecton copper mine.

Here the work ought to have terminated, and would then have commanded our unqualified approbation, but forty or fifty pages more are devoted to brief, and hasty, and occasionally inaccurate notices of some of the mines in the north of England, in Scotland, and north Wales. The whole concludes with a very contemptuous analysis of Williams's Mineral Kingdom, which, notwithstanding its errors and imperfections, is a book of eminent merit.



## CHAPTER XXII.

## NATURAL HISTORY.

THE works of nature must, in all ages, have engaged the attention of mankind. They not only lie open to daily observation; but are in many respects inseparably connected with the common occurrences and essential interests of human life. The earliest inhabitants of the world would naturally include, under a common name, those individuals, which most nearly resemble each other: they would unavoidably perceive the difference between the beasts of the field, the birds of the air, and the fishes of the sea; and could therefore, in their familiar discourse, make some general distribution of the objects around them, long before they formed an idea of reducing them to a regular system.

The first approach towards a scientific arrangement is to be found in the writings of Moses; and as far as it goes, it is wonderfully sagacious and accurate. The connection between chewing the cud and dividing the hoof, and between the union of these two striking circumstances, and the fitness of the animal for human food; the slight deviation of the camel, and the more important one of the hog from this particular structure, all occurred to this acute observer. A similar distinction is laid down by him, between clean and unclean, *i. e.* wholesome and unwholesome birds, though the external characters on which it is founded are not so clearly marked. At a later period, Solomon *spoke of trees from the cedar that is in Lebanon, to the hyssop that springeth out of the wall: he spake also of beasts and of fowl, and of creeping things and of fishes*; but none of his knowledge on these subjects has been transmitted to modern times. Aristotle and Ælian, among the Greeks, have left descriptions of animals. Theophrastus treated of plants and stones. The great work of the elder Pliny is a repository of the knowledge and of the errors of the Romans on the subject of natural history, in the zenith of their riches and power. During the long period of darkness, which soon succeeded, little is to be expected, and nothing worth attention is to be found. At the revival of literature, the awakening mind, unaccustomed to sagacious observation, depended entirely on the stores collected in better and distant times. These were locked up in languages no longer spoken, and but imperfectly understood. To gain a thorough acquaintance with them was a work of no small difficulty and labour: and as the human mind naturally forms a partiality for objects on which it has been long and diligently employed, the writings of the ancients, as they are called, soon obtained a supposititious regard, and were esteemed the sole fountains of wisdom. By an unfortunate mistake in the application of a metaphorical term, the idea was

confirmed and continued to a later period. To the men who have lived to the time of old age, and to those who lived a long while ago, the same kind of experience was attributed, and no one ventured to call in question the wisdom of antiquity. In the more elegant productions of the human mind, in the narrative of great events, in delineations of passion, and in lively pictures addressed to the imagination, it will readily be allowed, that the best writers of Greece and of Rome have scarcely been exceeded, and in some respects are still unequalled. But in the knowledge of nature, the ancients were mere children. Their relations abound with fabulous and absurd particulars, their descriptions are, in many cases, too vague and inartificial to enable the modern reader to identify the species. The wisdom of experience is to be found only with the modern, and it is still far from being able to speak with the oracular precision of the hoary head. It is, however, in a state of rapid progress, is daily acquiring fresh vigour, and is advancing fast towards the state of manhood. In our own country, Pennant in zoology, and Hudson in botany, and far before them in point of genius, as well as of time, the immortal Ray in both, have contributed much to the diffusion of natural knowledge. But the attention of modern enquirers into nature, has been chiefly divided between two foreign names, which rose to eminence about the middle of the last century. Buffon, endowed with an ardent mind and a vigorous imagination, master of a glowing and captivating eloquence, and enjoying the advantage of royal patronage, as well as of an ample private fortune, but unhappily deeply tinctured with the atheistical principles which then began to be the fashionable doctrines of his countrymen, has been the favourite author of the young and lively, and of all who wish to blend amusement with instruction. Linnæus, sagacious, methodical, and persevering; not void of fancy; but preferring conciseness of expression, to the graces of amplified composition; animated with a sincere piety, and accustomed to discern and to admire the wisdom of the Creator, in all his works; but born in a country not blest with a genial sky, nor enriched by extensive commerce; and through great part of his life impeded by the pressure of domestic cares, rose slowly into public favour; but gradually gained a decided preference among the cool adherents to rigid exactness and patient investigation. These two great men, so different in the original turn of their genius, and the general train of their sentiments, unfortunately conceived an early prejudice against each other, which grew at length into a settled enmity. Linnæus treated his adversary with a silent contempt. Buffon exhausted the powers of his eloquence in turning to ridicule the dry descriptions, and what he thought the whimsical specific distinctions of the whole tribe of nomenclators: for such was the character under which he delighted to represent the learned Swede and his followers.

Death is the natural extinguisher of personal quarrels. These eminent antagonists are now no more; and the disciples of each begin to be sensible of each other's merits, as well as of their own deficiencies. The advocates for Linnæus, while they retain their fondness for strict characteristic arrangement, do not neglect to allure their readers by the charms of polished composition: the admirers of Buffon have tacitly relinquished that disdain of method, which has

rendered the works of their master, notwithstanding their superlative beauties, a heap of splendid confusion; and have either adopted the Linnæan system, or have constructed others, different in form, but founded on similar general principles.

Such is the state of natural science at the time when our labours commence. Numbers of active enquirers are employed, both at home and abroad, in advancing its progress: the designer, engraver, and painter, lend their aid, and give splendour to their publications suited to the luxury of the times: the public taste coincides with their wishes, and receives their works with avidity. The writings of our own countrymen, to which our attention will, at present, be entirely directed, have in the last year been happily employed, as well to favour the wider diffusion of the knowledge already acquired, as to make additions to the actual stock. Mr. Stuart of Edinburgh and Dr. Turton of Swansea have rendered the study of nature easy to those readers who are acquainted only with their native language. Mr. Kerr has performed the same good service to the continuation of Buffon, by the Count de la Cépède. Two anonymous authors have jointly given an account of the mammalia in a popular form, professedly for the use of young persons. Mr. Bingley has done the same on a larger scale, with respect to the whole animal kingdom. Mr. Montague has thrown the British birds into an alphabetical order, for the accommodation of the young student in turning to such articles as he knows only by name. Dr. Shaw has added to the former part of his capital work, the history of oviparous quadrupeds and serpents, in which, as in the former volumes, will be found much original matter. Mr. Marsham has favoured the world with an arrangement and description of the indigenous coleoptera: Mr. Kirby, with a masterly monograph on the English bees. To Mr. Stackhouse and Mr. Turner we are indebted for a complete enumeration and description of the British fuci as far as they have hitherto been discovered. Of these and some other publications, connected with the present department of our work, we shall now proceed to give an account, as nearly as may be, in a regular order.

## ZOOLOGY.

### ART. I. *Elements of Natural History; being an Introduction to the Systema Naturæ of Linnæus.* 2 Vols. 8vo.

THE English student has had abundant means of access to the botanical system of Linnæus, by the elementary treatises of Lee, Rose, and Hull, which are partly a version, and partly an illustration of the *Philosophia Botanica*. By the letters of Rousseau in the translation, and large supplementary additions of Professor Martyn; by the successive improved editions of Dr. Withering's *Botanical Arrangement*; and by the Litchfield translation of the *Genera and Species Plantarum*: but, with the exception of Dr. Berkenhout's imperfect *Synopsis*, there has been no assistance of a similar kind on the animal and

mineral kingdoms. The author of the present work, who, if we mistake not, is Mr. Stuart, a very ingenious naturalist, at Edinburgh, has undertaken to supply this deficiency, and has executed the task with great ability. His first design was to go through the whole *systema naturæ*: he has accordingly entitled his work *Elements of Natural History*; but on considering how much is already extant in our language, on the *vegetable*, and how little Linnæus himself has done in the *mineral* kingdom, compared with the numerous discoveries, and the better arrangement of the present day, he has been induced to

close the work, and to apologise to his readers for having led them to expect more than the elements of the natural history of the animal kingdom.

As he intended only an introductory work, something like the handbuchs or manuals which are published in Germany, on almost every science, he has inserted only the genera, with a few principal species, always giving the preference to such as are natives of Great Britain. The generic and specific characters he has mostly translated from Gmelin's enlarged edition of Linnæus, with additional observations collected by himself, which are some of the most instructive, as well as entertaining parts of the work. His introductions to the general animal kingdom, and to its several classes, are peculiarly excellent. He has availed himself of the ideas, and especially of the definitions of the *systema naturæ*, but without binding himself down to a servile translation of its language, or to the order in which the materials are arranged. He has also drawn large supplies, not only from the other writings of Linnæus, but also from various authors; and, as appears to us, not inconsiderably from his own researches and reflections. For the pleasing account of the difference in the flight of different kinds of birds, he is indebted to the admirable author of the natural history of Selbourne. The whole is written in an easy elegant style, and though professedly a compilation, has much of the air of an original.

For the further assistance of the learner he has given, at the close of each volume, alphabetical explanations of the terms employed in the six classes, distri-

buted into as many distinct dictionaries, with the addition of engravings sufficiently exact for the purpose of illustration, though they cannot boast of any high degree of elegance. To complete the whole, copious lists of writers in various languages, are annexed to each of the separate divisions. We have only to lament, that he has omitted the synoptic tables of genera at the head of the classes, the want of which must be felt by the investigating student.

As the work is avowedly Linnæan, he has adhered to the original order of the *systema naturæ*, and has not followed Gmelin, his general guide, in abolishing the order of amphibia nantes, an alteration almost universally adopted by recent naturalists. It is certain that the animals under this order do not strictly correspond with the name given to the class, and that they are more nearly allied to the fishes than to the proper amphibia: but we do not see the propriety of changing their *situation* in the general series, and of placing them last instead of first, among the constant inhabitants of the waters. They surely form a better connecting link between the true amphibia and the spinous fishes, than between the spinous fishes and the insects. From a work of this nature it is not easy to select such an extract as would give a sufficient idea of its general execution: but we cannot conclude without expressing our warmest approbation of the whole, strongly recommending it to all who are desirous of becoming acquainted with a branch of knowledge equally rich in entertainment and instruction.

ART. II. *A general System of Nature, translated from Gmelin's last Edition of the celebrated Systema Naturæ.* By WILLIAM TURTON, M. D. (*Author of the Medical Glossary*). 4 Volumes. 8vo.

ON perusing the first volume of Mr. Stuart's Elements, which was separately published before the beginning of the last year, we could not avoid feeling a wish, that he had been induced to extend his views, and to undertake a complete translation of the *systema naturæ*, with such corrections and enlargements as his own ample stock of personal knowledge would enable him to make. The English reader has since been gratified by the present translation; for though only the zoological part has as yet ap-

peared, the learned author's design embraces the whole of the *systema*. As the work is professedly a translation, its general merit must be estimated by its fidelity and neatness. The generic and specific characters are necessarily brief, and chiefly composed of technical terms. The only parts where the translator could shew his skill in conveying the manner as well as the meaning of his author, are the introductory views prefixed to the whole work, and the several successive classes. But this is a task

from which Dr. Turton appears to have shrunk. The style of Linnæus is, indeed, the bow of Ulysses to all who endeavour to copy it in another language. There is in it not only an admirable conciseness, but also a singular quaintness arising from a fondness for distant, and sometimes fanciful analogies, which would render a strictly literal version harsh and obscure. To most readers, the original itself is, we believe, at first, unpleasant, and difficult to understand. It exhibits, however, such marks of a manly intellect, of a discriminating judgment, of a vigorous, but sometimes irregular imagination; and though last, not least in the estimation of every sound mind, of a pious and devotional heart, that when once well understood, it may be read again and again with renewed pleasure. Dr. Turton has aimed at nothing more than a plain representation of its general meaning; and in this he has been generally, though, we think, not always successful. The first paragraph of the introduction appears thus in the translation.

"Man, when he enters the world, is naturally led to enquire who he is, whence he comes; whither he is going; for what purpose he is created; and by whose benevolence he is preserved. He finds himself descended from the remotest creation, journeying to a life of perfection and happiness, and led, by his endowments, to a contemplation of the works of nature."

The expression, "from the remotest part of the creation," does not appear to us to convey any precise idea: but whatever may be understood by it, it surely is not a translation of *e stemmate creationis*. From the ancient stock or family of the creation, is the evident purport of the Latin expression.

The grammatical form which Linnæus has adopted to describe, in one expression, both the kind of food, and the manner of feeding peculiar to each of the orders in the class mammalia, requires a paraphrastic translation. Dr. Turton, in aiming to preserve the conciseness of the original, has been betrayed into ungrammatical, as well as inelegant language. Thus in the primates, "*food*, vegetables, except a few who use animal food," would have been more neatly rendered, *food*, vegetables, and, in a few instances, other animals. It is, indeed, entirely a devi-

ation from the twelfth edition of the *Systema*, where we find, "*victus*, inciendo fructus scandendo lectos," a very elliptical expression, which, according to our conception of its meaning, might be rendered, *food*, fruit either accidentally met with, or procured by climbing such trees as produce their favourite kinds.

If, with Linnæus, we place man with the monkey, the macaquo, and the bat, his own description is certainly not sufficiently comprehensive; but if we follow nature, and separate man and the bat into two distinct classes, it will apply to the monkeys and the maucacos. In the order *feræ*, for "*victus*; lacerando cadavera rapinasque animalium," we have "*food*; carcasses, and preying on other animals," a construction which the English language will not allow. It might be translated paraphrastically, the bodies of animals either found dead or slain by themselves; in both cases torn to pieces by their sharp cutting and canine teeth. In the order *glires*, the translation of "*victus*: rodendo, cortices, radices, vegetabilia, &c." "*food*; bark, roots, vegetables, &c. which they gnaw," though grammatical is not elegant; it would have been better thus, *food*; bark, roots, vegetables, &c. nibbled with their two upper and two lower cutting teeth. In the order *pecora*, "*victus*; evellendo plantas ruminandas," is most awkwardly rendered, "*food*; herbs which they pluck, chew the cud." It should have been *food*; plants hastily plucked, and swallowed nearly whole, to be afterwards brought back and ruminated.

These are blemishes which may easily be corrected in a future edition. We cannot so easily forgive the omissions which occur in the introductory treatises. The English reader has a right to expect from a professed translation, all the ideas of the great founder of the system, whether they be, or be not supported by more recent observations, and however they may differ from opinions at present received. If from difference of idiom, and other special circumstances, he cannot be made fully acquainted with the author's peculiar manner, he ought to be put in possession of his matter, without adulteration or defalcation. But for this he will here, in many cases, look in vain. All the introductory parts, brief as they origi-



nally were, are given by Dr. Turton in so abridged a form, that not only many interesting illustrations, but also some essential elementary explanations, are either entirely passed over, or very slightly noticed.

These omissions are, however, compensated by numerous additions in the body of the work, for which the translator acknowledges his obligations to Latham, Fabricius, and especially Dr. Shaw, from whose writings he has extracted all the newly discovered species, and many valuable observations on those formerly known. The genus *pansus* of the coleopterous insects, is described from an excellent paper by Dr. Afzelius, inserted in the fourth volume of the Linnæan Transactions. The new hemipterous genus *ammophila*, separated from *sphex* by the Rev. Mr. Kirby, is also taken up from the same volume. It would have been highly satisfactory to the learned, as well as to the English reader, to have been enabled to discern, at the first view, either by means of a different type, or some other distinctive mark, the improvement of Gmelin, whether real or imaginary, upon the twelfth edition of Linnæus, and of Dr. Turton upon that of Gmelin. Indeed, we should have been better pleased if Dr. Turton had made the text of Linnæus himself the visible ground-work of his version, only introducing from Gmelin such alterations and additions as were real improvements. Gmelin, like all voluminous compilers, has fallen into numerous errors; and when he exercised his own judgment, it was not always with the happiest success. In the insects, for instance, by blending the Linnæan with the Fabrician characters, he has, in the opinion of the best entomologists, rather perplexed than elucidated that branch of natural history. We will not boast of having compared the translation with the original in all its parts: that would have required nearly as much time and patience as the translator himself has spent upon it. But as far as we have examined it, it is in general faithful, and as plain as the nature of the subject will admit. Many of the technical English words, have been unavoidably retained; and it may be questioned whether they should not always be employed in preference to

English words in common use, which are seldom sufficiently precise. But if such be at any time adopted, they should be uniformly preserved. To this kind of uniformity Dr. Turton has not always been attentive. Under the genus *felis*, for instance, *lingua retrorsum aculeata*, is translated prickly backwards; under the genus *viverra*, aculeate backwards. The term backwards, is also rather ambiguous. It would have been better rendered, tongue set with aculei, or prickles pointing backward. Dr. Turton has also been sometimes led into inconsistencies by connecting the text of Linnæus with new matter. Thus immediately after the New Holland dog, which is surely in a state of nature, he adds, in the words of Linnæus, as a character of the genus, "perhaps has never been found wild." In the same description, the translation of "*invidus edit*," eats enviously, though literal, does not convey at once the full meaning to an English ear: it was intended to denote his unwillingness to suffer any other dog to share with him, or to come near him while he is eating.

The numerous synonyms and references of the original are purposely omitted, with a view to diminish the bulk and price of the work. It might have been added, that being almost entirely in foreign languages, they would be of no use to the merely English reader, and by others the original will be generally possessed. They are, however, frequently given in the last two classes, which are of more difficult investigation, and especially under those species which are taken up from recent authors. And for this the public owe him their acknowledgments. For notwithstanding the perplexities and errors which have been produced by a hasty and injudicious application of supposed synonyms, they are, upon the whole, of great use to the juvenile student, and a perfect collection of them would be invaluable. We well remember, that, in our younger days, we should have been unacquainted with the true specific character of the *gentiana campestris*, and have mistaken for it a variety of the *amarella*, which sometimes occurs with a quadrifid corol, and four corresponding stamens, as Mr. Walcot has actually done in his figures of some indigenous plants of Great Britain, if we had not

attended to the striking peculiarity pointed out in Haller's Synonym, of which Linnæus, as appears both from his *Flora Suecica*, and *Flora Lapponica*,

was not ignorant, though he unaccountably neglected to form from it his specific character.

ART. III. *The Natural History of Quadrupeds; including all the Linnæan Class of Mammalia: to which is prefixed a general View of Nature, for the Instruction of young Persons.* In Two Volumes.

SINCE the middle of the last century, a happy change has taken place in the mode of educating youth. Instead of nearly confining their attention to the words and phrases, and loading their memory with the metrical rules of a dead language, of which the greater number of them never acquire a competent knowledge, and from which those who make the greatest progress, derive only that kind of information which, however pleasing it may be to the mental taste, is of little use in active life, parents and instructors have begun to be sensible, that their children and pupils have a capacity for acquiring an extensive acquaintance with things, and of laying in a stock of materials for future improvement, which may turn to good account, whatever be their future destiny. The various branches of natural philosophy and natural history, may be made highly entertaining and interesting even to early childhood. The latter in particular, as it speaks to the senses, and though the real object should not be present, may be represented to the sight by pleasing figures, and as it likewise offers to their consideration a variety of incidents which either astonish or amuse, is happily calculated to arrest their attention, and to form them to a habit of patient enquiry. The regular, and, for the most part, luminous arrangement which has lately been introduced into every branch of this charming science, will do more to open their minds, to give them a turn for accurate discrimination, and, by direct consequence, to improve their reasoning powers, than all the systems of logic which have been written from the days of Aristotle to the present time. The work now before us, is an useful addition to the numerous manuals which are designed chiefly for the use of young persons. The former part of it is the production of a man of reflection and leisure, who had before presented to the juvenile world an introduction to the knowledge of ornithology, on the principles of the

Linnæan system. Having been prevented, by want of health, from completing his design, he has extended his own labours only to a small part of the first order, and has left the remainder to be executed by another hand. He appears, as in his former publication, to have chosen the *systema naturæ* of Linnæus for the basis of his work, with such alterations and omissions as his immediate object required. He has accordingly given, except in one or two instances, that full translation of the general and particular introduction of which we felt the want in Dr. Turton's professed version. From motives of delicacy, he has avoided a particular part of the subject, and has laudably rejected the far strained, we had almost said ridiculous comparison of the four cardinal passions with the four ages of man, and the fourfold antitheses of their supposed distinguishing characters. He has sometimes softened, and sometimes discarded the bold metaphors of the original, and, in a few cases, has, we think, mistaken the sense; but, upon the whole, he has preserved much of its peculiar quaintness, and though he has not equalled it in conciseness, he is not remarkably diffuse; still, however, he has not given his translation the freedom of an original. Some of the figurative language which he has retained is repulsive to an English ear, and some of the expressions, from too close an adherence to the phraseology of Linnæus, are obscure to an unlearned reader. The following may be selected as a fair specimen of his general style and occasional errors.

"MAN, endowed with wisdom, was formed, by his Creator, the last, most perfect, and noblest of all his works on earth; distinguished by wonderful marks of the Divine Majesty: he judges according to his senses, of the amazing intelligence evident in creation; admiring its beauty, he is disposed to venerate the glorious author. Carrying his views backward, through multiplied generations, which have passed away, he sees the Creator. Looking forward to the mul-

tiplied means of preservation, he acknowledges the watchful care of nature. On each side beauty, mechanism, connexion, ends, fitness, and use, invite our attention. Here Divine Omnipotence ennobles earth into vegetables, vegetables into animals, and these finally into man, who reflects back the rays of wisdom towards majesty, irradiating with two-fold light. Thus, THE WHOLE WORLD IS FULL OF THE GLORY OF GOD, while all created works glorify God through man; who, formed, by the quickening hand of God, from the inert soil, contemplates the majesty of his Author from the end of creation. He is appointed the gift of the Most High, and the herald of his praise. This contemplation of nature may be considered as a pleasure derived to us from heaven; and the mind which is a partaker of it, walks in the light, and spends this life as it were in an earthly paradise."

In this passage the attribute "distinguished by wonderful marks of the divine majesty," belongs, in the original, not to man, but to the surface, or, as Linnaeus calls it, the *bark* of the earth, in allusion to the analogy which in every part of this introduction he is fond of tracing between the vegetable creation and the other works of nature. The translator has, in this and some other places, properly kept it out of sight, though he has suffered it to remain in another, where he speaks of the earth being covered with a stupendous bark of natural objects. The clause, "who reflects back the rays of wisdom towards majesty, irradiating with twofold light," may appear a strict translation, but it is not an interpretation of "*qui sapientie radios reflectit verus majestatem radiantem duplicata luce*," the meaning of which it is not easy to discover. Linnaeus himself seems to have been embarrassed by his metaphor, and not to have fully brought out his own meaning. We suppose he intended to intimate, that the majesty of the Creator shines with increased lustre in consequence of the rays reflected upon it from the wisdom displayed in the formation of man. The word *gift*, in the last sentence but one, is probably an error of the press; in the original Latin it is *dignus lausper*.

In page 80, by carelessly rendering *generata calido sanguine*, animals, he has lost the important distinction suggested in the original, between the warm-blooded animals who are charged with the education of their young, and the cold-blooded ones, who, by the law of their being, with a very few exceptions,

are for ever debarred from the knowledge of their offspring. *Halitus*, which, in page 81, is translated stratagems, certainly alludes to the intolerably fetid odour by which many species of viverra, and some others, repel the pursuit of their enemies.

But whatever be the merits, or demerits, of this translation, we cannot but think that here it is out of place. It would have suited Dr. Turton's larger work, but is not adapted to the taste, or even to the capacity of youth. It is, moreover, in the present instance, altogether superfluous; for we have the substance of it over and over again, not only in a *continued* and a *tabular* abridgment, but also in a diffuse prefatory dialogue between a father and his son Hubert. In the latter, the author has made the father tell his son that the orang-outang is of the same order as the monkey, but of a different genus: he should have said of the same genus, but of a different family. We think it necessary to make this remark, from a full conviction that nothing is of greater importance, than to give, and to fix strongly in the minds of youth, precise ideas of the grand divisions which have been contrived to facilitate the knowledge of nature. And we are the more surprised at this oversight, as the author has prefixed to the body of the work distinct synoptic tables of all the orders, genera, and species, in the class. From the little of the descriptive part which he has himself executed, it appears that in his hands it would have extended to a much greater length. The account of the different varieties of the human race is, we conceive, spun out too much, especially as it does not lay claim to any considerable exactness. The narrative of the two girls said to have been found near the river Mane, in Champagne, might have been spared: a treatise of natural history is not a proper place for a tale not known to be true, and inserted merely because it is amusing.

The author of the latter part has studied greater brevity, and at the same time has amplified enough to unite entertainment with instruction. The materials are judiciously collected, well arranged, and delivered in perspicuous, elegant language. And we are decidedly of opinion that the work would be greatly improved in real excellence, as well as in uniformity, if in a future

edition, the former part, as it now stands, were expunged and new written.

The descriptions are illustrated with

good figures of the principal species, taken from the best sources, and decently engraved.

#### ART. IV. *A Cabinet of Quadrupeds.*

By JOHN CHURCH, Surgeon. 4to.

THE advanced state of society in which we have the happiness to live, is highly favourable to all its members. To the poor, it increases the means of subsistence: to the middle rank, it affords numerous conveniences and enjoyments, which were unknown to their forefathers: to the rich, it presents a vast variety of superfluities and elegancies, which please the eye, delight the imagination, and demonstrate their opulence and taste. These advantages are discernible in all the external objects which contribute to the support and embellishment of life; but they are most conspicuous in the sources of the mental and more refined pleasures. The improvements of the understanding have, in our days, extended to all conditions of men. The lowest are not without opportunities of acquiring knowledge: those who are placed in moderate circumstances can boast of much greater intellectual furniture, than was once possessed by mitred ecclesiastics or powerful kings: those who fill the higher stations can indulge themselves in all the luxury of splendid editions, beautiful typography, and exquisite engravings. For the latter, our work has here furnished a magnificent entertainment; the *Cabinet of Quadrupeds* is what we heard a country bookseller, the other day, emphatically call a gentleman's book. And though we cannot have the gratification of seeing it grace our humbler shelves, we do not envy, we rather congratulate those who can. In thus expressing our feelings, we do not arrogate to ourselves a pure, disinterested benevolence. Our selfish and our social affections, go hand in hand: for while we have access to the libraries of our wealthy friends, or can but steal a look on the counter of our bookseller's shop, we experience sensations, and form ideas, which our minds seize as personal property, and make permanent parts of their future existence.

In every point of view, the present work is entitled to our warmest commendations. The figures of the animals are spirited and correct, though, per-

haps, in a few instances, they are not sufficiently distinct from the ground to answer the purpose of the naturalist. The general effect is, however, beautifully picturesque. And what is of still greater importance, the pen of the writer is no less excellent than the pencil of the designer and the tool of the engraver. The descriptions are full, perspicuous, and elegant. They are, in a great degree, the result of the author's personal study, and are, therefore, generally expressed in his own language.

Amidst so much that merits praise, it would be invidious to search for trifling faults. We will only hint a wish that the hyana had not been represented as "cruel by innate principle." It is too much like the cant of the school of Buffon; and of all kinds of cant, the cant of atheism and irreligion is the most abominable. We are, in the present case, far from supposing that any reflection on the wisdom or goodness of the Creator was intended. Mr. Church, in every other part of his work, is equally religious and philosophical.

This fifth part contains the martin and the weasel; the otter; the ratel, and the badger; the six-banded armadillo, and the great ant-eater; the chevrotain; the great manis; the guinea-pig, the spotted cavy, and the long-nosed cavy; the ocelot, and the lynx; the short-tailed field-mouse, the common mouse, the dwarf mouse, the common shrew, and the water shrew; the ibex and the chamois goat; the cochon china monkey, and the long-tailed baboon, engraved on twelve plates. The species of the different genera are published promiscuously; but, as should always, if possible, be the case, the work is so printed that they may afterwards be disposed systematically. By giving the sorax and the mus on the same plate, the author appears to prefer the arrangement of Pennant.

The description of the six-banded armadillo is so well drawn up, and contains so much original matter, that we are persuaded our readers will thank us for transcribing the whole.

"THE SIX-BANDED ARMADILLO.

*Generic Characters.*

"Without either cutting, or canine teeth.

"Head, and upper part of the body, guarded by a crustaceous covering; the middle by pliant, crustaceous bands, formed of various segments, reaching from the back to the edges of the body.

SYNONYMS.

TATOU, *Belon Obs.* 211. *Raii Syn. Quad.*

TATU ET TATU PABA, *Brasil: ARMADILLO,*

*Hispanis, Lusitanis:*

ENCUBESTO, *Marcgrave Brasil,* 131.

CATAIHRACTUS SCUTIS DUOBUS, CINGULIS

SEX, *Brisson Quod.* 25.

DASYPUS SEX-CINCTUS, *Linn. Syst.* 54.

L'ENCOUBERT, OU LE TATOU A SIX BANDES,  
*de Buffon x. 209. tab. xlii.*

"This extraordinary animal, as well as all the other species of this kind, was wholly unknown to naturalists before the discovery of America, being only found on that continent. Mild and peaceful in its nature, it is equally incapable of giving offence to other creatures, as it is of defending itself against their attacks; and, were it not for the security it finds in the strong covering with which nature has armed it, the whole of its life would be in perpetual danger. The shell, or rather shells, with which this animal is covered, differ from the shell of the tortoise, in being unconnected with the skeleton of the animal; the shell of the tortoise is united with the back-bone and ribs, whereas the shells of the armadillo form a moveable covering, which is connected only with the skin, and completely eclipses the real shape of the animal; making it appear at first view like a round, mis-shapen mass, with a long head fastened to one end, and a very long tail sticking out at the other, which, as well as the feet and legs, seem not to be of a piece with the body. This extraordinary clothing consists of a large scale, which covers the rump; and another, which extends all over the shoulders: these are united by several bands which encircle the back and sides; the number of these bands differs greatly in the different species, some having but three, some six, some eight, ten, twelve, and even eighteen; and the number of these bands ascertains the species. They are all connected by a yellow membrane, like the articulations in the tail of a lobster, and slide readily over each other, so as to afford the animal a free and easy motion. Besides these transverse divisions of the shells, they also articulate by a joining, which extends all along the back, and gives the animal liberty to move in every direction. The colour of these shells is usually a dirty grey, but it differs in different species: this difference arises from a peculiar circumstance in their conformation, the shell itself being

covered with a softish skin, which is smooth and transparent. This shell covers the top of the head and the tail to the utmost extremity; the only parts which want it are the throat, breast, and belly; these are covered with a soft skin, which is white, and greatly resembles the skin of a fowl stripped of its feathers. Although this skin is apparently naked, if it be observed with attention, it will be found to be covered with the rudiments of shells of the same substance with those which cover the back.

"But, however secure the armadillo may appear to be, under the protection of this covering, it is not a sufficient guard against the attacks of its more powerful enemies. Providence has, therefore, kindly instructed it to roll itself up, like the hedge-hog, on the appearance of great danger. When it is violently attacked, it withdraws its head under its shell, which covers the shoulders, leaving nothing in view but the extremity of the nose. If the danger increase, the feet are all drawn up under the belly, and the two extremities united together, while the tail forms a connecting band, which gives great strength to the situation. When thus rolled up, it resembles a ball, flattish on one side, and in this posture it continues obstinately fixed till the danger is over, and often for a long time after; and this it is enabled to do, by the assistance of strong, lateral muscles, consisting of numberless fibres, which cross each other in the form of the letter X, and give the animal a power of resistance which the strongest man is scarcely able to overcome. When the Indians find it in this form, they lay it close to the fire, the heat of which soon obliges the poor creature to unroll itself, and submit to a milder kind of death.

"All these animals root up the ground, like the hog, to search after roots. They also eat melons, potatoes, and other vegetables, and do great mischief to gardens, when they chance to enter them. They frequent damp and watery places, where they will eat small fish, worms, water insects, and animal flesh, when they can get it. Though naturally accustomed to a warm climate, they do not seem to be much affected by cold; several of them have been brought into England, where they appear to enjoy perfect health. These animals live in deep burrows, which they dig for themselves in the ground: they seldom quit their abodes, except during the night time, when they come out to feed: they seldom go far from their hole, and if surprised immediately run towards it, to secure themselves. If they have not time to reach their hole, they instantly set about digging a fresh one, which they generally accomplish before they are overtaken by their adversary; and this they are enabled to do, by the assistance of their claws, which are extremely large, strong, and crooked. They are, however, some-



times overtaken by the pursuers, and caught by the tail before they have quite made good their retreat: in this situation it patiently awaits its fate.

"Their motion is a swift kind of walk, but they can neither run, leap, nor climb trees. The flesh of the smaller kinds, when young, being delicious eating, they are much sought after, and many contrivances are practised to take them. Sometimes they are driven out of their holes by smoke, sometimes by water, and small dogs are also taught to chase them, and force them to roll themselves up into a ball, before they have time to reach their holes; in which situation they are easily overtaken by the hunters. If the armadillo be near a precipice when it is pursued, it avails itself of it, by rolling itself up in a ball, close to the edge, and then

tumbling down from rock to rock, without receiving the least injury. Snares are very often laid for them, in places which they usually frequent, and this method of taking them is commonly the most successful.

"The general account we have given of this most extraordinary animal, will apply equally to all the species.

"The six-banded armadillo, of which we give the figure, is about the size of a guinea-pig; the scales on the head, shoulders, and rump, are formed of angular pieces: it has six bands on the back; between these, as also on the neck and belly, are a few hairs thinly scattered; the tail is not so long as the body, but is very thick at the largest extremity, and tapers towards the point. There are five toes on each foot.

"It is found in Brasil and Guiana."

ART. V. *General Zoology: or Systematic Natural History.* By GEORGE SHAW, M.D.F.R.S. Vol. III. 8vo.

THOUGH only the third volume of this work properly belongs to the publication of the last year, yet, on account of its distinguished merit, and as we flatter ourselves it will hereafter demand our attention again and again, we shall take a brief survey of it from the beginning. Dr. Shaw's object is to give a full systematic view of the whole animal kingdom, with accurate descriptions and faithful delineations of the several species, as far as they are at present known, or have hitherto been drawn: and of his abilities for this purpose no one can entertain a doubt, who is acquainted with the naturalist's miscellany, which has long been publishing by him and Mr. Nodder, in monthly numbers; with his general reputation as a man of science; or with the peculiar advantages derived from his situation in life. We will, however, honestly confess, that a knowledge of these circumstances has occasioned us some disappointment, having led us to form greater expectations than he intended to realize. We hoped to have been presented with enlarged philosophical views of animal nature, and with such comparisons of its several parts, as would have advanced the science to a higher degree of excellence than it has at present attained. We are also not a little mortified to find that Dr. Shaw has adopted the Linnaean arrangement of the mammalia. The labours of the able and excellent Pennant, aided as they were by the ideas of the illustrious Ray, appear to be nearly forgotten;

we had almost said, within "a month, a little month," of the time when he was removed from a world which he had studied with such patient perseverance. We have long been convinced, that the structure of the foot not only affords the best foundation for a division which corresponds most nearly with the established order of nature, but offers also, in a higher degree, the acknowledged advantages of an artificial system. We do not mean to descend to such minutiae as the number of the toes; but would chiefly direct our ideas to that general formation of the fore-feet in particular, which in any degree gives, or entirely denies to the animal, the uses of the human hand. The economy of the teeth is by no means to be neglected. It is of much service in the construction both of generic and specific characters. But the form of the feet, as fitted either for merely walking; or for seizing, or holding, or conveying the food; or else for swimming or flying, has a much greater influence on the habits and manners of the individual: it is more open to immediate observation; is less liable to be disguised by age or accident; and is embarrassed by fewer anomalies. But though we had been led, by Dr. Shaw's established reputation, to hope for something more, we will not, as is too commonly the way of the world, be ungrateful for what he has actually done. He has done much, and what he has aimed to do, he has done well. He is not to be censured for following his own

convictions, and adopting his own method. We must, however, add, that the want of synoptic tables, is a material defect. We speak from experience, for it has occasioned us much trouble. The artificial tables of the *Systema Naturæ*, are of almost indispensable use to the unexperienced student. More enlarged ones of the genera and species, in the order pursued by the author, would have given, at a single glance, his ideas of their most important affinities, and have afforded an equally ready insight into his deviations from the arrangement of his predecessors.

The style of the work is perspicuous, for the most part elegant, and suited to the subject: but our ears are a little offended by the very frequent recurrence of the qualifying verbs, *seem*, *appear*, and *is said*. They are marks of the author's modesty; but they disfigure his sentences, and are used, on many occasions, where he had a right to assume a more decisive tone.

These are minute blemishes, and are scarcely worth noticing, when we consider that the best writers are not exempt from more important errors. Into such an error Dr. Shaw has fallen by an oversight, for which we cannot account. "Quandoque bonus dormitat Homerus." The giraffe, he tells us,

"Appears to have been brought into Europe, about the year 1559, when the Sultan of Babylon is said to have sent one as a present to Fredericus Cœnorbarbus, Emperor of Germany. Another was sent by the king or bey of Tunis to Laurentius de Medicis, in whose possession it was seen by Politian. These latter anecdotes are on the authority of Gesner and Aldrovandus."

The palpable error of the date 1559, when applied to Fredericus Cœnorbarbus or Barbarossa, the equivalent Italian nickname by which he is now more generally known, could not fail to strike us. Not having Aldrovandus at hand, we had recourse to Gesner, merely with a view to correct the figures in our own copy, and were surprised to find the date 1559 not connected with Barbarossa, and near half a page from the place where his name is mentioned, but given as the date of the year in which a drawing of the giraffe was sent from Constantinople into Germany, to one of Gesner's friends, and afterwards engraved at Nuremberg. It was taken at Constantinople from a living animal which had

been presented to the Grand Signor. The Nuremberg engraving is copied by Gesner, and annexed to the account of the giraffe, in the second edition of his *Historia Animalium*, as a better representation than that given in the first, which was taken from an anonymous description of the Holy Land, written we believe, by one of the crusaders.

The giraffe, from which this drawing was taken, is certainly the last which has been seen in Europe. That which was sent to Lorenzo di Medici, by the King or Dey of Algiers, must have been towards the end of the fifteenth century. Gesner does not determine to which of the two German Frederic's a giraffe was presented by a Mahometan sultan. His words are, partly, if we believe the printed text, in a quotation from Isidorus: "*Hoc animal nostris temporibus a Soldano Babyloniorum transmissum est Imperatori Frederico Romanorum Augusto. Hæc Isidorus, ex quo etiam Albertus Magnus descripsit: sed addit præterea, quod licet multis coloribus insignis sit, Oraflus (sic legitur) album tamen et rubrum frequentiores habeat—Hoc animal, inquit, temporibus nostris visum est.*"

Frederic Barbarossa died in 1190, in Cilicia, on his march to the Holy Land, and had no pacific intercourse with any of the sultans, who had then established themselves on the ruins of the caliphate of Bagdad. We know not that there ever was a sultan of Babylon, properly so called; but the sultan of Egypt is described by that title in a letter of Frederic II. to the German princes, still extant, and printed by Leibnitz in the second part of his *Mantissa*. See *Struvii corpus Historia Germanica. Vol. I. p. 455.*

The crusaders were wretched geographers, and if we may judge of them by their fruits, they were not much better christians. Now Frederic II. the son of Barbarossa, in the year 1229, made a truce with the sultan of Egypt, and obtained, at least, a nominal possession of Jerusalem and other cities in the Holy Land; and it is most probable that on this occasion the giraffe in question, was presented. This conjecture is confirmed by the expression, "*temporibus nostris*," quoted from Albertus Magnus, who was born in 1205, fifteen years after the death of Barbarossa, and was twenty-four years old at the time of Frederick the

second's expedition to the Holy Land. Isidorus must have been inserted by Gesner, instead of some other author. We know of no writer of that name in the time of either of the Frederic's. Isidorus of Seville, the author of the *Etymologicon*, the only one mentioned in Gesner's list of authors, flourished at the beginning of the seventh century. It appears then, that, since the age of the Emperor Aurelian, only three giraffes have been brought into Europe: the first into some of the German dominions in the thirteenth century; the second into Italy at the latter end of the fifteenth; and the third to Constantinople about the middle of the sixteenth\*.

But to put an end to this discussion, which has led us astray much farther than we expected—The first two volumes, each, as is also the third, most inconveniently divided into two parts, and intended to be so bound, are devoted to the class mammalia. In the order, primates, Dr. Shaw has omitted the first Linnæan genus, homo. We cannot be displeased at being separated from the monkeys and the bats; but in a general system of zoology, we could have wished to see the noblest earthly work of God stand where his creator has placed him, at the head of the living creation, not *primus inter pares*, but as the vicegerent of the Almighty, endowed with intellectual, moral, and religious capacities, and on that account exercising dominion over the fish of the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over the cattle of the earth, and over every creeping thing that creepeth on the earth.

In the genus, simia, to the three original Linnæan families of apes, baboons, and monkeys, there is added from Buffon, that of sapajous, distinguished by their prehensile tails; but the saguins of the French naturalist, peculiar to America, and separated from the monkeys of Europe by the want of cheek pouches, do not form a fifth division, though ad-

mitted as such into Gmelin's edition of the *Systema Naturæ*.

The account of the lemur *tardigradus*, partly from Vosmaer, partly from Sir William Jones, and partly from Mr. Carlisle, is curious and interesting. It is clearly distinguished by Dr. Shaw from the lemur *loris*, which has been confounded with it by Buffon and other naturalists. The description of the *tardigradus* and *ecaudatus* in Dr. Turton's translation of Gmelin, are so perplexed, that it seems impossible to unravel them. In direct opposition to the trivial name, he says, that the *tardigradus* is an agile animal.

Of the lemur *volans* of Linnæus, who knew it only from imperfect figures and descriptions, Dr. Shaw, relying on the accuracy of Pallas, has made a distinct genus, on account of the structure of its teeth, which differs from that of all other animals. He has called it *galeopithecus volans*, or flying colago.

To the authorities in support of the dangerous sucking power of the *vespertilio vampyrus*, might have been added the recent one of Stedman, who, in his expedition to Surinam, was himself near suffering very severely from it.

In the order, bruta, is introduced, from Monsieur Cuvier, an account of a fossile skeleton, found some years ago in South America, near the river la Plata. It has evidently belonged to a quadruped, which had many characters different from all known animals, but from the construction of its claws and teeth, a place is assigned to it between the sloth and the armadillo, though were it to rise from the dead, it would, probably, be astonished at its companions. It has obtained the name of *megatherium americanum*.

The rhinoceros, which, in strict conformity with the principles of his system, had been arranged by Linnæus with the belluæ, is here placed, as it had before been by Gmelin, among the bruta, next to the elephant; though it is describe

\* Since the above was transcribed for the press, we have received, by the kindness of a friend, the following extract from the volume of Aldrovandus, entitled, '*Quadrupedum omnium Bisulcorum Historia*.'

"Sed ad camelopardalium redeo, qui a Sultano Babyloniorum rege ad Fredericum Romanorum Imperatorem missus, ut testatum reliquit Vincentius Bellovacensis, et ex eo idem repetit Albertus Magnus in tractatu de animalibus, qui pleraque alia ab illo autore mutuatus est. Fredericus hic Quobarus fuit de quo plenius Annales Germanici."

It appears from this passage, that the mistake of the Frederic originated with Aldrovandus, whose work was published after Gesner's: for a mistake we still think it, for the reasons assigned above, which still remain in their full force.

with four cutting teeth placed at the corner of each jaw : but to save appearances, Dr. Shaw adds, "in strict propriety it may be doubted whether they should be called by the title of cutting teeth." On this verbal distinction, however, he does not confidently rely ; for at the end of the article, he acknowledges, that "where other prominent characters appear, and which are of themselves sufficient for the purpose of investigation, a scrupulous regard to the nature and situation of the teeth is the less important." But is not this virtually to relinquish the Linnæan arrangement in this part of the system, and to acknowledge its insufficiency?

Here also is stationed between the elephant and the walrus, a very singular animal from New Holland, or, as it is now called, Austrasia, first figured and described in the naturalist's miscellany. It has received from Dr. Shaw the generic name of *platypus*; but as its mouth, at the first sight, resembles the bill of a duck, the appellation *ornithorhyncus*, which has been given to it by other naturalists, seems more appropriate. It is a suitable addition to the whimsical collection of discordant beasts which march, climb, creep, or swim, in the ranks of the bruta.

The order, *feræ*, our author has treated with great perspicuity, and has availed himself of the latest discoveries. Following Mr. Pennant, he has thrown the two Linnæan genera, *viverra* and *mustela*, into one; removing, however, the otters, and forming them into a distinct genus on account of their webbed feet, for if we regard only the teeth, the otters are, as Linnaeus deemed them, truly weasels. He has also separated the kangaroos from the opossums, under the generic name of *macropus*.

In the order, *glires*, the cavy, marmot, and the jerboa, which Linnaeus had connected in one genus, Dr. Shaw, in concurrence with Pennant and Gmelin, has cast into distinct genera, characterised by the structure of the feet, proportion of the limbs, &c.; for, as far as the teeth are concerned, they still constitute one unweildy genus, increased as it is by the numerous additions of Pallas and other travellers. The *mus* genus is still sufficiently large, and might, without impropriety, be farther lessened by the separation of some of its species, which in

habit and appearance, differ materially from the rest.

The dormice are also separated from the squirrels, and the genus, *hyrax*, is adopted from Gmelin, comprehending two species which had been arranged with the cavy by Pennant, but differ from all their congeners in having four cutting teeth in the lower jaw instead of two. The *hyrax syriacus* is, with great probability, conjectured by Bruce to be the *saphan* of the holy scripture, the coney of our translators, which had been supposed by Michaelis and other commentators, to be the *jerboa*. All had long agreed that it could not be the rabbit.

The order, *pecora*, an order truly natural, and well broken into distinct genera, except, perhaps, that it is not easy to draw a precise line between the sheep and the goat, or the goat and the antelope, is treated by Dr. Shaw with his usual accuracy and fulness. The same observation will apply to the *belluæ* and the *cetæ*.

In the whole of this class Dr. Shaw confessedly felt the disadvantage under which he laboured, on account of the ground having been so frequently pre-occupied. Pennant, in particular, had so nearly exhausted the subject in the present state of our knowledge, and Buffon had adorned it with such splendid eloquence, that little remained to be done but to quote from other authors, and to add such species as recent travellers have brought to light.

The lactiferous quadrupeds have likewise been so often described in popular publications, as to render it still more difficult to give a new work on the subject an appearance of novelty. And we are inclined to think, that from this circumstance our author has been induced to adopt the Linnæan arrangement, almost in opposition to his better judgment, because it was less known to the English reader, and indeed had never before appeared in a respectable native form. It is, however, so entirely artificial, and does so much violence to the strongest and most obvious natural analogies, that we had flattered ourselves it would not be revived in our present advanced state of natural knowledge. Artificial systems are certainly convenient, and for a considerable time absolutely necessary, but they are only means to an

important end, and should be gradually discarded, or at least lessened and new modelled, as new lights arise, and a more comprehensive acquaintance with natural objects is gained. And in what branch of natural history can we hope to attain to a truly natural description, if we do not attempt it in the mammalia? The class itself is so decisively limited by the hand of nature, its genera and species are comparatively so few, the individuals in general are of such a magnitude, and so many in each of the grand divisions come immediately under our view in their living state, that we can scarcely avoid contemplating their respective analogies, and placing together those which resemble each other in the most, and differ in the fewest particulars. That something of this kind has been spontaneously done, our popular language is a sufficient evidence. But popular language, though sufficiently distinct for common use, is never philosophically just. It is from the scientific naturalist alone, who to an extensive knowledge of facts, adds a talent for patient investigation, nice discrimination, and ready combination, that a system approaching to perfection can be hoped. Absolute perfection cannot be expected. It is beyond the reach of our limited capacities. But every ardent and generous mind must wish to make continual advances towards it, and refuse to be completely satisfied with any step that falls short of it. Ample materials for this purpose are afforded by the present work, and we should hope that Doctor Shaw might be induced to direct his attention to it, and to work up his own stores, if he had not so much before him in his actual undertaking. The task that still remains will require all his time, all his patience, and all his skill: and, happily, the Linnæan arrangement of the other classes is by no means liable to the same objections. It is doubtless capable of improvement. What human work is not? But the more we study it, the more are we convinced that its general principles are solid and immoveable, and will for ever remain a monument of genius not soon to be equalled, and perhaps never exceeded. But though the genius of Linnæus is thus gigantic, we, comparative dwarfs, if we will but take the pains to climb, and to place ourselves on his shoulders,

may take in a wider range, and discover what he never saw.

In the regular order, the class of birds should have followed that of the lactiferous animals. But here the same inconvenience occurred. The great work of Latham is *instar omnium* in this department of the science, and affords fewer occasions for addition or improvement. Dr. Shaw, therefore, has wisely for himself, and fortunately for the public, proceeded to the amphibia. We say, fortunately for the public, because by passing over the birds, he will come the sooner to the last two classes, concerning which we have little in our language, either good or bad, and for the discussion of which he is eminently qualified.

The amphibia, in the common estimation of mankind, are not the most pleasing part of the creation. We acquire an antipathy to them from our earliest childhood, partly from the noxious qualities which we are taught to attribute to them, and which some of them actually possess in a terrible degree; and partly from the coldness of their bodies, which we do not expect to find in a living creature, and to which we usually associate the idea of a dead corpse. As they are thus generally shunned by mankind, and in some cases cannot be approached without danger, we have fewer opportunities of learning their modes of life, and are obliged to study many of them from dead and imperfect specimens. Of all the divisions of natural history, this, therefore, will unavoidably be the least alluring, as well as the least instructive. The naturalist can tell only what he knows. The history of some of its genera is, however, highly curious and entertaining. And Doctor Shaw has given a faithful and perspicuous narrative of the observations which have hitherto been made by foreign and English writers.

The amphibia, since the exclusion of the nantes, have usually been divided into reptiles, or such as have feet, and serpents which have none. Doctor Shaw has thrown them into four divisions, tortoises, frogs, lizards, and serpents, but we know not for what reason, for he immediately specifies the two established orders, and adheres to them in his subsequent descriptions, dividing the reptiles into four genera, testudo, rana, lacerta, and draco, and throwing the sirens, for



which Linnæus made a distinct order, into an appendix, at the end of the serpents, as animals of a dubious nature, not yet sufficiently understood.

In the genus *testudo*, he had little assistance from the preceding writers; the Linnæan specific characters, both in his twelfth edition, and in that of Gmelin, having been found insufficient, and many of the descriptions given by the Count Ceppe having rather increased the obscurity: the species are distributed into two families, the land including the fresh water tortoises, and the sea tortoises or turtles. The common land tortoise, and the green or esculent turtle, so well known to epicures, afford pleasing articles; the former chiefly taken from Mr. White of Selbourne, the latter from Catesby; of the rest we have only simple but full and accurate descriptions; of some we are presented with only the shell, and of those which are found in the "*Systema Naturæ* of Linné," there are several which it is not easy to identify.

The frogs constitute a large genus, and are divided by our author into three families; the *ranæ* or frogs, properly so called, with light, active bodies, and which leap when disturbed; the *hylæ*, the slender limbed or tree frogs, and the *bufones* or toads, which have large heavy bodies, short thick limbs, and which rather crawl than leap. As the article *temporaria* is entirely Doctor Shaw's own composition, and is written in his best manner, we shall select it as a specimen of his style and talents for description.

#### COMMON FROG.

- "*Rana temporaria*. *R. fusco-flavescens, nigro maculata, macula suboculari elongata fusca.*
- "Yellowish-brown frog, spotted with black, with elongated brown patch beneath the eyes.
- "*Rana temporaria*. *R. dorso planiusculo subangulato.* *Lin. Syst. nat. p. 357.*
- "*Rana fusca terrestris.* *Roes. Hist. Ran. p. 1 t. 1, &c.*
- "*Rana.* *Aldr. ovip. p. 89,*
- "*Rana aquatica innoxia.* *Gesm. aq. p. 805.*
- "*Rana aquatica.* *Rej. Quadri p. 241.*
- "The common frog.

"This is the most common of all the European species, being almost every where seen in moist situations, or wherever it can command a sufficient quantity of insects, worms, &c. on which it feeds. In colour it varies considerably, but its general tinge

is olive-brown, variegated on the upper parts of the body and limbs with irregular blackish spots, those on the limbs being mostly disposed in a transverse direction: beneath each eye is a longish mark or patch, reaching to the setting on of the fore legs, and which seems to form one of its principal specific distinctions. The lower or under parts are of a pale greenish yellow cast, and much more obscurely spotted and variegated than the upper surface. The frog, however, is not unfrequently seen, and more especially towards the close of summer, of a much brighter cast, being of a reddish or ferruginous rather than of an olive colour on the upper parts, with very strong and vivid variegations of a deeper colour on the back and limbs, while the lower parts are yellow, spotted, and marked with light red. It is chiefly in gardens that the frog is found thus coloured; but as this, like every other species, is in the habit of casting its skin frequently, the cuticle falling off in a somewhat irregular manner, on different parts of the body, it of course varies considerably at intervals as to the brightness or intensity of its colours.

"The form of the frog is light and elegant, and its appearance lively; the limbs finely calculated for the peculiar motions of the animal, and the hind feet strongly webbed, to assist its progress in the water, to which it occasionally retires, during the heats of summer, and again during the frosts of winter, when it lies in a state of torpidity, either deeply plunged in the soft mud at the bottom of stagnant waters, or in the hollows beneath their banks, till it is awakened from its slumber by the return of spring.

"It is generally in the month of March that the frog deposits its ova or spawn, consisting of a large heap or clustered mass of gelatinous transparent eggs, in each of which is imbedded the embryo, or tadpole, in the form of a round, black globule. The spawn commonly lies more than a month\*, or sometimes five weeks, before the larvæ or tadpoles are hatched from it; and during this period each egg gradually enlarges in size, and a few days before the time of exclusion, the young animals may be perceived to move about in the surrounding gluten. When first hatched, they feed on the remains of the gluten in which they were imbedded, and in the space of a few days, if narrowly examined, they will be found to be furnished on each side the head, with a pair of ramified branchiæ, or temporary organs, which again disappear after a certain space. These tadpoles are so perfectly unlike the animals in their complete state, that a person in conversant in natural history would hardly suppose them to bear any relationship to the frog; since, on a general view, they appear to consist merely

\* This time varies considerably, according to the heat of the weather, and other circumstances.

of head and tail; the former large, black, and roundish; the latter slender, and bordered with a very broad transparent finny margin. Their motions are extremely lively, and they are often seen in such vast numbers as to blacken the whole water with their legions. They live on the leaves of duckweed, and other small water plants, as well as on various kinds of animalcules, &c. and when arrived at a larger size, they may even be heard to gnaw the edges of the leaves on which they feed, their mouths being furnished with extremely minute teeth or denticulations. The tadpole is also furnished with a small kind of tubular sphincter or sucker beneath the lower jaw, by the help of which it hangs at pleasure to the under surface of aquatic plants, &c. From this part it also occasionally hangs, when very young, by a thread of gluten, which it seems to manage in the same manner as some of the smaller slugs have been observed to practise. Its interior organs differ, if closely inspected, from those of the future frog, in many respects; the intestines in particular are always coiled into a flat spiral, in the manner of a cable in miniature.

"Indeed the anatomy of these animals exhibits so many singularities, that a volume might be filled with their history, but the nature of a work like the present forbids a detail of more than what is necessary for a clear general idea of the animal in its several states. When the tadpoles have arrived at about the age of five or six weeks, the hind legs make their appearance, gradually increasing in length and size; and, in about a fortnight afterwards, or sometimes later, are succeeded by the fore-legs, which are indeed formed beneath the skin much sooner, and are occasionally protruded, and again retracted by the animal, through a small foramen on each side of the breast, and are not completely stretched forth till the time just mentioned. The animal now bears a kind of ambiguous appearance, partaking of the form of a frog and lizard. The tail at this period begins to decrease, at first very gradually, and at length so rapidly as to become quite obliterated in the space of a day or two afterwards. The animal now ventures upon land, and is seen wandering about the brinks of its parent waters, and sometimes in such multitudes as to cover a space of many yards in extent. This is the phenomenon which has so frequently embarrassed the minds not only of the vulgar, but even of some superior characters in the philosophic world; who, unable to account for the legions of these animals, with which the ground is occasionally covered in certain spots, at the close of summer, have been led into the popular belief of their having descended from the clouds in showers.

"As soon as the frog has thus assumed its perfect form, it feeds no longer on vegetables, but on animal food, supporting itself

on small snails, worms, &c. and particularly on insects. For the reader obtaining its prey, the structure of its tongue is extremely well calculated, being so situated that the root is attached to the fore rather than the hind part of the mouth; and when at rest, lies backwards, as if the animal were swallowing the tip. By this means the creature is enabled to throw it out to some distance from the mouth, which is done with great celerity, and the bifid and glutinous extremity secures the prey, which is swallowed with an instantaneous motion, so quick that the eye can scarcely follow it.

"The frog can hardly be said to arrive at its full size till the age of about five years, and is supposed to live at least twelve or fifteen years."

The genus *draco* consists of only one determined species, which at first was placed by Linnæus among the lizards, but was afterwards separated from them on account of its membranous winglike appendages, which enables it to support itself in the air for a short time, and to spring from bough to bough on the trees which it delights to frequent. This harmless, but, in our eyes, deformed animal, is the only actual foundation for the monstrous and terrible winged serpents, which deform the pages of the early zoologists, and to which the writers of romance have been so much indebted. Deception has, however, in some measure compensated for the parsimony of nature, in giving currency to these formidable exhibitions. Some curious instances of these impositions, which prove the malignity more than the wit of the inventors, are given in the course of this work, and had so powerful an effect upon the mind of Doctor Shaw, that he durst not pronounce, till after the most careful examination, whether the platypus of New Holland was a real animal, or one of these ingenious manufactures.

The genus *lacerta* comprehends so great a number of species, which differ so much in size and form, though they all agree in the generic character, that all authors have agreed to divide them into several families. Doctor Shaw arranges them under nine subdivisions. 1. The crocodiles, furnished with very strong scales. 2. The guanas, and other lizards, either with serrated or carinated backs and tails. 3. The cordyles, with denticulated, and sometimes spiny scales, either on the body or tail, or both. 4. Lizards proper, smooth,

and the greater number furnished with broad, square scales or plates on the abdomen. 5. Chamæleons, with granulated skin, large head, long missile tongue, and cylindric tail. 6. Geckos, with granulated or tuberculated skin, and lobated feet, with the toes lamellated underneath. 7. Schinks, with smooth, fish-like scales. 8. Salamanders, newts, or efts, with soft skins, of which some are water lizards. 9. Snake lizards, with extremely long bodies, very short legs, and minute feet. But he owns that these divisions are not perfectly precise, and that some species may be referred to any of them almost with equal propriety.

As the salamander, more than almost any other animal, has been the subject of popular error, and as the account of it is not a long one, we shall extract it, for the information of our readers.

#### SALAMANDER.

"*Lacerta Salamandra. L. nigra luteo maculata, cauda tereti medioeri.*

"Black Lizard, spotted with gold-colour, with tail of middling length.

"*Lacerta Salamandra. L. cauda tereti brevi, pedibus muticis, palmis tetradactylis, corpore poroso nudo. Lin. Syst. Nat. p. 371.*

"*Salamandra terrestris. Aldr. Quad. 641. Raj. Quadr. 273. Gesn. Quadr. 80.*

"The Salamander, so long the subject of popular error, and of which so many idle tales have been recited by the more ancient naturalists, is an inhabitant of many parts of Germany, Italy, France, &c. but does not appear to have been discovered in England. It delights in moist and shady places, woods, &c. and is chiefly seen during a rainy season. In the winter it lies concealed in the hollows about the roots of old trees, in subterraneous recesses, or in the cavities of old walls, &c. The salamander is easily distinguished by its colours, being of a deep shining black, variegated with large, oblong, and rather irregular patches of bright orange-yellow, which, on each side of the back, are commonly so disposed as to form a pair of interrupted longitudinal stripes: the sides are marked by many large, transverse wrinkles, the intermediate spaces rising into strongly marked convexities; and the sides of the tail often exhibit a similar appearance: on each side the back of the head are situated a pair of large tubercles, which are in reality the paroid glands, and are thus protuberant not only in some others of the lizard tribe, but in a remarkable manner in the genus *rana*: these parts, as well as the back and sides of

the body, are beset in the salamander with several large, open pores or foramina, through which exudes a peculiar fluid, serving to lubricate the skin, and which, on any irritation, is secreted in a more sudden and copious manner, under the form of a whitish gluten, of a slightly acrimonious nature; and from the readiness with which the animal, when disturbed, appears to evacuate it, and that even occasionally to some distance, has arisen the long-continued popular error of the salamander's being enabled to live uninjured in the fire, which it has been supposed capable of extinguishing by its natural coldness and moisture: the real fact is, that, like any of the cold and glutinous animals, as snails, &c. it, of course, is not quite so instantaneously destroyed by the force of fire as an animal of a drier nature would be. The general length of the salamander is about seven or eight inches, though it sometimes arrives at a much larger size: in the number and form of its spots it varies considerably, and is occasionally seen entirely black: the tail is somewhat shorter\* than the body, and of a round or cylindric form, gradually tapering to the extremity, which is rather obtuse than sharp. Like other lizards of this tribe, the salamander lives principally on insects, small snails, &c. its tongue, however, is not so formed as to catch these in a sudden manner, being short, broad, and in some degree confined, so as not to be darted out with celerity. It is capable of living in water as well as on land, and is sometimes found in stagnant pools, &c. Its general pace is slow, and its manners torpid.

"A strange error appears to have prevailed relative to the supposed poisonous nature of this animal, and the malignity of its venom has even been described as scarcely admitting a remedy. On this subject the writings of Gesner and Aldrovandus afford ample information; but it is useless, as well as unpleasing, in these days of general illumination, to detail the absurd and erroneous doctrines of past ages. It may be sufficient to observe, that the salamander is perfectly innoxious, and incapable of inflicting either wound or poison on any of the larger animals, though it appears, from the experiments of Laurenti, that the common small grey lizard (*L. agilis* var.) is poisoned by biting a salamander, and thus swallowing the secreted fluid of the skin; becoming almost immediately convulsed, and dying in a very short time afterwards.

"The salamander is a viviparous species, producing its young perfectly formed, having been first hatched from internal eggs, as in the viper, and some other amphibia. It is said to retire to the water, in order to deposit its

\* It is remarkable, that in the beautiful representation of this animal, in the frontispiece to Roesel's *Historia Rariorum*, the tail is longer than the body, but this must be considered as a rare occurrence.

young, which, at their first exclusion, are furnished with ramified\* bronchial fins, or processes on each side of the neck, and which being merely temporary organs, are afterwards obliterated, as in the young of frogs and water-newts. The number of young produced at one birth, by the salamander, is said sometimes to amount to thirty or forty."

In the order serpents, the six Linnæan genera are preserved with their characters unaltered, but as the number of scaly plates under the abdomen, and under the tail, on which Linnæus entirely depended for the discrimination of the species, has not been found constant, Doctor Shaw has had recourse to "the general distribution of markings in each species, to the relative size of the head, the size, smoothness or roughness of the scales, &c. for specific differences." Three new genera are added. The *hydra* or water snake, most allied to the anguis, but distinguished from it by a laterally compressed or flattened tail. The *langaya*, which consists only of a single species, a native of Madagascar, and differs from all the rest of the serpent tribe, in having "the upper part or beginning of the tail marked into complete rings, or circular divisions, resembling those on the body of the amphis-

bæna, while the extreme or terminal part is covered with small scales, as in the genus anguis. The *aevochordus*, remarkable for having the head and tail completely covered with warts. The two latter had been already adopted by the Count Cépède.

Such is this important, and as we are happy to find, notwithstanding its unavoidably great price, popular work, as far as it has hitherto advanced. The natural history of fishes is announced for speedy publication. We have endeavoured to give our readers an idea of the general plan, of the manner in which it has been executed, and of what, in our judgment, would have brought it nearer to perfection. If we have expressed our sentiments with freedom, it is not from disrespect to the author, but because we esteem him, and are desirous that the ground of his well-earned fame may be further extended. We are convinced that his merit would appear still greater, if he would do more justice to his own powers, by writing more from his own conceptions, and giving us fewer quotations from other naturalists.

We have only to add, that the figures are admirably drawn, and beautifully engraved.

ART. VI. *The Natural History of Oviparous Quadrupeds and Serpents, arranged and published from the Collections and Papers of the Count Buffon, by the Count de la Cépède. Translated by ROBERT KERR, F.R. and A.S.S. Edinburgh. 4 vols. 8vo.*

THE natural history of quadrupeds, by the Count Buffon, has for a considerable time been well known to the English reader, from the excellent translation of Mr. Smellie. The natural history of birds has, likewise, been rendered into our native tongue with faithfulness and elegance. The present work may be considered as a continuation of the same general plan; for though the composition is Cépède's, it is not only founded on Buffon's ideas, but is professedly drawn up from materials extracted from his papers and collections. It is written in a pleasing, popular manner, but does not exhibit that warmth of imagination, and brilliancy of style, which distinguish the productions of his celebrated master.

It is introduced by a preliminary discourse on the general characters, habits, and differences of the oviparous quadrupeds, and on their comparative form and enjoyments, with respect to superior and inferior tribes of being. Such general views are equally pleasing and useful. They enable us to form an estimate of the actual state of our knowledge on the subject, and at the same time excite to further inquiries. The present dissertation is by no means profound; nor is it always perfectly clear. Connected with many valuable observations, it has not a little of that fanciful theory which marks the character of the French school. But we have remarked with pleasure, that the Count Cépède does not so industriously bring forward

\* On this subject some confusion and disagreement will be found to take place in the works of different naturalists: Mr. Latreille seems to doubt very much whether the salamander really produces her young in the water, as well as whether they are at first furnished with ramified bronchial fins.

those atheistical sentiments which are so disgusting to the pious mind, in the writings of Buffon. In some passages he tacitly, perhaps unconsciously, admits the truly philosophical as well as Christian doctrine of second causes. Thus speaking of the oviparous quadrupeds, with respect to their organ of sight, he observes, that "being for the most part inhabitants of the shore of the sea, and of rivers in the torrid zone, where the sun is seldom obscured by clouds, it is necessary that their eyes should be of sufficient strength not to be injured, and even destroyed by the excessive influence of the light with which they are continually filled: hence the eye ought to be extremely active in these animals, and accordingly we find that they perceive objects at a great distance. We further observe a particular construction of the eyes of several of these animals, which indicates considerable delicacy and sensibility in the organ: most of them have a *membrana nictitans*, similar to that in birds; and a great part of them have the faculty of contracting and dilating the pupil in a very considerable degree, as in cats, on purpose either to admit such a quantity of light as may be necessary, or to prevent an over proportion of the rays that might be hurtful, from entering the eyes."

But though their sense of sight is thus acute and vigorous, he determines, from their external conformation, that their other senses must be dull and languid, and supposes that "from this weakness of their sentient organs, in all probability, their internal organization is modified in such a manner as to diminish the energy of their motions." He seems, however, to argue in a circle, when having described this inward configuration, he considers it as partly the *cause* of their small degree of sensibility. Had he been accustomed to view every species of animal, as the production of a being infinitely wise and benevolent, designed to occupy a particular place in the creation, endowed with such powers as in its peculiar station are best adapted to its own enjoyment, and the other ends of its existence, he would have perceived that its outward shape, its sentient powers, and its internal organization, are all parts of an original plan, and exhibit, in all cases, decisive proofs of consummate skill.

We have noticed also, with satisfaction,

that the count has not inherited his predecessor's aversion to a systematic arrangement. The formation and division of his genera are in the Linnean manner, and the synonyms of Linnaeus, as well as of other naturalists, are regularly given in the margin. Most of his species also are those of his master's eminent rival, though he sometimes differs from him, and, in common with all other writers on this obscure class, is not always sufficiently exact in his application of trivial names. Doctor Shaw has clearly shewn from Schoepf, not only that he has figured and described the *testudo marginata* for the *græca*, but that he has also confounded several species, from all quarters of the globe, under one name. But notwithstanding this, and other similar errors, there is much sound information, and accurate description, in the count's work, of which Doctor Shaw has avowedly and properly made use. The whole is written in a popular manner, and is particularly enriched with numerous quotations from the accounts of different travellers. The genus *testudo* is treated in the usual manner. The families of the *lacerta* are entirely different from those of Doctor Shaw, as must almost always be the case, when two writers separately attempt an artificial division of a numerous genus.

Cepede's first family consists of those large species which grow to the length of several feet, and have their tails somewhat flattened. It comprehends the common crocodile, including the alligator as a variety; the black crocodile of Senegal, considered as only a variety by Shaw; and the *gangetica*, which constitute the whole of Shaw's first division. To these are added the *caudiverbera*, the *monitor*, the *superciliosa*, the *scutata*; the *principalis* with its variety, *bimaculata*, and the *bicarinata*. The *caudiverbera* is placed by Doctor Shaw among his geckos, the remainder among the *guanas*. But it appears by a quotation from Schneider, in Doctor Shaw's zoology, that the count has confounded the *caudiverbera* with the American crocodile, in consequence of his mistaking Linnaeus's reference to Seba's figure, and upon finding that the supposed reference could not be right, fixing at last, by a random guess, upon a wrong one. The *principalis* also is said by Doctor Shaw to be not more than



eight or nine inches in length, from the nose to the tip of the tail. If Cope intended the same animal, it ought not to be placed in this division.

The second family is distinguished by having their tails round, five toes on all the feet, and a crest or projecting ridge of scales along the middle of the back.

It takes in part of Doctor Shaw's guanas, viz. the iguana, with its horned variety, as a distinct species; the basiliscus, amboinensis, calotes, and agama.

The third family has a round tail, five toes on each of the fore feet, and bands or fillets of scales on the belly.

It contains the cordylus and the angulata of Shaw's third division; the agilis and its variety, viridis, made a distinct species, the erythrophalus, sexlineata, lemniscata, and ameiva, of his fourth.

The fourth family has five toes on each fore-foot, without transverse bands on the belly.

It consists of the umbra, marmorata, and strumosa of Shaw's second division, with the roquet, his second variety of the principalis; the azurea, stellio, and orbicularis of his third; the fasciata, turcica, plica, algira, lineata, bullaris, teguixin, and interpunctatus of his fourth; the chamæleon of his fifth; the sputator of his sixth; and the tiligugu or mabouya, the aurata, occidua, and scincus of his seventh.

The fourth family has large imbricated scales on the under surface of the toes.

It contains the gecko, the geckotte or dubia, supposed by Schneider to be confounded by Cope with the mauritanica of Linnæus, and the flat headed or fimbriata of Shaw's sixth division.

The sixth family has only three or four toes on the feet.

It consists of the seps of Doctor Shaw's fourth, and the annulated chalcides of his ninth division.

The seventh family is the draco volans of Shaw.

The eighth family has three or four toes on each fore-foot, and four or five on each behind.

It comprehends the quadrilineata of Shaw's fourth division; the tetradactyla of his sixth; the salamandra, the palustris, including the vulgaris and aquatica; and the maculata of his eighth.

The ranæ succeed the lizards, and are divided into the usual three families.

Then follows a brief account of oviparous bipeds. The siren lacertina, removed by Gmelin, but not admitted by Turton, into the class of fishes under the genus murena, the Count pronounces without hesitation to be the larva of a frog or water-lizard, and supposes that the anguis bipes of Linnæus, placed by Gmelin in the genus lacerta, is nothing more than a small serpent, killed in the pairing season, with its double organ hanging out of the anus. But he describes as indisputably biped the cannelé or grooved biped, discovered in Mexico, which forms a connecting link between the serpents and oviparous quadrupeds, by the amphibæna of the former, and the chalcides of the latter; and the sheltopusick found by Pallas, near the rivers Volga and Kuban.

We have compared the arrangement of Cope with that of Doctor Shaw, whose work we regard as the standard in our language, that our readers may judge of their respective merits, and with the hope that a step towards further improvement may be gained.

The history of serpents is likewise introduced by a preliminary discourse, to which the character already given of that prefixed to the oviparous quadrupeds may be applied. The explanation of the difference between viviparous, what our author calls viparous, and oviparous animals, appear to us so perspicuous and just that we think it worthy of insertion:

"In every species of serpent the young are produced from eggs, as in the oviparous quadrupeds; but in some species these eggs are hatched within the bodies of the mothers, and to these species we might give the appellation of *viparous*, to distinguish them from those animals properly called *viviparous*.

"To avoid all ambiguity relative to the terms *viparous* and *viviparous*, we have thought it necessary to explain the difference between these two terms, as understood by naturalists. Strictly speaking, all animals whatever may be considered as produced from eggs\*; so that, at first sight, the only distinction between *viviparous* seems to consist in producing young perfectly formed, and in laying eggs: but on more attentive examination, it is necessary to admit of two distinct kinds or species of eggs. In the one the fœtus is inclosed by a membrane, named the amnios, which contains a small quantity of

\* Omne animal ex ovo. Arist.

liquor, for nourishing the embryo in the early part of its existence; but, as that liquor is by no means sufficient for supplying the embryo through the whole process of its development, this egg is attached by means of an umbilical chord, or some other species of connection, to the body of the mother, or to some other extraneous body, from which the fœtus may acquire the necessary sustenance. As this egg is not calculated for promoting the growth of its included embryo, nor even for supporting it in life, it must only be considered as an imperfect egg: and such are those which inclose the fœtus of man and of other animals, since they neither produce nor contain perfect eggs, properly so called.

"The second, or proper species of eggs, on the contrary, not only contain a small quantity of liquid, for sustaining the embryo during the first moments of its existence, but are provided with all the food which is necessary to its support and growth, to the period of its perfect development, when it breaks or tears the shell or membranes, and issues forth to the light. These eggs are either portruded from the mother soon after their formation and impregnation, or they remain within her body after their perfect formation, without adhering to it in any manner whatever, receiving nothing from it but the communication of heat: These eggs are perfect and complete, and such only merit the name of eggs properly so called. Of this kind are the eggs of birds, fishes, serpents, and oviparous quadrupeds, which have no milk dugs. All these animals are, properly speaking, oviparous, as they are all produced from eggs; and though, in some species of the classes of fishes, oviparous quadrupeds, and serpents, the eggs are hatched within the bodies of the females, from which the young come forth completely formed, yet the eggs themselves are perfect and unattached, and the animals which are produced from them are really oviparous: And if some of them be termed viviparous, or rather viparous, as we have before proposed, these must by no means be considered as viviparous in the strict and proper sense of the term, but only as in contradistinction from the other more numerous species of the same classes, in which the eggs are extruded before hatching; for the term viviparous ought only to belong to those animals that have imperfect eggs, which do not contain the whole food necessary for the included fœtus.

"It is therefore necessary to distinguish the several modes in which animals are produced into life. By the first, they are produced from a bag or envelope, which may be called in some measure an egg, but it is imperfect, and is necessarily connected for support with some extraneous body, or with the body of the mother, either of which may

supply the nourishment it does not contain within itself. By the second, they are produced from a perfect and unconnected egg, which hatches within the belly of the mother. And by the third, they come from an equally perfect and unconnected egg, which is extruded or layed from the body of the mother, sometime before the eruption of the fœtus. These two last modes are fundamentally the same, and, though they differ essentially from the first, their only difference from each other, is in the circumstances attending the incubation or process of hatching; for, in the second, the interior warmth of the mother is necessary to the development of the perfect egg and its included fœtus; while in the third, that duty is performed either by the mother's heat externally applied, or by the more extraneous warmth of the sun and atmosphere. Those animals, therefore, which are produced by the second or third modes are equally oviparous, and we are consequently justifiable and right in appropriating that term, with most naturalists, to tortoises, crocodiles, lizards, frogs, and other quadrupeds, without milk dugs; and all serpents must unquestionable be considered as really oviparous, though in some, which we have here called viparous, the young are brought fully formed into the world\*.

In the distribution of the species the Count has retained the six established genera of Linnæus, and has added the langaha and acrochorde. The water-serpents, as far as he knew them, he has left where they were formerly placed.

To facilitate the investigation of a tribe of animals so simple in their outline, and so similar to each other in their general structure, he has prefixed an ample synoptic table of the species under each genus, as they are distinguished by the number of their body-plates and tail-plates, their entire length, the length of their tail, the presence or absence of poisonous fangs, disposition of head scales, form of back scales, miscellaneous characters, and difference of colour: and though some of these characters are not constant in all the individuals of a species, they will be found, when viewed in connection with others which are less variable, to be highly useful. We cannot too strongly recommend the construction, and as new observations are made, the continual improvement of such tables, in every department of natural history.

The genus coluber is divided into two families, the viparous and the ovipa-

\* See Raii Synops. Method. Anim. Quadr. and Serp. Lond. 1693, fol. 47 and 285.

vous: and the author is inclined to think, though he acknowledges that he does not possess a sufficient number of facts to enable him to assert, that the former are all poisonous, and the latter all harmless. In the translation, the genus appears under the English name of viper. But we think adder would be more conformable to general usage: the poisonous species might then be called vipers, and the harmless ones snakes, as they are actually distinguished in all the parts of England with which we are acquainted. In this case, it must be confessed, that we should want an English name for the genus anguis. But the Latin one might be retained without inconvenience, especially as we are accustomed to call the only English species, blind worm. Dr. Shaw has denominated the genus, slow worm; but he himself confesses not with perfect propriety. He renders coluber, snake.

Upon the whole, though the work of the Count de la Cèpede is certainly rather a juvenile performance, and not without considerable errors, we cannot but consider it as a valuable acquisition to the naturalist; and can, by no means, give our sanction to the acrimonious severity with which he is treated by Schneider. The expressions *Gallus de la Cèpede*—cui errori sane gravissimo plures reperi in libro *Galli*—quapropter imprudentiæ *Galli* gratias agendas, &c. savour more of national, perhaps political, prejudice, than of the mild benignity and lenient candour which are the proper characters of a philosopher.

The Count has been fortunate in meeting with a translator who understands both the language in which he has written, and the subject on which he has treated. We have often the mortification to encounter *doers* into English, who have no right to boast of much skill in either.

ART. VII. *An Ornithological Dictionary; or, Alphabetical Synopsis of British Birds.* By GEORGE MOUNTAGUE, F. L. S. 2 Vols. 8vo.

OUR continental neighbours have long been remarkable for their attachment to the dictionary form of publication. They have not only their encyclopedies, but separate dictionaries of every science, and of almost every subject. In the warmth of their revolutionary enthusiasm they annexed to their immense Dictionnaire Methodique, then in the middle of its progress, a bulky volume, which they called a Dictionary of the Revolution. The readiness with which any article may be found in a work thus arranged, is an obvious argument in its favour. For who that can read at all, does not know the order of the alphabet? Such is the motive assigned for the present publication. "The variety of publications on ornithology," says Mr. Mountague, "are as entertaining as they are instructive, but the difficulty of discovering any particular species in the works of an author, where the bird is called by a different name from which it may be provincially denominated, has, we conceive, been preventive to a more enlarged investigation of that part of the natural history of our country. To persons well acquainted with the generic character, the difficulties may not be so great; but the general part of mankind might wade

through volumes before they could find the object of their inquiry."

To persons who are acquainted only with a provincial name, or any other name, whether vulgar or scientific, and who are also strangers to scientific principles, an alphabetical guide will certainly be needful, if they wish to acquire any further acquaintance with the subject. But for this purpose is not an alphabetical index all that is requisite? And would not the information be more ready, as well as more satisfactory, from a distinct and methodical view of all the species comprehended under the genus, and of all the kindred genera? For occasional reference, a dictionary is less advantageous than a systematic treatise accompanied by a good index, and for every other purpose it is much more likely to perplex than to inform.

We cannot, therefore, commend the judgment of the author in the form which he has given to his work; nor can we think that he has produced a sufficient quantity of new matter to justify his drawing upon the public for the price of two octavo volumes. His work, we acknowledge, is not merely a compilation. He has a turn and a capacity for actual observation. He had original information to communicate, which

would have appeared with credit to himself and advantage to the public, in a detached essay, or in the transactions of the respectable society of which he is a member. Many of his remarks are the result of personal experience, and indicate a more accurate acquaintance with the distinctions of species, than could have been obtained from books. The number of these he is disposed to lessen under several of the genera, from a full persuasion that the difference of plumage, and other particulars in the male and female of the same species, as well as in the same individuals in different stages of their growth, is so great as to account for their having been described under different names as distinct species.

To the catalogue of British birds he has added the emberiza girl, or girl bunting, first observed by himself, of which he has given an elegant coloured figure: the *anas histrionica* or harlequin duck, on the authority of Mr. Sowerby, the female of which has been called by Linnæus, *anas minuta*: an ash-coloured heron, with a conjecture that it may be the *falco hyemalis* of Gmelin, the northern falcon of Latham, and the winter falcon of Pennant's arctic zoology: and what he esteems a non-descript species of *Tringa*, bought in the market at Bath.

To the alphabetical part of the work he has prefixed an introduction, containing some general remarks, which could not so conveniently be introduced under any of the separate articles. It is not without real merit, but we cannot give it unqualified praise. Its defects in point of language and composition are numerous and glaring. In the very first sentence, which we have already quoted, there is more than one grammatical error; and through the whole, the plural of the verb is so generally connected with a singular noun, that we suspect him to be a native of the eastern coast of our island, where that false concord is in almost universal use.

Nor is the matter always better than the manner: The jargon of organic particles conveys no real idea; and when he attempts to account for the well-known fact of an egg's being sometimes found without a yolk, by stating that there is some defect in the ovarium; that there may be an unequal stimulus

in the parts necessary to perfect the egg; that the growth of the vitellus is not in proportion to the albumen; that while the vesicles appointed for collecting, preparing, and uniting the organic particles of the albumen in the uterus, have all their effective power, those of the vitellus are weak; and that, of course, one goes on with the operations appointed by nature, while the other is stopped in its progress for want of a sufficient quantity of organic matter to bring it to perfection at the same time; what does he more than tell us that the yolk is not formed, because there is no power to form it, and nothing to form it of? And what is this but to "darken counsel by words without knowledge?"

His reasoning on the young cuckoo of a fortnight old, mentioned by Mr. Jenner, which was found covering the eggs of a hedge sparrow in a nest of that kind, in a prolific state; though founded on a gratuitous assumption, is ingenious and plausible. The hypothesis of a power possessed by the cuckoo, of retaining the egg, and nearly hatching it by the internal heat of its body, is supported only by the *a priori* argument of the improbability of a suitable nest being always found at the proper time; but if a cuckoo should ever be killed with an egg in such a state, the analogy between it and the common viper, (*viviparus*) or as the Count de la Cèpede would call it, the *viparus blenny*, and some other cold blooded animals, would be striking and satisfactory.

But though Mr. Mountague does not always write with elegance, or reason with precision and force, he is entitled to all our regard when he presents us with observations, which are the result of twenty years search and attention. His description of the courtship and domestic manners of some birds, is peculiarly interesting.

"The males of song birds, and many others, do not, in general, search for the female, but, on the contrary, their business in the spring is to perch on some conspicuous spot, breathing out their full and amorous notes, which by instinct the female knows, and repairs to the spot to choose her mate. This is particularly verified with respect to the summer birds of passage. The nightingale, and most of its genus, although timid and shy to a great degree, mount aloft to pour forth their amorous strains incessant, each seemingly vying in their love-laboured

song before the females arrive. \* No sooner do they make their appearance than dreadful battles ensue, and their notes are considerably changed; sometimes their song is hurried through without the usual grace and elegance; at other times modulated into a soothing melody. The first we conceive to be a provocation to battle, on the sight of another male; the last an amorous cadence, a courting address. This variety of song lasts no longer than till the female is fixed in her choice, which is, in general, in a few days after her arrival; and, if the season is favourable, she soon begins the task allotted to her sex. †

“The male now no more exposes himself to sing as before, nor are his songs heard so frequent, or so loud; but while she is searching for a secure place to nidificate in, he is no less assiduous in attending her with ridiculous gestures, accompanied with notes peculiarly soft. ‡ When the female has chosen a spot for nidification, the male constantly attends her flight to and from the place, and sits upon some branch near, while his instinctive mate places the small portion of material she each time brings, to rear a commodious fabric for her intended brood. When the building is complete, and she has laid her portion of eggs, incubation immediately takes place. The male is now heard loud again, but not near so frequent as at first; he never rambles from her hearing, and seldom from her sight; if she leaves her nest he soon perceives it, and pursues her, sometimes accompanied with soft notes of love. When the callow brood appears, he is instantly apprised of it, either by instinct, or by the female carrying away the fragment shells to some distant place. The male is now no more heard in tuneful glee (unless a second brood should force the amorous song again); his whole care and attention is now taken up in satisfying the nutrimental calls of his tender infant race, which he does with no less assiduity than his mate, carrying them food, and returning frequently with the muting of the young in his beak, which is dropped at a distance from the nest. §

“But we shall now proceed to shew, by experiments, that birds in their natural state may be forced to continue their song much longer than usual. A male redbstart made its appearance near my house early in the spring, and soon commenced his love-tuned song. In two days after a female arrived,

which for several days the male was continually chasing, emitting soft interrupted notes, accompanied by a chattering noise. This sort of courting lasted for several days, soon after which the female took possession of a hole in a wall close to my house, where it prepared a nest, and deposited six eggs. The male kept at a distance from the nest, and sometimes sung, but not so loud or so frequent as at first, and never when he approached near his mate. When the eggs had been sat on a few days I endeavoured to catch the female on the nest, but she escaped through my hand. However, she soon returned, and I caught her. The male did not immediately miss his mate; but on the next day he renewed his vociferous calls, and his song became incessant for a week, when I discovered a second female; his note immediately changed, and all his actions as before returned. This experiment has been repeated with the nightingale, with the same success; and a golden-crested wren, who never found another mate, continued his song from the month of May till the latter end of August. On the contrary, another of the same species, who took possession of a fir-tree in my garden, ceased its notes so soon as the young were hatched, and as this beautiful little family caused me much delight and amusement, some observations thereon may not be unacceptable to the curious reader. When first I discovered the nest, I thought it a favourable opportunity to become acquainted with some of the manners of this minute species, and to endeavour to discover whether the male ever sung by way of instructing the young ones. Accordingly I took the nest when the young were about six days old, placed it in a small basket, and by degrees enticed the old ones to my study window; and after they became familiar with that situation, the basket was placed within the window; then at the opposite side of the room. It is remarkable, that although the female seemed regardless of danger from her affection to her young, yet the male never once ventured within the room, and yet would constantly feed them while they remained at the outside of the window: on the contrary, the female would feed them at the table at which I sat, and even when I held the nest in my hand, || provided I remained motionless. But on moving my head one day, while she was on the edge of the nest, which I held in my

\* The females of the migrative part of this genus come to us later than the males; some indeed not till three weeks after.

† The females make their nest without much assistance from the males, with few exceptions.

‡ When we have disturbed their courting, and separated the sexes from the sight of each other, the male assumes his usual vociferous notes.

§ The sagacity of this, as also the disposal of the egg-shells, is a providential instinctive power implanted in these little creatures for the security of their young; to assist which nature has given a skin, or covering, in which the faeces is enveloped.

|| It is probable the focal distance of such minute animals eyes is very near, and that large objects are not represented perfect on the retina; that they do not seem to see such distinct objects, unless in motion.



hand, she made a precipitate retreat, mistook the open part of the window, knocked herself against the glass, and laid breathless on the floor for some time. However, recovering a little, she made her escape, and in about an hour after I was agreeably surprised by her return, and would afterwards frequently feed the young while I held the nest in my hand. The male bird constantly attended the female in her flight to and fro, but never ventured beyond the window-frame; nor did he latterly ever appear with food in his bill. He never uttered any note but when the female was out of sight, and then only a small chirp. At first there were ten young in the nest, but, probably, for want of the male's assistance in providing food, two died. The visits of the female were generally repeated in the space of a minute and an half, or two minutes; or, upon an average, thirty-six times in an hour; and this continued full sixteen hours in a day, which, if equally divided between the eight young ones, each would receive seventy-two feeds in the day; the whole amounting to five hundred and seventy-six. From examination of the food, which by accident now and then dropped into the nest, I judged from those weighed, that each feed was a quarter of a grain upon a me-

dium; so that each young one was supplied with eighteen grains weight in a day; and as the young birds weighed about seventy-seven grains at the time they began to perch, they consumed nearly their weight of food in four days at that time.\* I could always perceive by the animation of the young brood when the old one was coming; probably some low note indicated her near approach, and in an instant every mouth was open to receive the insect morsel. But there appeared no regularity in the supply given by the parent bird; sometimes the same was fed two or three times successively; and I generally observed that the strongest got most, being able to reach farthest, the old one delivering it to the mouth nearest to her, and after each feed she waited a while to see if any muted.†

Such information we shall always be glad to receive, even though it should continue to be blemished by the grammatical defects which are but too visible in these extracts. We cannot refuse such wholesome food, on account of the homely manner in which it is served up.

ART. VIII. *A new and complete Treatise on the Art of Breeding and Managing the Almond Tumbler.* 8vo.

THE pigeon-fancier bears the same relation to the ornithologist, as the florist does to the botanist. Their pursuits have no right to aspire to the dignity of science, but may claim the praise of innocent amusements. Neither the pigeon-fancier nor the florist range at large over the diversified fields of nature, but confine their attention to a few objects. Nor do they love to contemplate nature herself in her native mildness, and unaltered simplicity; they rather aim to distort, or, as they imagine, to improve her appearance. The florist contrives to give his plant a formal shape, to divest it of its delicate inmost parts, to clothe it with the luxuriance of multiplied petals, and to adorn it with the richness of variegated colour. The pigeon-fancier is anxious to obtain for his bird that fulness of chest, which throws forward its centre of gravity, and inclines it to tumble heels over head in the air. He is attentive to the minutest

tint of its plumage, and lays down criterions of excellence, which are discernible only by those who are initiated into the mysteries of the art. The success of both is the effect of cultivation and skill.

Our author, with the advantage of ten or twelve years experience, and with the benevolent view of preserving young fanciers from the lamentable errors, into which he himself fell "through lack of knowledge," has undertaken the arduous task of tracing out a path as yet untrodden, and of delivering precepts which no elementary book has hitherto contained. That he may speak to the eyes as well as to the understanding of his readers, he has presented them in the frontispiece of his treatise, with a coloured figure of the almond tumbler, which he acknowledges is not an exact portrait of any bird that ever actually existed; but, like the Venus of the Grecian artist, is a collection of graces

\* This extraordinary consumption seems absolutely requisite in animals of such rapid growth. The old birds of this species weigh from eighty to ninety grains.

† The lesser species of birds, who are frequently fed, seldom or ever mute but immediately after they are fed, by which means the faeces are never left on the nest, but are instantly carried away by the parent bird.

separately taken from different living birds, and combined into one representation of perfect beauty. Those who are smitten with the almond tumbler rage, will, doubtless, follow him with pleasure through his descriptions of the feather, the shape, the eye, the head, and though last, not least, in point of importance, the beak of their pigeons; will pay particular attention to his directions for the construction of the loft and the pens into which it is divided, will read, and re-read, his rules for pairing, and hatching, and shifting, and drafting, and washing, and flying, and feeding, and parting their birds; will be grateful for the prescriptions to secure them from external vermin, and internal disease; and will learn with pleasure, if they did not know it before, that there is a Columbarian society "who meet at the Queen's-Head Tavern, near Gray's-Inn Gate, Holborn, on the first Tuesday of almost every month in the year, to dine and spend a cheerful day together, chiefly in conversation upon the fancy, and to produce such young birds as they may have bred since the last meeting, for the inspection and entertainment of the society."

Old and grave as we are, we wish them many a cheerful meeting; but as such levities would but ill accord with our wrinkled brows and grey beards, we will act the part of the true sage, and, while they are indulging in the mirth suited to their years,

"Find tongues in lofts, books in a pigeon's nest,

Sermons in eggs, and good in every thing:"

And that our readers may reap equal instruction, will select a luminous moral passage for the imitation of all husbands who esteem it their duty to be help-mates to their wives; and for the encouragement of all youthful maids who wish to give, and hope to receive, alternate relief from the cares and solitudes of a wedded life.

"The hen mostly lays two eggs, missing one day between the first and second. Sometimes, though rarely, she will lay three, at others only one. When she lays but one, I think it is a sign of weakness or great delicacy; but this seldom happens except in the spring, in the first or second round. After having laid her first egg, which is invariably between five and six o'clock in the afternoon, she and the cock alternately stand over it, (as well to protect it from the intrusion of any other bird, or from vermin, as that both the eggs may be hatched at the same time) till the second is laid, which is usually at one o'clock or soon after, on the third day, when they commence incubation, in the following manner: as soon as the second egg is laid, the cock, who is generally at hand waiting the event, sends the hen off, both for the purpose of recruiting herself after the pain and fatigue of laying, and to take the proper refreshment necessary to enable her to resume her sitting for the night, which she does between four and five the same afternoon, and sits till about ten o'clock the next day, when the cock relieves guard, and sits again till four in the afternoon, and so alternately till the seventeenth day from the laying the last egg, when the incubation is complete, and the eggs will be chipped, and in general hatched in the course of that day, if they hatch at all, and this regularity, and alternate relief, is maintained during the feeding, as well as the sitting."

ART. IX. *Entomologia Britannica, sistens insecta Britanniae indigena secundum methodum Linnæanum disposita. Auctore THOMA MARSHAM. Soc. Linnæon. Londinens. Thesaurio necnon Societ. Literar. Philor. Mancunii socii honorario. Tomus I. 8vo.*

AS we descend to the lower tribes of living creatures, their number increases, and their magnitude diminishes, till they perplex us on the one hand, and almost escape our notice on the other. The lactiferous animals, widely extended as they are over the face of the earth, are easily comprehended by an attentive mind. Their genera are not numerous, and though some of these genera comprehend many species, still they may be committed to memory without much difficulty, and their specific as well as generic differences, be pretty accurately retained. The birds, the amphibia, and

the fishes, are, in general, more remote from human observation, and consequently less known, both as to their habits and their forms. But the labours even of the ornithologist, who has to distinguish the greatest variety of objects, and has to lay hold of less obvious and more variable characters, are small and inconsiderable, when compared with those of the entomologist. Though the genera which he has to investigate may not much exceed those in any of the higher classes, what a multitude of species crowd upon him from every part of the world! The species under the

genus scarabæus, in Gmelin's edition of the *Systema*, amount to 536. The curculios and the papilios, are still more numerous: and there are others which present to the view of the naturalist an almost equally formidable host. Nearly all of them, moreover, in different parts of their growth, appear under three different forms after their exclusion from the egg; and many of them are so small, as to require the aid of a powerful magnifier, to discover their essential parts, if not their actual existence. Nor is there any occasion to believe that even a fourth of them have as yet been discovered. Every scientific traveller is continually bringing home new species: every stationary observer is adding to the list of those that are indigenous in his own country. The universal naturalist, therefore, with the most favourable opportunities of access to museums and libraries, will scarcely find his life sufficient to acquire a complete knowledge of the different kinds, and to arrange them under artificial divisions. And after all, he becomes acquainted, in most cases, with nothing more than a lifeless form. He opens a cabinet, and inspects a shrivelled specimen. The insect passes through its various changes, seeks its food, and propagates its species in China or Brazil.

The only method, then, to advance the science beyond meagre nomenclature and description, is for different individuals to select different departments, and to direct their chief attention to the insects of their own neighbourhood. Several foreign naturalists have laboured in this way with success: but hitherto little has been done in Great-Britain. Ray described a few of our native insects; but Pennant, our other British Pliny, acknowledged his ignorance of entomology. Mr. Marsham has long had it in contemplation to supply the want: and deceived by the brief catalogues of Berkenhout and Forster, at first imagined that it would not be a tedious or laborious work. But when he entered upon it in good earnest, he soon perceived that the insects of the southern part of our little island are as yet but imperfectly known, and that only a small proportion of them have been accurately described. Discouraged from undertaking the whole at once in the midst of his other public and private engagements, and pressed

by his friends not altogether to decline a work for which he is known to be well qualified, he has been induced to study and to publish the coleopterous order separately. And we are happy to observe, that he has given us a model of what an indigenous fauna ought to be. In a well-written preface he has assigned satisfactory reasons for his adherence to the system of Linnæus, in preference to that of Fabricius, so much boasted, and so generally adopted, on the continent of Europe. In addition to the very forcible objections to the instrumental cibaria, as the foundation of a system, on account both of their minuteness, and of the different appearances which they assume under the microscope to different observers, through the different points of view in which they are seen, and the different manner in which they happen at different times to be illuminated, he has shewn that the system itself, supposing these difficulties completely overcome, is not built on solid ground. But though he is laudably attached to the Linnæan arrangement, he does not follow his master with a blind deference. To the thirty-one genera contained in the twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ* he has added eighteen more: ips and hydrophilus, which Linnæus himself, as appears from his own manuscripts, would have adopted had he lived to publish another edition; cistela, taken up from Geoffroy and Forster; auchenia from Thunberg, and twelve others borrowed from Olivier and Fabricius.

The genus scarabæus, divided by Fabricius into eight, he has, we think, very properly preserved entire. We have never been satisfied with that passion for splitting genera, which has lately been so prevalent. When species do not correspond with the generic character, and when that character cannot conveniently be changed so as to include them, a new genus, or genera, must necessarily be formed for their accommodation. But when this is not the case, it seems to us to be going backward instead of forward, and to lose a step already gained in the study of nature. We cannot perceive, for instance, that any advantage has been obtained, even in point of facility, by Heritier's division of the botanical genus geranium into pelargonium, erodium, and geranium. The distinct cha-

acters of each are as well pointed out by Linnæus at the head of the subdivisions, to which he has given the names of *africana*, *myrrhina*, and *batrachia*. And is it not some advantage to have it intimated at once, by a common name, that they all agree in the more general character of *fructus rostratus 5-coccus*? For is it not the object of true science to pass from individuals through an ascending series of generals, till we arrive at the genus *generalissimum*? And what we do get in compensation for the want of this compendious method of instruction, but two well-sounding names?

For the same reason, we are persuaded, that all the species comprehended under the genus *scarabæus*, will be more clearly, and more completely understood by preserving the common generic name, and prefixing proper subordinate characters to the several families.

Mr. Marsham has divided the *scarabæi* into

“ \* *A. Terrestres, elytris ad anum pertingentibus, sive equalibus*

• *Scutellati*

• • *Exscutellati*

B. *Arborci, corpore convexo, elytris non ad anum pertingentibus, sive abbreviatis*

C. *Florales, corpore depresso, elytris non ad anum pertingentibus, sive abbreviatis.*”

The division would have been more strictly logical had it stood thus,

ART. X. *Monographia Apum Angliæ.* By WILLIAM KIRBY, B. A. F. L. S. 8vo.

MR. MARSHAM has here met with an able fellow-labourer in the same vineyard, and convinced that the vintage is sufficiently large to afford full employment for both, he is so far from regarding the author of the present work with a jealous eye, that he has given him the liberal assistance of a friend. Mr. Kirby informs us that when he first turned his attention to the English bees, he had no expectation of meeting with half the number of species which he has here described, and had no other view than to draw up a short paper to be read at the Linnæan society: but as he proceeded, he found his subject swell so much on his hands, as to furnish materials for more than a volume. And every lover of natural history will rejoice that

A. *Elytris ad anum pertingentibus, sive aequalibus.* Terrestres.

• *Scutellati*

• • *Exscutellati*

B. *Elytris non ad anum pertingentibus, sive abbreviatis*

• *Corpore convexo.* Arborci.

• *Corpore depresso.* Florales.

The new genus *corticaria*, so called because all its hitherto known species are found under the bark of trees, is placed between *cistela* and *silpha*, and has for its essential character; *caput prominens, thorax et elytra marginata, corpus sublineare*. It contains twenty-three species, only one of which was known to Linnæus, the *frumentana*, called by him *dermestes surinamensis*. Fourteen are non-descripts. The *boleteria* derives its name from the kind of fungus which all its species inhabit. Its essential character is, *antennæ perfoliatæ, extrorsum crasiores, thorax marginatus, posticæ foveolis tribus, mediâ obsoletiori, utrinque angulatus, elytra marginata, corpus ovatum*. It contains the *chrysomela quadripustulata* of Linnæus, and seven others, three of which are non-descripts.

Under every genus, after its artificial character, Mr. Marsham gives the specific and trivial names of each species, an ample list of references where it could be obtained; its particular habitat when known; and, generally, a detailed description of its several parts.

The English entomologist will wait with impatience for the continuation of this masterly work.

he did not confine himself to his original design. He has produced a monographia, which for richness of information, originality of matter, perspicuity of method, and soundness of judgment, is, we believe, in this country, absolutely unrivalled.

He introduces his main subject with some introductory remarks on the whole hymenopterous class, and observes at the outset that the orders into which the insect class is now divided, would, with very few amendments, coincide with a natural system. For this we are indebted to the penetrating genius of Linné, though he himself derived no small assistance from the previous labours of our illustrious countrymen, John Ray, that glory of England, Dr.

Martyn Lister, and Francis Willoughby. After tracing out the gradual improvements of the illustrious Swede in the hymenopterous class, as they appear in the successive editions of his *Systema Naturæ*, our author gives a brief view of what has since been done in it by Scopoli, Geoffroy, the Baron de Geer, Schrank, Fabricius, Gmelin, Roemer, and Latreille. He scrutinizes with a searching eye the system of Fabricius in particular, as far as relates to his immediate subject, and concurs in opinion with his friend, the author of the preceding article, that the instrumenta cibaria will not afford sufficient discriminating characters even for an artificial arrangement. He does not scruple to assert that this celebrated entomologist is inaccurate in his descriptions of the very parts on which he has founded his system, and that he frequently pays no regard to them in the construction of his species.

"It must," he concludes, "be evident that this author has committed perpetual mistakes in the genus in question. That in the arrangement of species, instead of abiding by his own character, in a class of insects in which the instrumenta cibaria are very easy to be examined, he has been led solely by habit, or rather *primâ facie* appearance: that he has done the utmost violence to nature; uniting distinct genera and families, and separating those that are most nearly related, even the sexes; placing the males in one genus, and the females in another, though both have the same oral instruments; and instead of order and true system, introducing the greatest confusion and disorder."

We have observed with concern that through the whole of this introductory essay, Mr. Kirby departs from his usual accuracy in calling the hymenopterous insects a *class*, not considering that in the *Systema Naturæ*, the insects constitute a *class* in the animal kingdom, and that its divisions are, in the language of Linnaeus, *orders*. We must approve of the term, *families*, applied to the subdivisions of the genus, and could wish that the subdivisions of the *orders*, whenever they occur, were uniformly called *sections*. We should then have a distinct appellation for every division, from the highest to the lowest.

These may be thought minute criticisms; and, connected with a work like the *Monographia Apum Angliæ*, they certainly are so: but the very excellence of the work renders them necessary. Ac-

curacy and uniformity in the use of technical terms, are always of the highest consequence in every branch of science.

The first part of the monographia consists of a *tabula synoptica nomenclaturæ partium*, with a full definition of each term in Latin, and such further observations in English as may tend to give clearer ideas of their purport and propriety. This table, with a few slight alterations, the author believes, may be made to agree with all hymenopterous insects.

The second part fixes the characters of the genera and their respective families. When Mr. Kirby first applied to this subject, he thought of denoting all the species by one generic character, but the more he studied them, the more he was convinced that they belong to two natural genera, and was confirmed in the idea, when he found that Reaumur, and after him De Geer, had adopted the same opinion, though they did not sufficiently extend the limits of the genus, which they denominated *proabeille*, or *apes minus proprie dictæ*. This Mr. Kirby has called *melitta*, the Attic dialect of *μελισσα*, the Greek name for *apis*, which itself is pre-occupied in botany. The characters which form the most striking distinctions of both, are furnished by the tongue. The essential character of *melitta* is, "*Aculeus punctorius. Lingua apice brevis, porrecta, planiuscula, vagina subcylindrica*. Of *apis*: "*Aculeus punctorius. Lingua elongata, inflexa*." Then follow artificial and natural characters of each; the whole drawn up with admirable distinctness and precision.

The account of the method which our excellent naturalist pursued in dividing his genera into families, is so truly original, and discovers such marks of superior genius, that, notwithstanding its length, we cannot resist the temptation of presenting it to our readers at large: and we are the rather inclined to select it, because, if we mistake not, it will illustrate some observations which we have already made in our review of Dr. Shaw's General Zoology.

"Having done with the generic characters of *melitta* and *apis*, I am now to proceed to the mention of those distinctions which divide them into families. In this part of my undertaking, my aim has not been so much to fix upon artificial characters, which often disunite those insects which nature has put together, but to discover whether the All



Wise Author of Nature, who is a God of order, has not subdivided these genera, and impressed certain common characters upon such subdivisions, by which one who studies his works under no influence but the love of truth, and led by the single desire of finding out his system, might be enabled to arrange them according to their natural affinities.

"My first step was to place together all those individuals, which appeared to me to agree in habit, adopting the sentiment of Linnaeus, that habit would often lend a clue to discover nature. At first, of course, I made many mistakes, often placing, as all who, with Fabricius, rely solely on habit for the arrangement of species will inevitably do, the males in one subdivision, and the females in another. By pursuing this method, however, I got my species into some order, and they were arranged, the above great mistake excepted, very nearly according to their natural affinities. I then proceeded to examine the proboscis, and external anatomy of those which were found to agree in habit, and by this method I soon arrived at their distinguishing characters, and was enabled to detect those marks, exclusive of the organs of generation, which are the constant characteristics of the males in these genera. I found that some of those insects which I had considered as belonging to distinct families, had invariably one joint more in their antennæ, and generally one segment more in their abdomen than others; that their bodies were proportionally narrower; and their antennæ and legs longer and more slender. It soon occurred to me that these were only sexual distinctions, an idea which was confirmed by pressing the anus of such as I had an opportunity of taking alive, and inspecting their genitalia. The mistake above alluded to was in this manner rectified; and, instead of confusion, lucid order now took place in my arrangement. Thus, beginning with habit, and ending with anatomy and economy; descending from generals to particulars, and then tracing back my steps from particulars to generals; using both the synthetical and analytical modes of reasoning, as mathematicians speak, by a series of observations and experiments, frequently repeated, I was enabled to trace the labyrinth of nature, and, by the assistance of this double filum Ariadneum, to establish my system upon a sure basis. I do not pretend, however, to have exhausted the subject; much will still remain to be done; and much improvement may be given to what is here attempted, by those who possess the opportunity of examining the exotic species of these two genera; but, I hope, I have opened the way for the discovery of the natural arrangement.

## FAMILIARUM S. ORDINUM SYNOPSIS.

*Melitta.*

- *Lingua obtusa.*

- a. *Lingua obtusa, apice biloba.*
- b. *Lingua obtusa, apice truncata.*
- • *Lingua acuta.*
- a. *Labio inflexo, emarginato.*
- b. *Labio apiculato, apiculula inflexa.*
- c. *Labio obtusangulo, tuberculo munito.*

*Apis.*

- *Proboscide lacinii exterioribus nullis.*
- a. *Antennis subclavatis in omni sexu.*
- b. *Antennis filiformibus in omni sexu.*
- • *Proboscide lacinii exterioribus instructa.*
- a. *Palpis exterioribus 5-articulatis. Labio subquadrato.*
- b. *Palpis exterioribus exarticulatis. Labio antice curvo.*
- c. *Labio inflexo, elongato.*
- 1. *Ventre femineo glabro.*
- a. *Abdomine femineo conico, acutissimo.*

*Familie.*

- β. *Abdomine femineo subcylindrico-obtus.*
- 2. *Ventre femineo hirsuto.*
- a. *Palpis omnibus biarticulatis.*
- β. *Palpis exterioribus exarticulatis.*
- γ. *Palpis interioribus exarticulatis.*
- δ. *Palpis exterioribus 4-articulatis.*
- d. *Proboscide recta, apice subulato-conica; palpis exterioribus 6-articulatis.*
- 1. *Lacinii interioribus involutis, exteriorum longitudine.*
- 2. *Lacinii interioribus rectis, quam exteriores brevioribus.*
- a. *Labio quadrato inermi.*
- β. *Labio emarginato, tuberculo munito.*
- c. *Proboscide subinvoluta, palpis exterioribus exarticulatis.*
- 1. *Corpore villos.*
- 2. *Corpore hirsutissimo.*

"I could have wished that there had been more connection and harmony between the characters of the different families of *apis*, and that it had been in my power to have drawn them all from variations of the same part, but this was not possible, without doing the utmost violence to nature. To make this evident to the satisfaction of the judicious naturalist, I will draw out a scheme of an artificial division of the species of this genus, in which all the characters of the family, and their subdivisions, shall be taken from the exterior and interior palpi, and he will see what confusion will be the result.

*Apis.*

- *Palpis exterioribus sexarticulatis.*
- a. *Palpis interioribus quadriarticulatis.*
- b. *Palpis interioribus biarticulatis.*
- • *Palpis exterioribus quinquearticulatis.*
- • • *Palpis exterioribus quadriarticulatis.*

- \*\*\*\* Palpis exterioribus biarticulatis.
- a. Palpis interioribus biarticulatis.
- b. Palpis interioribus exarticulatis.
- \*\*\*\*\* Palpis exterioribus exarticulatis.

"This scheme looks very fair and harmonious upon paper, but if we arrange our apes according to it, our cabinets will exhibit a scene of confusion and discord. Apis violacea and its affinities, will be separated from the bombinatrices, to which they are most nearly allied, and be placed by the side of the vespiform nomadae, which they resemble in nothing but the number of the articulations of the exterior palpi: the whole natural family distinguished by an inflected lip, will be broken up, and apis manicata and variegata, will go into the same family with the bombinatrices."

It appears to us that this division of the genus apis, founded solely on the palpi, does not bring together more discordant species than we find incongruous genera in the Linnæan orders primates and bruta, of the class mammalia, founded entirely on the structure of the teeth. In both, simplicity is the only recommendation. And we apprehend that our author's statement affords sufficient proof, that nature, excursive as she indisputably is, cannot be confined to one narrow path by the fences of artificial theory. Simplicity, it will be allowed, is a beauty, and one of nature's striking characters. But that simplicity is always combined with a boundless variety which demonstrates the infinite fulness of its great Creator; and compels every observer who is possessed of true taste and feeling, to admire and adore the consummate wisdom which, by diversified means, is continually carrying on one immense system, and advancing by just degrees, every individual work to its true perfection.

The history of the different families abounds in curious and interesting matter, partly taken from the best authorities, and partly the result of the author's personal observation. Many of these we should be tempted to extract, did the limits of our work admit. Let the following note suffice.

"I have often thought, that if gentlemen who amuse themselves with chemical experiments, would direct their attention to insects, it might lead to the discovery of some powerful medicines. The variety of strong scents which these little creatures emit, is wonderful. I remember once when I was walking with the ingenious Mr. Sowerby, we took a petiolated *sphaer*, nearly related to the *gibba* of Villars, if it be not the same, and

to the *crabo u. flavum* of Hedwig, and were much struck with the very stimulating effluvia of æther which issued from it, when slightly pressed. This insect is extremely common upon umbelliferous plants, and might, with care, be collected in considerable numbers. Few entomologists are ignorant that a delightful odour of roses is diffused by *cerambyx moschatus*; this is sometimes so copious as to fill a whole apartment. One family, when pressed between the fingers, emit a powerful, and, at the same time, agreeable odour, resembling the scent of balm, or rather dracocephalum moldavicum. Many others have a strong scent, in some approaching to that of garlic or onion. The same remark may be extended to a number of ichneumons, which emit a most powerful, but, at the same time, not very agreeable scent. A most singular mixture of the odour of spices, with something indescribably fetid, proceeds from *staphilinus brunipes*, Fab. The universal use of meloe vesicatorius, the most active of stimulants, is a sufficient and well known proof of the powerful effects which insects are capable of producing on the human frame. A circumstance which ought to encourage us to proceed further into the virtues of which they may be possessed. The ancients seem to have had recourse to more than one species in medicine, for the heliocantharus or scarabæus solaris, which was, probably, the scarabæus pilularis of Linnæus, is said to have been a remedy in quartan agues."

To these remarks we may add, that some species of *coccinella*, the well known cow lady, pressed between the fingers, and applied to the disordered part, has been lately recommended as a certain cure, or, at least, lenitive of the tooth-ache.

This part is concluded with magnified figures, and distinct explanations of the separate parts of an insect in each genus and family.

The third part is a synopsis specierum, and the fourth, which is considerably the largest, contains synonyms of authors, references to figures and English museums, detailed descriptions, sometimes of the aculeate, sometimes of the male sex, and sometimes of both in Latin, and miscellaneous observations in English. The miscellaneous observations are generally critical, but sometimes contain other interesting information.

Annexed to the *melitta nigro-ænea*, we have the following curious account,

"Upon this insect I discovered, last spring, a very singular animal, which seems appropriated to the present genus. I had

previously more than once observed upon other species, something that I took to be a kind of acarus, which appeared to be immovably fixed just at the inoculations of the dorsal segments of the abdomen: at length, finding three or four upon a specimen of *melitta nigro-anea*, I determined not to lose that opportunity of taking one off to examine and describe; but what was my astonishment, when, upon my attempting to disengage it with a pin, I drew forth from the body of the *melitta*, a white, fleshy larva, a quarter of an inch in length; the head of which I had mistaken for an acarus.

"After I had examined one specimen, I attempted to extract a second, and the reader may imagine how greatly my astonishment was increased, when, after I had drawn it out a little way, I saw its skin burst, and a head as black as ink, with large staring eyes, and antennae consisting of two branches, break forth, and move briskly from side to side. It looked like a little imp of darkness, just emerging from the infernal regions. When it was completely disengaged, and I had secured it from making its escape, I set myself to examine it as accurately as possible, and I found, after a careful inquiry, that I had not only got a non-descript, but also an insect of a new genus, whose very class seemed dubious. From its mode of life, it ought to belong to the Linnæan genus *ichneumon* in the hymenoptera; but it has neither stemmata nor four rings, and its palpi are not at all similar to those of the insects of that class. From its elytra (which, however, are placed in a very extraordinary situation, being fixed to the sides of the thorax) it ought to be a coleopterous insect, but it seems to possess but little of the general habit and character of that class: perhaps, it had better be considered as hemipterous; but till an opportunity occurs of examining more specimens, it would be rash to speak too positively on this head."

Mr. Kirby has given it the generic name *stylops*, on account of its pedunculated eyes, and has described it at large.

The work closes with excellent coloured figures of a whole insect in each of the families, with an alphabetical index of trivial names, and another of synonyms. In the index of trivial names, the Linnæan species are, very usefully, printed in capitals; those of Fabricius and others, in roman; and those which are new, in italic characters: of the latter there are one hundred and nineteen, which Mr. Kirby considers as certainly non-descript, besides a few distinguished by an asterisk, of which he has some doubt. If we may judge

from this specimen, how large a part of the entomological harvest is, as yet, ungathered, we sincerely and earnestly hope that the worthy author may have health and leisure to prosecute his researches into the other hymenopterous genera. But before we conclude the present article, we cannot avoid expressing our surprise and regret, that in a work, of which good sense, sagacious observation, and extensive views, are the predominant characters, there should be an attempt to find the traces of generic character in the etymology of a Hebrew word.

"The Hebrew name דבורה derived from דבר to speak" says our author in a note, p. 119. vol. I. "seems to direct us to the tongue for its essential character." As names in mother languages are generally significant, it is highly probable that this name was given to the bee, on account of its humming noise, and conveyed the idea of a speaking insect. But surely our first great progenitor, and all the ancient inhabitants of the world, had too little knowledge even to form an idea of an *essential character*. Those dreams of a particular class of diviners, we flattered ourselves were nearly exploded. For if the principle which they take for granted be just, and it be allowed that the Hebrew bible contains in itself a cyclopædia of science, we must apply ourselves assiduously in the investigation of its roots, instead of studying the writings of Newton, Haller, Linnæus, and their illustrious coadjutors, in order to become acquainted with the system of nature. And if we had no other clue to the knowledge of the essential characters of a horse, a bull, a sheep, &c. but what is to be sought in the primitive signification of their Hebrew names, we are inclined to think that Hutchinson himself, the Corypheus of this kind of literature, notwithstanding his hyperchemical skill of extracting almost any essence he pleased from a Hebrew root, would have been completely puzzled.

We would not willingly be thought deficient in a reverence for the sacred writings. We believe that they contain the word of God, and apply to them for direction in all matters of religious faith and practice: but we cannot conceive that they are intended to teach us philosophy. Such a purpose would not, in our estimation, be *dignus vindicæ modus*;

would not be worth the splendid apparatus of prophecy and miracle, by which the Christian faith is supported. In our temporal concerns, we are left to the wise and diligent use of our natural faculties: it is in the care of our eternal interests alone, that we are graciously directed by revelations from heaven.

Nor can we suppose that the Hebrew phrase *למינהו* in the first chapter of genesis, was intended to signify the distribution of all created species, not only into families and genera, but also into orders, classes, and kingdoms; even were we to allow that *מין* is derived from *מנה*, and that they both "imply distribution and orderly arrangement;" neither of which appears to be the case: and in this opinion we have the sanction of the best lexicographers and critics. Adam, as the creature of God, must

have been created free from moral pravity; but it does not follow that he must have been possessed of universal science; and whatever consequences we may attribute to the fall, he, surely, lost no part of his former knowledge by his transgression.

We trust that the excellent author of the work before us, will not impute these animadversions to a want of candour. We have as high an opinion of his moral and religious character, as we have of his intellectual abilities: we esteem him more for his piety, than for his other attainments; and rejoice to find that our English naturalists, in general, do not separate the Creator from the work,

"But look thro' nature up to nature's God."

ART. XI. *Prodromus Lepidopterorum Britannicorum. By a Fellow of the Linnæan Society. 4to.*

WE cannot but welcome the forerunner of another systematic arrangement of a separate order of British insects. While Mr. Marsham has been employed on the coleoptera, and Mr. Kirby on a single Linnæan genus of the hymenoptera, a fellow of the Linnæan society, who withholds his name from the public, but appears to reside at or near Holt, in Norfolk, has been "endeavouring to establish a standard, permanent and complete collection, with a view to a new arrangement and complete account of the Lepidoptera Britannica." And, as he informs us in his preface, he has had the pleasure of seeing his favourite design rapidly advance. A small and very select circle of entomological amateurs have formed themselves into an Aurelian society, and, with a public spirit worthy of imitation, have agreed to give up from their respective collections to one cabinet, every lepidopterous insect which it did not before possess. It is already furnished with upwards of 1100 species, and above 500 strong varieties, many of which will, probably, on future investigation, prove distinct species.

The plan is well conceived, and we earnestly wish that similar ones were formed in different parts of the kingdom; each taking a different department, till all the orders of the last two Linnæan classes shall be completely in-

vestigated. The intended Lepidoptera Britannica is to specify, with accuracy, the time and place of appearance of these insects in the winged state. A specimen of this part of the design is given in the prodromus, to facilitate the discovery of them by different entomologists, and thereby to hasten the completion of the cabinet. And we flatter ourselves that the zeal and researches of the members will not stop here. When these leading circumstances are well ascertained, a road will be open to the investigation of the peculiar habits, food, and every thing beside which is connected with the natural history of the animal: and we may hope to see monographs, similar to that by Mr. Clark on the genus *œstrus*, in the third volume of the Linnæan transactions; and those by the late Mr. Curtis, on the brown-tailed moth and the genus *aphis*, the first published in a separate pamphlet, 1782, and the last in the sixth volume of the Linnæan transactions. When a considerable progress of this kind is made, then, and not till then, will be the time to form a philosophical arrangement, on the true principles of nature, all the parts of which shall reflect light on each other, and all illustrate the perfection of the plan which existed in the divine mind, when the entire matter of this terrestrial globe was an indigested chaos without form and void. In the mean

time, we are glad to perceive that our author has made no material change in the genera of Linnæus and their respective families. The changes which actually appear, are little more than in name.

The genus *papilio* is unaltered, and its families are precisely those of Linnæus, as far as the British species extend.

The four Linnæan families of *sphinx*, as they stand in the twelfth edition of the *Systema*, are exchanged for the *legitimæ*, *sesiæ*, and *zyganæ* of Gmelin.

The genus *phalæna* is, indeed, divided into nine; but the difference is more in the form than the matter. The Linnæan families are promoted to the rank of genera, but, for the most part, still retain their ancient names. *Bombyx* includes the *attaci* and *bombyces* of Linnæus, which had already been united by Gmelin. Its generic character, as here determined, is, "*Antennæ masculinæ plerumque valde pectinatæ. Corpus sæpissime crassum. Larva non geometra.*"

*Noctua* is divided into two; the elinques of Linnæus being separated from it and formed into the genus *hepialus*. The generic character of *noctua*, as it now stands, is, "*Antennæ, oculo inarmato, setacæ. Corpus plerumque cras-*

*sum. Larva non geometra.*" Of *hepialus*, "*Antennæ thoracæ breviores. Alæ omnes sublancoolatæ. Corpus crassum. Larva subterranea, non geometra.*"

*Geometra* is also divided into two, the first two families called *geometra*. "*Antennæ masculinæ pectinatæ. Larva geometra. Corpus rarissime crassum.*" The last two called, *phalæna*; "*Antennæ, oculo inarmato, setacæ. Corpus semper gracile. Larva geometra.*"

The families *pyralis*, *tortrix*, *tinæa*, and *alucita*, are only advanced in dignity, without any further alteration.

Linnæus, in some measure to relieve the memory in so large a genus, had distinguished several of the families by a peculiar termination of the trivial name. Our author, in concurrence with the opinion of his friends, has extended this mode of discrimination to all the Linnæan *phalænæ*: but as far as we can perceive, without any real advantage. Had the genus remained united, such a distinction would, indeed, have been of manifest use. It would have contributed to conciseness, by pointing out the particular family without making it necessary to add the family name. But as they are now separate genera, the name of the genus will convey all the information that is needed, without the aid of peculiar terminations.

ART. XII. *The Works, in Natural History, of the late Rev. Gilbert White, M.A.*  
2 Vols. 8vo.

THE character attributed to our English naturalists at the close of the last article, will apply in an eminent degree to the amiable author before us. The late Rev. Mr. White was a man of a calm, philosophic turn of mind, fond of rural scenes, and attentive to every natural appearance around him. Averse to the busy scenes of public life, he had nothing to divert him from a tranquil contemplation of the visible creation, and a pious admiration of the divine power, wisdom, and benevolence displayed in all its parts. In his daily walks and rides nothing escaped him, or seemed too minute to merit a remembrance. Unambitious of literary fame, he was not solicitous to reduce his observations to a regular systematic form. Favoured with the acquaintance of two eminent naturalists, Mr. Pennant and the Hon. Daines Barrington, he communicated to them, from time to time, such incidents

as offered themselves to his notice in his usual excursions. These he related with all the ease of epistolary intercourse, with a native simplicity of manner, and attic elegance, which would have induced us to call him the English Xenophon, if Xenophon had written a natural history. And in this form they were published in the author's life-time, in the year 1789, under the title of the *Natural History and Antiquities of Selborne*. The antiquities have chiefly a local value; but the natural history may be considered as appertaining to nearly all the southern part of England. On this account it is now republished, separately from the *Antiquities*, with the addition of some more extracts, from Mr. White's manuscript papers, selected and arranged under the judicious direction of Dr. Aikin. The additions consist of the naturalist's calendar from the year 1768 to 1793, with a collateral one by Mr.



Markwick, taken near Battle in Sussex; and of observations on various parts of nature. The comparative calendars are curious, but would have been more so, if they had been formed in more distant parts of the kingdom. The observations are nothing more than brief minutes, written down without premeditation, when the first impression was fresh and vivid; but they are by no means to be slighted because they have not been wrought into one finished piece, and polished with laborious attention. They are not the sweepings of a common mechanic's shop; Mr. White was an artist employed on the nobler metals, and no one would be willing to lose a single particle of his scattered dust. Every lover of nature will acknowledge his obligation to the editor for furnishing him with a miscellany, equally amusing and instructive, which contains the largest collection of *original* observations on the manners of the animal creation, that is extant in our language.

"Faunists, as you observe," says the author, in one of his letters to Mr. Pennant, "are too apt to acquiesce in bare description, and a few synonyms. The reason is plain; because all that may be done at home in a man's own study; but the investigation of the life and conversation of animals, is a concern of much more trouble and difficulty, and is not to be attained but by the attentive and inquisitive, and by those that reside much in the country."

Mr. White was no sedentary naturalist; his studies were in the open air, and occupied his hours of amusement, as well as of serious business. He attentively observed, and carefully registered every appearance, whether in the mineral, vegetable, or animal kingdom, as it occurred to his notice; but though he did not suffer any mineralogical or botanical fact to pass disregarded, ornithology was his favourite pursuit. His accounts of the haunts, manners, and other distinguishing characteristics of the birds, which either frequented or occasionally visited his native parish and its neighbourhood, are minute, exact, and extensive. His natural history of the English Hirundines in particular, which had been published in the Philosophical Transactions, before its appearance in the history of Selborne, is peculiarly full and masterly.

Where all is so excellent it is difficult to make a selection: and as the infor-

mation concerning any single subject is, for the most part, scattered in distant passages, and mingled with other matter, it would require some time and patience to bring it into one view. We had begun an arrangement of the whole, but we soon found it would be extended to too great a length, and a mere systematic index would be of no use to those who do not possess the book. Such an index should by all means have been given by the proprietor of the copy. That which is actually annexed is very imperfect and unsatisfactory. Under the word *Caprimulgus*, for instance, we are referred only to p. 160 of the first volume; but a much more copious account may be found in two other places. These we shall connect together as a specimen of the author's manner.

"There is no bird, I believe, whose manners I have studied more than that of the *Caprimulgus*, (the goat-sucker) as it is a wonderful and curious creature; but I have always found, that though sometimes it may chatter as it flies, as I know it does, yet in general it utters its jarring note sitting on a bough; and I have for many an half-hour watched it as it sat with its under mandible quivering, and particularly this summer. It perches usually on a bare twig, with its head lower than its tail, in an attitude well expressed by your (Mr. Pennant) draughtsman in the folio British Zoology. This bird is most punctual in beginning its song exactly at the close of day; so exactly that I have known it strike up more than once or twice, just at the report of the Portsmouth evening gun, which we can hear when the weather is still. It appears to me past all doubt, that its notes are formed by organic impulse, by the power of the parts of its windpipe formed for sound, just as cats purr. You will credit me, I hope, when I assure you that, as my neighbours were assembled in an hermitage, on the side of a steep hill, where we drink tea, one of these churn-owls came and settled on the cross of that little straw edifice, and began to chatter, and continued his note for many minutes; and we were all struck with wonder to find that the organ of that little animal, when put in motion, gave a sensible vibration to the whole building! This bird also sometimes makes a small squeak, repeated four or five times; and I have observed that to happen when the cock has been pursuing the hen in a toying way, through the boughs of a tree.—On the 12th of July I had a fair opportunity of contemplating the motions of the *Caprimulgus*, or fern-owl, as it was playing round a large oak that swarmed with scarabæi solstitialis, or fern-chafers; the powers of its wing were wonderful, exceeding, if possible, the various

evolutions and quick turns of the swallow genus. But the circumstance that pleased us most was, that I saw it distinctly, more than once, put out its short leg while on the wing, and by a bend of the head deliver somewhat into its mouth. If it takes any part of its prey with its foot, as I have now the greatest reason to suppose it does these chaffers, I no longer wonder at the use of its middle toe, which is curiously furnished with a serrated claw.—The country people have a notion that the fern-owl, or charm-owl, or eve-jar, which they also call a puckeridge, is very injurious to weanling calves, by inflicting, as it strikes at them, the fatal distemper known to cow-leeches by the name of puckeridge. Thus does this harmless, ill-fated bird fall under a double imputation, which it by no means deserves: in Italy, of sucking the teats of goats, hence it is called *caprimulgus*: and with us, of communicating a deadly disorder to cattle. The least observation and attention would convince men that these birds neither injure the goatherd, nor the grazier, but are perfectly harmless, and subsist alone, being night-birds, on night-insects, such as scarabæi and phalænæ; and through the month of July, mostly on the scarabæus solstitialis, which, in many districts, abounds at that season. Those that we have opened have always had their craws stuffed with large night-moths and their eggs, and pieces of chaffers; nor does it anywise appear how they can, weak and unarmed as they seem, inflict any harm upon kine, unless they possess the power of animal magnetism, and can affect them by fluttering over them.

"A fern-owl this evening, (Aug. 27) showed off in a very unusual and entertaining manner, by hawking round and round the circumference of my great spreading oak for twenty times following, keeping mostly close to the grass, but occasionally glancing up amidst the boughs of the tree. This amusing bird was then in pursuit of a brood of some particular phalænæ belong-

ing to the oak, of which there are several sorts.

"When a person approaches the haunt of a fern-owl in an evening, they continue flying round the head of the obtruder; and by striking their wings together above their backs, in the manner that the pigeons, called smiters, are known to do, make a smart snap: perhaps at that time they are jealous for their young, and their noise and gesture are intended by way of menace.

"Fern-owls have an attachment to oaks, no doubt on account of food, for the next evening we saw one again several times among the boughs of the same tree, but it did not skim round its stem over the grass as on the evening before. In May, these birds find the scarabæus melolontha on the oak; and the scarabæus solstitialis at Midsummer. These peculiar birds can only be watched and observed for two hours in the twenty-four, and then in a dubious twilight, an hour after sun-set, and an hour before sun-rise.

"On this day, (July 14, 1789) a woman brought me two eggs of a fern-owl, which she found under a beechen shrub. This person seems well acquainted with these nocturnal swallows, and says she has often found their eggs near that place, and that they lay only two at a time on the bare ground. The eggs were oblong, dusky, and streaked, somewhat in the manner of the plumage of the parent bird, and are equal in size at each end. The dam was sitting on the eggs when found, which contained the rudiments of young, and would have been hatched perhaps in a week. From hence we may see the time of their breeding, which corresponds pretty well with that of the swift, as does also the period of their arrival. Each species is usually seen about the beginning of May. Each breeds but once in a summer, and each lays only two eggs.—Fern-owls, like snipes, stone-curlews, and some other birds, make no nest. Birds that build on the ground do not make much of nests."

ART. XIII. *Animal Biography, or Anecdotes of the Lives, Manners, and Economy, of the Animal Creation, arranged according to the System of Linnæus.* By WILLIAM BINGLEY, B. A. F. L. S. 8vo. 3 Vols.

THE technical terms, and dry descriptions which constitute a considerable part of most books on natural history, have always been the dread of the young, and of all others who read chiefly for amusement. They are, however, of indispensable use to such as wish to become proficient in the study. The accuracy of the describing naturalist is laudably employed in a patient comparison of extreme forms, and a detailed enumeration of particular parts. This is absolutely necessary to identify species, and to prevent distant observers from

misleading each other by speaking of different animals under the same name. But this is only the skeleton of the science; something more is wanting to give it the muscular form and swelling outline which are essential to beauty: and after all it must receive its finishing graces of life and motion from the Promethean touch of heaven-inspired genius. The real animal must be placed before the eyes of the reader, acting without restraint, passing through the different stages of its being, and performing all the functions suggested by its

wants, and conducive to its enjoyment. For this purpose a compleat collection must be previously made of all that relates to the subject, in authors of every kind, ancient and modern; and it may, perhaps, be desirable that in the first sketch every thing should be admitted, whether good, bad, or indifferent. For that which seems improbable, or even absurd, on a superficial view, when better understood, and viewed in connection with its various analogies, may be found to coalesce with other parts of the general system; and to illustrate, instead of appearing to impeach the wisdom and goodness of the great Creator. Not a hint should be passed over as worthless or unimportant; for however inconsiderable it may be thought in its insulated situation, it may lead to interesting investigations and comprehensive conclusions, when combined with others of a kindred nature, and surveyed in all its relations and tendencies. A cautious and penetrating judgment is, indeed, always to be exercised, and no small discernment will be requisite to separate, in all cases, the true from the false; but in the midst of a universe, where new occasions of admiration and astonishment are continually occurring, it may be doubted whether the greatest danger of error be not rather on the side of unbelief than of credulity. It will finally be the office of true genius to calculate probabilities, adjust differences, and seize the particulars which are most characteristic and proper.

When such an ample collection has been formed, purified, and reduced to regular order, an important step will be gained towards a philosophical natural history; but before the grand work can be compleated, naturalists of every country must devote their chief attention to the indigenous animals which they have the means of observing in their natural state, of pursuing through all their haunts, and of studying in all their operations from their parental origin to their final decay. The continual labour, or to speak with greater propriety, the daily amusements of the excellent author of the preceding article, afford nearly a perfect example of successful application to this higher branch of natural inquiry; and if there were but a few such in every part of Europe, what improvements would the course of a century produce! how much would the progress of true philosophy be accelerated! and

what an elevated rank would the science of natural history then occupy amidst the numerous attainments of the human mind!

The animal biography of Mr. Bingley, though written, as we conceive, chiefly with a view to the entertainment and instruction of the younger and more desultory reader, will not be appreciated according to its just value, if it be not esteemed a link of this great progressive chain. His object has been to extract from the writings of travellers, and from professed systems of natural history, whatever relates to the lives, manners, and general economy of the different orders of the animal kingdom, as they are arranged in the Linnæan system; and as far as the sources of his information have extended, his diligence has been unwearied. He has, indeed, left much to be done: the works of Pallas, of Sonini, and of almost all the foreign travellers which have not been translated into our own language, he has left untouched; but there are few English publications which he has not carefully examined. Not possessing the station of an original observer, he aspires only to the praise of a compiler, and has in many cases been compelled to depend on the testimony of persons who were either incompetent judges, or had no opportunity of compleat investigation; or have mentioned the subject only in an incidental manner, without intending to give it a full discussion. But though his work must be considered as a first essay, which admits of farther improvement, he has brought together a greater number of facts than is any where else to be found; and has made a present equally acceptable to the novice, and to the experienced naturalist.

As he has sometimes made use of his own, and sometimes of his author's language, uniformity of style and composition cannot be expected. When he speaks in his own person, his language, though not polished, is generally perspicuous and pure; with the exception of almost the constant use of the present tense of the transitive verb *lay*, instead of the intransitive *lie*, a grammatical impropriety not uncommon in colloquial discourse, but not to be excused in a graduated member of an English university.

In a work of so mixed a nature, extracted at different times from so great a variety of writers, some omissions, errors, and even slight inconsistencies,

were scarcely to be avoided, and are entitled to candid allowance; as we are persuaded from its popular form, its general good sense, and above all its excellent, moral, and religious tendency, that it will be often reprinted, and become a standard book in the higher order of schools, we shall point out a few which have occurred to us in the perusal, and are confident that, instead of exciting the displeasure, we shall obtain the thanks of the liberal minded author.

In p. 267, we are told, "that the lion is supposed to be destitute of scent, and to hunt only by the eye;" and yet, in p. 259, we have an account from Sparman, of a lion hunting a man, *by the scent*, to within 300 yards of his own house, after his fortunate escape from a tree-aloe, to which he had fled for refuge, and which he had taken an opportunity to leave when the lion, which had besieged him for four-and-twenty hours, was gone to drink at a distant spring.

In common with Buffon, and other naturalists of his time, Mr. Bingley describes the camel as having, independent of the four stomachs belonging to all ruminant animals, a fifth bag, which serves for a reservoir for holding water, and is capable of containing a very large quantity of that necessary element. Dr. Shaw, in combating the wild idea of Buffon, that this supposed fifth stomach is an accidental distension, and not an intended convenience in the original conformation of the animal, hints, and barely hints, at the real manner in which this patient traveller of the sandy desert is enabled to lay in a reserve for its future wants, when he says, that the stomach is furnished with a peculiar apparatus of cells or receptacles, for containing a great quantity of water; but by immediately subjoining a long quotation from Buffon, in which this imaginary reservoir is particularly described, he has rather contributed to perpetuate than to discountenance the general idea. If Mr. Bingley had attended to the notes annexed to the second volume of Dr. Russel's *Natural History of Aleppo*, he would have found the real structure of the camel, in this respect, distinctly explained, on the authority of Mr. Home, brother-in-law to the celebrated anatomist, Mr. John Hunter.

"It appears," says Mr. Home, "from the preparation which is in Mr. Hunter's collection, that the number of stomachs is found

to be four, as in other ruminant animals; it therefore cannot be said that there is a distinct reservoir for water; but the second stomach has a very peculiar structure, being made of numerous cells several inches deep, with their mouths uppermost, and orifices apparently capable of muscular contraction. When the animal drinks, it probably has a power of directing the water into these cells, instead of letting it pass into the first stomach, and when these are filled the rest of the water will go into the first stomach. In this manner a quantity of water may be kept separate from the food, serving occasionally to moisten it in the passage to the fourth or true stomach. Daubenton, upon dissection, meeting with water in the second stomach, seems to confirm the above conjecture."

In the account of the giraffe, Mr. Bingley, by some strange confusion of ideas, informs us, that of this genus but one species is known, and that this species consists only of a single individual. We have listened with wonder in our boyish years to the tale of the solitary phoenix; but that extraordinary bird is lost to the world in these degenerate days, and we did not imagine that in our old age we should meet with another animal to supply its place.

The goat is represented as differing from the sheep, in being covered with hair instead of wool, from a want of recollection that, in the more northern regions, the sheep is covered with hair in addition to its wool; that, in the torrid zone, it has hair without wool; and that its coat is pure wool only in temperate climates.

The ancient opinion, that both the upper and lower jaws of the crocodile are moveable, first propagated by Aristotle, and copied from him by the older modern naturalists, has been retained by Mr. Bingley, though the error has been detected from the time of Dr. Grew, and is rectified in the late works of Dr. Shaw, and the Count de la Cépède.

The *furia infernalis*, a formidable minute animal, known only in the marshes of Bothnia and Finland, appears to be confounded with the Guinea-worm, the *gordius-medinensis* of Linné, and the *filaria-medinensis* of Gmelin, which is frequent in the morning dew of the East and West Indies.

These are mistakes which the author will, doubtless, correct in a future edition: we could have added a few more of less consequence, but we have already extended this article to a sufficient length.

The omissions are much more numerous. We will only remark that the bactrian, or two-humped camel, and the goat-sucker, are not mentioned, though the former is described in the most common authors, and the manners of the latter are particularly delineated in the works of Mr. Gilbert White, of which Mr. Bingley, with great propriety, has made liberal use; and will observe, on the whole, that the work would be much more valuable if every species in the class mammalia were briefly described, and its distinguishing habits, when known, pointed out; and if at least one species of every genus in the other classes were introduced to the knowledge of the reader.

Although all regard to system has by no means been discarded, there seems to have been an ill-judged desire to have the appearance of it. The intimation of the beginning of a new order is thrown, with the synonyms, into the bottom margin, and printed in a character which will be easily overlooked by those who read with rapidity. In our opinion, regular arrangement should always constitute a prominent feature of every work intended for the instruction of the young. It may be necessary to strew the path with flowers, and to allure them by whatever can gratify their imagination, but they should be accustomed to associate with it those strict and decided lines of descri-

mination, which will at present exercise their judgment, and assist their memory; and will also give them a turn for further investigation, and enable them hereafter to repay the debt they have contracted, by adding something to the general stock of observation and discovery.

We cannot resist the inclination to present to our readers, before we conclude, the account of a peculiarity in the structure of the foot of the lion, taken from the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, which is not mentioned by Pennant, Shaw, or, as far as we recollect, by any other English author.

"The claws are retractile, not into sheaths, but only between the toes, by means of a particular articulation of the last joint; the last bone but one, by bending itself outwards, gives place to the last, which is only articulated to it, and to which the claw is fastened, so as to bend itself upwards, and sideways, more easily than downwards; so that the bone which is at the end of every toe, being almost continually bent upwards, it is not the end of the toes that rests upon the ground, but the node of the articulation of the two last bones; and thus in walking the claws remain elevated and retracted between the toes, those of the right paws towards the right, and those of the left towards the left side of the toes. This admirable structure is not found in the great toe, whose last joint bends only downwards, because this toe does not naturally rest upon the ground, being considerably shorter than the others."

#### ART. XIV. *Transactions of the Linnean Soc'y.* Vol. 6. 4to. Plates xxxi.

THE institution of the Linnean society was an event highly favourable to the advancement of natural knowledge. For though papers on natural history have always been readily admitted into the Transactions of the Royal Society, they were only a small part of the whole, and were, perhaps, considered by many of the members, as holding only a subordinate rank. They were occasionally sent by such as happened to have any new discovery to communicate, but no one felt any strong inducement to engage with activity and ardour in the pursuit of further improvement. A society expressly formed for the purpose, uniting together by a common band the friends of natural researches, could not fail to increase their diligence, and to excite them to enquiries, which they might not otherwise have attempted. Of this the five volumes, which have been

formerly published by the Linnean Society, are a convincing proof; and the present is by no means inferior to its predecessors: it is particularly rich in those parts of zoology which stand most in need of illustration. It contains one paper on ornithology, six on entomology, and one on conchology.

#### ORNITHOLOGY.

*Description of Menura Superba, a Bird of New South Wales.* By Major General THOMAS DAVIES, F. R. S. and L. S.

17. This singular and beautiful bird resembles, in some respect, a bird of Paradise, but does not properly come under that or any other Linnean genus. It appears in the present paper with the following generic character. *Rosculum validiusculum, concavo-convexum. Nares ovatae in medio rostri. Rectrices elongatae;*



pinnulis decompositis; intermediæ 2 longiores angustæ; exteriores ad apicem patulæ, revolutæ. Then follows a detailed description in English, of the male and female, accompanied by a coloured figure. Being found in the hilly part of the country, it is called, by the English settlers, the mountain pheasant. Its food and manners are as yet unknown.

## ENTOMOLOGY.

1. *A Dissertation on two natural Genera, hitherto confounded under the Name of Mantis. By Anthony Augustus Henry Lichtenstein, D. D. F. M. L. S. Translated from the German. By THOMAS YOUNG, M. D. F. R. S. and L. S.*

The genus mantis, as formed by Linnæus, consists of insects distinct from each other in their mode of life, and most important characters. Part live entirely on vegetable food; lay their eggs like grasshoppers in the earth, the females being furnished with a small style or instrument for depositing them; and beside other peculiarities in their conformation, have six feet all formed for running: others confine themselves to food taken from the animal creation, the two foremost of their feet having falci-form hands, which serve them to catch, and carry to their mouth, flies and other insects; they also never lay their eggs in the earth, but fix them on a twig, straw, or blade of grass, in rows and regular masses.

These capital circumstances, independent of minuter differences, are a sufficient indication that they are designed by the Author of Nature to form a distinct genera. Dr. Lichtenstein, attached to the system of Fabricius, forms their artificial characters from the *palpi*, *labium*, and *antennæ*, passing over the shape of the two fore-feet, which has so obvious an influence on their mode of life, and which must necessarily form the most prominent feature in their natural history. These, however, as well as all the other parts, are described with great distinctness in the natural character, placed in the lower margin. The former genus, which does not correspond with the Linnæan character of mantis, is distinguished by the appellation, *Phasma*, or *Spectre*; for the latter or legitimate mantis, the original name is preserved.

Our author describes 25 phasmata, and 43 mantes, in all 68 species. Fabricius, in the united genera, has 51. But Dr. Lichtenstein observes, that he has added more than 17 species, having omitted some mentioned by Fabricius, whose descriptions, though very good and correct, are frequently insufficient to determine to which family a species belongs.

Coloured plates are given of the lecticum, ohrtmanni, and filum, which are new species, and also of the filiforme.

4. *Observations on Aphides, chiefly intended to show that they are the principal Cause of Blights in Plants, and the sole Cause of the Honey Dew. By the late Mr. WILLIAM CURTIS, F. L. S.*

This is a very curious and entertaining paper. Few persons are unacquainted with that glutinous sweet substance which is found upon the leaves of various trees, in the summer season; and which, as it is sometimes produced in considerable quantities, in the course of a single night, has been supposed to fall from the air. Hence it has been called the honey-dew, and, in some parts of England, the honey-fall. But so little has the real nature and cause been known to the best naturalists, that even Mr. White of Selborne, entertained the unphilosophical idea, of its being the effluvia of flowers drawn up by a brisk evaporation in a hot day, and when condensed by the cold of the night, falling down with the dews. Others have supposed it to be an exudation from the leaves, owing to the plants being in a sickly state. Mr. Curtis, studying the manners of the aphid salicis, one of the largest species of British aphides, observed, that they voided a transparent substance, which, when applied to his tongue, he found sweet as sugar. This led him to suspect that the honey-dew is no other than this excrementitious substance: and upon considering the circumstances with which the honey-dew is always attended, he was confirmed in the opinion. It is never found but upon some plant infested with aphides: it appears on plants in stoves or greenhouses, covered from the external air by glass: and is scattered irregularly over a plant, exactly as it must be, if it proceeds from insects scattered in the same irregular manner.

This statement we are enabled to confirm in consequence of observations made by ourselves in the course of the last summer. We had frequent opportunities of seeing the excrement voided by the aphidæ fagi, and by a black species which abounds almost every year on the *evonymus europæus*. We witnessed its daily increase, and uniformly found that there was no considerable honey-dew upon any particular tree of a young beech hedge, till three or four days after aphides had begun to appear upon it.

The aphides are so minute that they would escape the notice of the superficial observer, if it were not for their crowded numbers, and the depredations which they make upon the leaves of the plants which they inhabit. They live entirely upon vegetables, and chiefly prefer the tender leaves: these they pierce with their hollow pointed proboscis or trunk, and extract from them the juices which are essential to vegetable life. They have excited the attention of the philosophic world more than half a century, on account of a singularity in the mode of propagating their species, first discovered by Mons. Trembley, and published in a letter to Mons. Bonnet. It appears from the accounts of these eminent naturalists, that they are not only viviparous or oviparous, according to the season of the year, but also that a single impregnation from the male is sufficient to produce several successive generations, which are all females, and all fertile by parental transmission, and that the males proceed from eggs laid by the last autumnal generation to be hatched in the spring, for the purpose of continuing the species. This Mr. Curtis was not able to verify from his own experience: but though he attended much to them, and observed them at very different times, he never once observed any appearance of sexual intercourse.

The mischief which they do to many valuable cultivated plants, would be much greater than it is, if their numbers were not thinned by the several species of *coccinella*, the *musca aphidivora*, *ichneumon aphidum*, *hemerobius*, *forficula*, and the small soft-billed birds. Their saccharine excrement affords sustenance to wasps, ants, and other insects, without number. On this subject there is a contradiction in the accounts of

Mr. Curtis and Mr. White, which we should not have expected from such careful observers; the former of whom says, that though wasps are so partial to this food, bees seem totally to disregard it; the latter, that this clammy substance is very grateful to bees, who gather it with great assiduity.

It is peculiar to the species of aphidæ, chermes, and coccus, to have their habitations and general manners better known than their external specific characters, Linnæus having, for the most part, satisfied himself with mentioning the plants on which they feed; a circumstance not sufficient to point them out with exactness, since sometimes one species feeds on different plants, and sometimes more than one species are found on the same plant. Mr. Curtis asserts, that a close attention to them will disclose more distinctive characters than most naturalists are aware of.

The paper is illustrated with a coloured plate of the aphidæ salicis on a branch of the *salix viminalis*.

11. *Observations on the Curculio Trifolii, or Clover Weevil, a small Insect which infests the Heads of the cultivated Clover, and destroys the Seed. In a Letter to Thomas Marsham, Esq. F. L. S. By WILLIAM MARKWICK, Esq. F. L. S. With additional Remarks by Mr. MARSHAM.*
12. *Farther Observations on the Curculio Trifolii. In a Letter to William Markwick, Esq. F. L. S. By MARTIN CHRISTIAN GOTTLIEB LEHMANN, M. A. of Gottingen.*

The larva of this newly discovered insect is exactly similar to the nut maggot in shape and colour, only much smaller; having a white body, black head, and three white scales or prominences on each side, to supply the place of legs. It is hatched between the calyces of the trifolium pratense, penetrates with its head through the bottom, into the rudiments of the seed, as yet in a liquid state; and then proceeds to another more advanced, and suitable to its increased strength. Having consumed three or four, it remains in the place of the last, changes to a small white chrysalis, and, after a few days, comes forth in its perfect state, a small blackish weevil with a long beak, whitish belly, and yellow legs. Having taken a short meal, it conceals itself in the small holes of fences, or in the bark of

trees, where it reposes during the winter, sufficiently protected from its numerous enemies. The fecundity of this apparently insignificant insect is so prodigious, and its ravages so destructive, that its maggots destroyed a whole field of clover, which the year before produced seventy pounds of seed.

Figures of the larva, the chrysalis, and the weevil, are given in their natural size and magnified.

16. *Descriptions of some singular Coleopterous Insects.* By CHARLES SCHRIEBERS, M. D. Deputy Professor of Natural History in the University of Vienna.

These insects are all from New Holland, that abundant magazine of nondescripts. The descriptions are drawn up with great precision and minuteness, but do not admit of abridgment.

19. *Observations on several Species of the Genus Apis, known by the Name of Humble Bees, and called Bombinatrices by Linnæus.* By Mr. O. HUBER, of Lausanne, in Switzerland.

The *apis melifica*, or common hive bee, has long excited the attention of mankind in general, as well as of the professed naturalist, on account of its wonderful œconomy and extensive usefulness. The other species of this singular genus, though less complex in their operations, and less exact in their productions, are, nevertheless, highly curious and interesting. They afford a beautiful instance of that boundless variety which diversifies the general uniformity of nature, and give us an opportunity of observing by what different means the same great leading purposes are effectually promoted in the administration of the universe. The manners of the particular family, called bombinatrices by Linnæus, and known in England by the name of humble bees, have been detailed by Reaumur. But that great entomologist did not exhaust the subject, nor is he entirely free from the charge of error. We are here favoured with the observations of a young foreigner, who, when he addressed the Linnæan Society, was only nineteen years of age, and whose ardour of mind, patience of investigation, and acuteness of discernment, are flattering earnestness of future eminence. In this long paper, which is written in the French language,

we have the result of his own observations, continued from day to day, and founded on a series of well-devised experiments.

The humble bees have been hitherto separated from the other families of the genus chiefly by the length and number of their hairs: but these characters, as well as that of colour, are too fugitive and variable in the same species, to afford solid marks of difference. According to our author's observation, the humble bee differs from the other bees in the shape of the head, which, in the latter, is broader than long, or, at least, never longer than it is broad; whereas in the former its length always exceeds its breadth.

The males, females, and working bees, of the same species, are sometimes so dissimilar in appearance, that their species is to be known with certainty only by observing them together in the same nest, during the months of August and September. The males may be distinguished from the females by their inferior size; by their want of a sting; by their antennæ, which in the male has thirteen articulations, and are always longer than the head; in the female are only eleven, and not longer than the head: by the segments of the abdomen, which in the male are seven, in the female six; by the form of the fifth articulation of the hinder legs, which in the female and working bee is triangular, furnished with numerous long, stiff, diverging hairs, and forming a kind of basket to hold the pollen which they collect from the stamens of flowers; whereas the male not being destined to this service, has this articulation more slender, and furnished with fewer and weaker hairs: by the form of the mandibles, which in the female and working bees are a line in length, somewhat in the shape of a spoon, toothed at one edge, and formed to cut and raise the wax, and to break off the bits of moss and grass, of which they make the roof of their nests, in the males are flat and slender, embarrassed with a beard, and not sufficiently sharp for these purposes: lastly, by the trunk, which in the males is shorter, and its membranous or fleshy part less hairy than in the females. Mr. Huber gives descriptions at large of seven species found in the neighbourhood of Lausanne, with coloured figures, distinguishing the female, male, and

working bee, of each, by their respective characters; and adds the male and female of an eighth, which he observed actually coupled, and which are so unlike, that he should otherwise have taken them for distinct species; the working bee of these he unfortunately neglected to describe, and as he has never found them since, he has not been able to illustrate them by a figure. These all make their nests in the earth, except one, the *apis muscorum*, which places its nest under a covering of moss, and raises it five or six inches above the surface.

In the spring the female is a solitary insect, and may be seen flying about from place to place, apparently more occupied in seeking out a proper habitation for her future offspring, than in gathering honey. When she has found, and, perhaps, sometimes shaped to her convenience, a suitable cavity, her first operation must be to produce a quantity of wax, for which she is endowed by nature with greater powers than are possessed by the working bees, she must then form it into a cell, must deposit in it a stock of pollen for the first nourishment of her young, and then lay her eggs, and wait the developement and encrease of her first progeny, till they become able to assist her in enlarging the nest, and providing for a more numerous family. Of these early operations our author has never had the good fortune to be an eye witness, but he once discovered a nest inhabited only by three perfect individuals, the female and two working bees: the whole nest consisted of eight cells, of which two in the middle were open, and the rest entirely closed: by the side of them lay two masses of wax which had contained the eggs, and the worms in their first state.

In the month of June, a nest exposed to the light of day, presents an envelope of wax, neither so delicate, so white, so firm, nor so fusible, as that of the common hive bee. When this envelope is removed, there appear numerous yellowish oval bodies, grouped together in different masses, placed horizontally side by side, and connected by slight junctures of wax, the whole forming a kind of layer, convex on the upper, and concave on the lower surface. Several of these layers are placed one upon another, supported by the summits of the

higher oval bodies beneath, and bound together by pillars of wax two or three lines long.

These oval bodies are cocoons of strong well agglutinated silk, and contain the nymph or larvæ just on the point of being transformed into perfect insects.

Above the upper layer are placed some irregular masses of wax, in which is sometimes found a great quantity of pollen, moistened with honey to the consistence of paste, with numerous small worms feeding upon it; for the wax itself is not designed to be the food of the insect, as Swammerdam and Reaumur thought, but to preserve them from cold, moisture, and other hurtful accidents.

Besides these, small vessels, filled with honey, are placed in all the void spaces of the comb, and especially in the middle.

The wax is the first stone of the edifice, the cradle of the whole family, the cement of all their combs, and the only matter which they are able to knead into a tenacious mass. Mons. Reaumur confounded it with pollen, and supposed it produced by the bees from that substance. It is, however, totally different. Bees fed with pollen produce no wax; but as soon as they are fed with honey, or moistened sugar, they immediately begin to collect it, with the brushes of their feet, from the hollows between the segments of their abdomen. It seems to be instantaneously elaborated in their stomachs, from the saccharine part of the honey, and as instantaneously exuded from their bodies.

For some time the nest is inhabited only by the mother female, and the working bees. The female is then busily employed in forming cells for a new brood, in which she is sometimes assisted by the labourers, who are also engaged in enlarging and completing the waxen envelope. Having brought it to a proper form, she deposits in it a quantity of pollen, lays a new batch of eggs, and closes it at the top. The worms are hatched in about four or five days: for a short time they subsist on the pollen already provided, and when that is expended, the working bees, apprised of their wants by a wonderful instinct, make an opening in the cell, furnish them with pollen or honey, and then fill up the orifice. The labourers are

produced in the months of May or June; the males and females in July, August, and September, different species differing a little in point of time.

The cell, in its first dimension, is too small to accommodate the worms in all the stages of their growth: it is consequently burst by the lateral pressure of their bodies, as soon as they become straitened for room, and the rent is immediately repaired by the working bees, so as to become larger in proportion to the quantity of wax added, till the cell, which commonly contains six or seven worms, is increased from the size of a pea to that of a hazel nut. When the worms are full grown, each of them spins a separate cocoon under the waxen covering, where they had till then lived in common. In these new cells, which at first have the shape of a flattened bowl, and afterwards, by an inward movement of the inhabitant, acquire the oval form already described, the insect passes its state of pupa or nymph, and in about fifteen days comes out a perfect bee.

The deserted cells are too valuable to be lost. Their tops having been cut off, horizontally by the emerging bee, a little above the middle, they have obtained a form admirably fitted for future use. They are, therefore, instantly repaired by the working bees, cased with a coat of wax, and generally somewhat enlarged; and thus having become vessels to hold the stores of honey and pollen gathered from time to time, for the use of the whole community, they stand with their mouths contracted, but never entirely shut, to be visited at pleasure by all who feel the impulse of hunger.

It has been said that the males and females are produced at a later season

than the neuters, but it appears that among the early brood of neuter or working bees, there are some scarcely to be distinguished from them by their appearance, which are half fertile, that is, produce only males. These, which our author calls little females, are said to be impregnated by the first males, but when these males are produced, we are not told; nor, indeed, is our ingenious juvenile naturalist, in this particular, quite consistent with himself, in different parts of his memoir. The new males impregnate the young larger females, and, at the approach of winter, they, the working bees, the little females, and the first mother, all perish, leaving only the large young females, who pass the rigorous season in a state of hibernation, to revive in the ensuing spring, and give birth to a new generation.

#### CONCHOLOGY.

##### 14. *Observations on the Hinges of British Bivalve Shells.* By Mr. WM. WOOD, F. L. S.

Most modern writers on shells have followed Linnæus in taking the generic characters of the bivalves from the structure of the hinges, though Da Costa and others have by no means agreed with him in the distribution of all the species. In the *cardia*, *pectines*, *ostrea*, *anomia*, and *mytili*, there is so great a resemblance throughout each genus, that it may always be determined with little difficulty. But in the rest the hinges of the same genus differ materially from each other in the various species. The British conchologist will, therefore, receive with pleasure accurate descriptions and delineations of nearly all the British species.

#### BOTANY.

THE botanical department of natural history has not, in the course of the last year, been cultivated with the same diligence as the animal creation. Excepting the remaining articles of the

Linnean Transactions, we have to present our readers with only two publications, and those on a single genus in the class cryptogamia.

##### ART. XV. *Linnean Transactions.*

##### 2. *The Botanical History of the Genus Eriophorum.* By OLOF SWARTZ, M.D. F.M.L.S.

This is one of the few genera of the

natural family of grasses which, in the Linnean system, belong to the class hexandria. It takes its place imme-



diately after oryza. In general habit it approaches that of melica, and has some resemblance to aira. Some of its species accordingly appear under these generic names, not only in the Supplementum Plantarum, but also in the first part of Thunberg's Prodrromus Floræ Capensis. They are here, for the first time, arranged in their proper place, with a distinct generic character, and a minute description of each species, accompanied by figures of the parts of fructification. They have hitherto been found only about the Cape of Good Hope. The paper concludes with an account of two real species of melica, inhabitants also of the Cape.

2. *Account of a Microscopical Investigation of several Species of Pollen, with Remarks and Questions on the Structure and Use of that Part of Vegetables.* By LUKE HOWARD, Esq.

The pollen of *corylus avellana*, *erica carnea*, and *reseda odorata*, when moistened with water, imbibes it with the avidity of a sponge, but without any further motion than that which the expansion causes. Its particles, when saturated, are as clear as the liquor itself, and are found to be multilocular capsules, having septa in various directions within them, the union of which with the external membrane, appear at the angles in the dry state, and at the depressed lines in the wet.

If a drop of brandy be applied instead of water, the grains as in the former case expand, but, at the same time, are put into a rapid motion, each grain darting from side to side with the vivacity of a swarm of gnats in the air. In a few minutes the grains are mostly dispersed and decomposed, and the spirit exhaling, leaves a sort of extract on the glass, mixed with very minute undissolved particles.

The pollen of *cactus flagelliformis* is of a large size, white, and diaphanous. The contact of spirit brings it to a pearly opacity: the grains imbibe it slowly, and during their expansion revolve on their axis with a pretty regular motion. In the mean time, some minute particles appear to be ejected, and the motion ceasing, the transparency returns, proceeding from the circumference to the centre. The liquor from the tube of the pistil, and a solution of water in sugar, were also found

to produce this evolution in very mature grains from the anther. The pollen of *carex acuta* dilates in spirit, but remains stationary, and ejects numerous minute particles in rapid succession from its surface. Starch, and the saccula of potatoes, exhibited the same phenomenon.

5. *Remarks on the Genera of Pæderota, Wulfenia, and Hemimeris.* By JAMES EDWARD SMITH, M. D. F.R.S. P.L.S.

The plant from which the genus *pæderota* was formed, was first described by Linnæus under the generic name *hemimeris*, which was afterwards changed for *pæderota*, and then back to *hemimeris* again. This occasioned its appearance under both names in the compilations of Murray and others. The *buonarota* of Michel, and the *pæderota* of Scopoli, were at different times admitted by Linnæus into his original genus, though they do not agree with the generic character; the one with the trivial name of *buonarota*, the latter with that of *agena*: and having been again described in the supplement with new names and improved characters, have likewise been inserted twice by Murray and Gmelin. To put an end to this confusion, the learned president has placed the last two with *wulfenia* of Jacquin, which agrees with them in character, and dropping the name *pæderota*, has retained the name given by Jacquin. It is to stand next to *veronica*, in *diandria monogynia*, with the following generic character.

#### Wulfenia.

Corolla tubulosa ringens. Calyx quinquepartitus. Capsula bilocularis quadrivalvis.

It consists of three species, *buonarota*, *agena*, and *carinthiaca*.

The genus *hemimeris* is placed next to *antirrhinum* in *didynamia angiospermia*, with the following character.

#### Hemimeris.

Calyx quinquepartitus, corolla rotata, resupinata, basi gibbosa, hinc fissa. Filamenta glabra. Capsula bilocularis.

It has five species; the *sabulosa*, *diffusa*, *montana*, *urticifolia*, and *linearis*. The original *pæderota* was one of the first two, but it is not certain which. The last two have been figured by Curtis, and are known in our gardens, as species of *celsia*, of which genus they

have neither the habit nor the character.

6. *An Illustration of the Genus Solandria.*  
By RICHARD ANTHONY SALISBURY, Esq.  
F.R.S. & L.S.

The superb *Solandria grandiflora* has been said by Lamarck to be a species of *Datura*. Mr. Salisbury asserts, that though it has the fruit of *datura*, it is totally different from the plants of that genus in all its other characters, and has a right to the honour assigned it in the *Hortus Kewensis*, of constituting a distinct genus, and bearing so illustrious a name. He has given a detailed description of all its parts, drawn up with his usual accuracy and distinctness. The artificial character we shall transcribe.

SOLANDRIA.

"*Torus medioliformis. Calyx* margine tori insertus, tubulosus, persistens. *Corolla* margine tori inserta limbo ventricoso, irregulari, sub aestivatione imbricato; decidua. *Filamenta* 5, ore tubi inserta, versus latus inferius secunda. *Pericarpium* superum, pene totum 4-loculare, succulentum, deciduum. *Semina* receptaculo longe stipitata, centrali, profunde 2-loba, unidique sessilia.

8. *Remarks on some British Species of Salix.*  
By JAMES EDWARD SMITH, F.L.S. & P.L.S.

The genus *Salix* has long been one of the opprobria botanicorum. Even the British species are as yet very imperfectly known. Dr. Smith, with all his advantages, does not profess to be able to give it a perfect elucidation, and would have postponed his present remarks, if it had not been necessary that this obscure genus should assume as regular a form as possible, in the *Flora Britannica*, which, we are happy to learn, is hastening towards a completion. In this paper, he confines himself to the arborescent species, in the first section, which comprehends such as have leaves more or less serrated and nearly smooth. He gives specific characters of twelve species, with references and synonyms. 1. The purpurea, the monandra of Withering, Curtis, and Hoffman. 2. The helix, confounded with the former by Hoffman and others. 3. The fissa of Hoffman. 4. The rubra of Hudson and Withering, a species but little known. 5. The croweana, a non-descript, first found by the excellent botanist from whom it has received its

trivial name. 6. The triandra. 7. The amygdalina, confounded with the triandra, by most botanists. 8. The well-known beautiful Pentandra. 9. The nigricans, mentioned by no author except Linnæus, and erroneously made by him a variety of *phylicifolia*. 10. and 11. The laurina and petiolaris of Dixon. 12. The *phylicifolia*, inserted as a British plant, on the authority of the learned Dr. Stuart, of Luss, on the banks of Loch Lomond.

9. *Description of four new Species of Fucus.*  
By DAWSON TURNER, M.A. F.L.S.

Of Mr. Turner's extensive acquaintance with this perplexed genus, we shall have occasion to speak more at large. At present, we shall only observe, that the descriptions are illustrated by four excellent coloured figures.

10. *Description of Calliocca Ipecacuanha.*  
By FELIX AVELLAR BROTERO, Professor of Botany in the University of Coimbra, F.M.L.S.

As the plant which springs from the root, well known by this medical name, has not been hitherto sufficiently described, the present description and figure, formed from good dried specimens, and confirmed by observations made in Peru on the living plant, will be received with pleasure. It does not admit of abridgment.

13. *Description of Brotera Persica and Mustelia Eupatoria; two new Plants, cultivated in the Botanic Garden of Halle.* By CEST SPRENGEL, M.D. Professor of Botany in the University of Halle.

The first of these, so called from the author of the preceding article, belongs to didynamia gymnospermia: the other named from the author of "*Essai sur la Végétation*," to syngenesia æqualis. Their essential generic characters are the following.

BROTERA.

Labii inferioris lacinia media cucullata, involvens genitalia, eaque cum impetu protrudens.

MUSTELIA.

Anthodium simplex polyphyllum; receptaculum nudum; pappus duplex, paleaceus, et quinquearistatus. Coroliulæ quinquefidæ.

15. *Catalogue of the more rare Plants found in the Neighbourhood of Dover; with occasional Remarks.* By Mr. LEWIS WESTON DILLWYN, F.L.S.

18. *On the Doryanthes; a new Genus of Plants, from New Holland, next a-kin to Agave.* By JOSEPH CORREA DE SERRA, L.L.D. F.R.S. & L.S.

The character of this new genus, so called from *Δορυ* a spear, of which, only one species is known, has been ascertained from specimens brought in spirits, in a high state of preservation, by Governor Hunter, and from a single flower which came to perfection at Kew, from a portion of stem without roots, which had been cut many months before in New Holland. As the description is not very long and singularly elegant, we shall give it entire.

#### "DORYANTHES.

##### FLOS.

"Calyx nullus, nisi spathæ partiales.

"Corollæ monopetala, infundibuliformis, sexpartita; laciniæ sex, oblongo lanceolatae, concavae, dorso carinatae, tres interiores basilatioræ.

"Stamina. Filamenta sex, longitudine fere petalorum, subulata, antherarum bases profunde penetrantia; antheræ erectæ, subcylindricæ, biloculares, post fecundationem extensoriiformes.

"Pistillum. Stylus unicus (ex tribus connatis), trisulcatus, longitudine staminum; stigma trilobum.

##### FRUCTUS.

"Induvie nullæ.

"Pericarpium. Capsula turbinato-ovata, subtrigona, trisulcata, vestigiis petalorum stylisque coronata, trilocularis, trivalvis; substantia duplex: interior lignosa, exterior corticosa, striata, fibrosa.

"Placentatio. Chordulæ pistillares sex, per paria dispositæ, axi dissepimentorum affixæ. Semina chordulis pistillaribus alternatim affixa, ut singula tantum series in unoquoque loco appareat.

"Dehiscencia duplex: per axim dissepimentorum, et per valvarum suturas.

##### "SEMEN LIBERUM.

Forma. Semen planum, reniforme, rugosum. Nucleus lateralis, subtriqueter, dimidiam hujus partem obtinet.

"Integumentum. Duplex; exterius spongiosum, nucleum cartilagineum.

"Perispermum. Amygdalinum, nucleo conforme.

"Embryo monocotyledoneus, minutus. Cotyledon foliaceo-compressa, plana, cuneiformis."

20. *Botanical Characters of four New Holland Plants, of the natural Order of Myrti.* By JAMES EDWARD SMITH, M.D. F.R.S. & P.L.S.

This is a supplement to a paper, published in the third volume. It describes two new species of leptospermum, one of melaleuca, and one of eucalyptus. Our readers, we are persuaded, will thank us, for inserting the observations on the melaleuca.

"The very imperfect connection of the stamina in this plant leads us to remark, how little the distinction between *melaleuca* and *metrosideros*, and consequently even the character of the Linnæan class *Polyadelphia* are founded in nature. Most plants, indeed, of that class, like most species of *melaleuca*, have the filaments so strictly united, for a considerable part of their length, into several (mostly three or five) *phalanges* or bundles, and those bundles fall off so entire, that the character derived from such a circumstance seems no less natural than convenient for the systematic botanist. In the *melaleuca nodosa*, on the contrary, the union of the stamina is continued but a little way from the base, and it is even more slight in the plant now before us, many of the filaments being quite simple and unconnected with their neighbours. The case is the same in the genus *citrus*, of which Linnæus could not but be aware when he established this class, and indeed alludes to the variableness of the character in his *Genera Plantarum* in describing *citrus*. Neither is this character, slight as it is, connected with any peculiarity of habit, by which a *melaleuca* can be known from a *metrosideros*; nor, I believe, would any botanist venture to guess at a *melaleuca*, without seeing the stamina, in which the only peculiarity of the genus resides. What then is to be done, when even this peculiarity seems eluding our grasp? We can only retain the genus as an artificial one, along with many other such, till the science be arrived at a greater degree of perfection; keeping in the mean time, *natural orders* in view, as the grand object of our systematic inquiries, and cherishing every truly *natural genus*, as a fixed point, on which we may found the principles of future discoveries."

22. *Description of a new Species of Viola.* By THOMAS FURLEY FOSTER, Esq. F.L.S.

This species, to which the trivial name of concolor is given, is a native of North America, and appears in the present paper, with the following specific character. *Viola* caulibus erectis, foliis lato-lanceolatis stipulisque lanceolato-linearibus integerrimis: but Mr. Foster is in doubt, whether, with several others,

it ought not to be separated into a distinct genus. He has carefully studied not less than sixty species of *viola*, and gives us reason to hope for a monographia on the subject, at no distant period. The present species, though it has been cultivated in his garden more than fourteen years, has flowered only once. A plain figure is annexed.

23. *Description of the Fruit of Cycas Revoluta.* By JAMES EDWARD SMITH, M.D.  
F.R.S. P.L.S.

This magnificent plant has been introduced into the English collections, about forty years, but has never before produced fruit. Its fortunate possessor, the Honourable and Right Reverend Dr. North, Lord Bishop of Winchester, desirous of rendering the knowledge of so curious a novelty as general as possible, expressed a wish that an account of it might be laid before the Linnean Society. Dr. Smith and Mr. Sowerby accordingly went down to Farnham for that purpose. As the president's description is remarkably perspicuous, without the aid of the splendid coloured figures, one from the pencil of Miss North, the other from that of Mr. Sowerby, we shall insert it at large.

"The stem is about two feet in height, and nine or ten inches in diameter. Thunberg describes the same, as rising in Japan, to the height of six feet or more, with nearly the abovementioned diameter. Its surface is brown, and very scaly, with the remains of old leaf stalks. A simple circle of about forty evergreen pinnate leaves crowns the summit, forming a magnificent bason, whose margin measures ten or twelve feet across, and five or six feet in height, above the level of the bark bed of the stove. On mounting a ladder, we beheld in the bottom of this verdant and shining amphitheatre, a circular cluster, perhaps eighteen inches wide, of above an hundred orange-coloured downy oval fruits, intermingled with innumerable palmate, pale brown, thick and woolly leaves or fronds, each of whose finger-like segments was tipped with a sharp spine. With respect to its earlier state, the bishop has informed me, that on his arrival at Farnham, early in September, the gardener informed his lordship, the *cycas* "had borne a singular appearance during summer." On inspection, the crown of the plant was found occupied by the abovementioned woolly leaves, then beautifully lacinated, though not spinous, and having the appearance of a *strobilus* or cone, hollow like a bird's nest, and filled with a quantity of green drupæ,

about the size of half-grown apricots, and intermixed with the same kind of downy greyish leaves that surrounded them. The changes which had taken place from that time to the period of my arrival, were, that the whole cluster of fronds and fruit had become rather convex than concave, the fronds were browner, spines had grown at the tip of each of their lengthened segments, and the drupæ were become nearly as large as a moderate sized apricot, and further resembled that fruit in their rich orange hue and downy surface.

"On separating some of these woolly leaves they were found to be true fronds. Each was from six to eight inches long, fleshy, entirely clothed with pale brown woolly down; their lower part a flattish stalk; their middle bearing on each margin a row of three or four sessile drupæ; their extremity dilated into a pinnatifid, or rather palmate, many-fingered leaf, whose lobes were generally curved inwards, and tipped with a spine, as before mentioned. When wounded, these fronds distilled a great quantity of thick, clear, insipid mucilage, which soon hardened into a substance resembling tragacanth, in which probably, resides the nutritive quality for which this palm is so celebrated in the *Flora Japonica*. We are then told, that a very small morsel of the pith of its stem is sufficient to sustain life a long time, and on that account, the plant is jealously preserved for the use of the Japanese army. The drupæ are also said to be used as food. We roasted some, and found in their kernels the flavour of chestnuts, with less sweetness and a more watery consistence. Each drupa is elliptical or somewhat obovate, a little compressed, tipped with a minute rigid point formed of the permanent stigma, which is umbilicated at its summit. The outer coat is coriaceous, bright orange-red, clothed with woolly down, which easily rubs off. This coat is not eatable. Nut solitary, elliptical, even, hard, whitish, tipped with a point connected with the stigma, and internally lined with a loose brown membranous integument, closely enfolding the kernel, which is also elliptical, white, firm, uniform, completely occupying the shell, and consisting entirely of *albumen*. In its upper part, immediately under the stigma, we discovered a small round cavity, where the embryo should have been, but no traces of it were to be found, for want of impregnation by the male pollen, which is produced on a separate tree. Probably the flavour of the nuts might have been improved had they been impregnated.

"Enough has been said to show the near affinity of this genus to *zamia* (see Gærner, *tab. 8.*) from which it is chiefly, and indeed sufficiently, distinguished by its drupæ growing on a true frond, contrasted with the amentaceous fruit of *zamia*. The two genera, perhaps, constitute an intermediate order

between *palmæ* and *filices*, but are surely most akin to the former."

24. *Species of Erica*. By RICHARD ANTHONY SALISBURY, Esq. F.R.S. & L.S.

The genus *erica*, deservedly so great a favourite alike with the systematic botanist and the simple amateur, on account of its elegance and beauty, has for a considerable time perplexed and nearly confounded the most perspicacious student, by the increasing number of its species. In the writings of the older botanists, only eleven species are to be found, and those all European. Herman and Oldenland, on their return from the Cape of Good Hope, about the close of the seventeenth century, more than doubled the number. Herman's catalogue contains twenty-six species, but they are so vaguely described, that many of them cannot now be ascertained. Linnæus, in the edition of his *Species Plantarum*, published 1753, enumerated twenty species; but as two of them include varieties, which have since been deemed species, they may be reckoned twenty-two. The edition of 1764, contained fifteen more. New accessions were made before the publication of the two mantissæ, so that the academical dissertation of 1770, exhibited fifty-eight species in a synoptic table. In the supplement of the younger Linnæus, thirteen new ones were added, all from the Cape. In the "*Dissertatio Botanica*," of Professor Thunberg, published in 1785, the catalogue amounted to ninety-one. In the present paper, it has swelled to two hundred and fifty legitimate species exclusive of the *vulgaris*, a distinct genus called, by Mr. Salisbury, *calluna*; and four others, approaching in habit to the *scoparia*, united in a genus to which, on account of the magnitude of their stigma, he has given the name of *salaxis*.

The 91 species of Thunberg are distributed by him into two grand families, *muticæ* and *aristatæ*, indicating the presence or absence of appendages to the anthers. Their subdivisions are founded on the relative situation of their leaves, whether alternate, opposite, or verticillate; and the last of these are distinguished again by the number of leaves in a verticill; characters, of which Linnæus had availed himself, though not with such logical precision.

Mr. Salisbury has discarded these supposed discriminating marks, having found that the number of leaves often varies in the same plant, and if admitted would form families of unwieldy size; that a regard to the appendages to the stamens, would not only widely separate kindred species, but even incontestible varieties of the same species; and that no natural distribution can ever be formed, either from the bractææ, the inflorescence, the filaments, or the fruit. He has, therefore, arranged them according to what appear to him their natural affinities, produced by the structure of the coroll and anthers, marking the degree of affinity by a comma, semicolon, and sometimes, though rarely, by a colon; and when the succeeding species has no other connection than the generic character, he closes the family with a period.

Our able investigator has here given us a specimen of that truly natural order, which he has long laboured, with such eminent diligence and success, on many families of plants besides the present. But for the sake of those who are less skilled in the science, we cannot but wish that he had also constructed an artificial synoptic table, something similar to that of Thunberg, even though he had placed varieties at a distance from their principals. The appendages to the anthers, and the disposition, &c. of the leaves will unavoidably engage the first attention of the student.

When it is known, that Mr. Salisbury has cultivated more than half the species, that he has been for many years in the constant habit of accurately describing all the plants which flower in his possession, and that of those which he has not seen in a state of growth, he has obtained well preserved specimens, with the exception of a single species, it will naturally be expected, that the specific characters which follow the synoptic table of natural affinities, will be exact and discriminative: and the most sanguine expectations will not be disappointed. We shall select the articles, *caduceifera* and *gorteriafolia*.

"*Caduceifera*. E. foliorum laminis cuneatis ovatisve: corollâ 2-3 lineari: filamentis juxta medium calcaratis.

"E. pulchella. Andr. Er. n. 51. cum Ic. mediocri. E. articularis. Thunt. Diss. n. 58. E. pulchella. Hoatt. Nat. Hist. v. 4. p. 504. t. 23. f. 1



"Sponte nascentem in *Hottentots Holland*, legit. F. Masson.

"Hæc species, primum, veram insertionem calcarium *Ericarum* mihi docuit, cujus stamina Mercurii fabulosum caduceum ipeide simulant: nempe in omnibus non ab antheris sed e filamentis ortum suum ducunt.

"*E. gorteriæfolia* corollâ 8—11 lineari, viscidâ; tubo ovato-pyramidalî; limbo acuto: filamentis muticis: antheris lanatis.

"Variat  $\alpha$ : Corolla 8—9 linearis.

"In hac tubus pene totus albus.

" $\beta$ . Corolla 10—11 linearis.

"*E. retorta*. *Curt. Bot. Mag.* n. 362. cum  *Ic.*  
*E. retorta*. *Andr. Er.* n. 15. cum  *Ic.* *E. retorta*. *Thunb. Diss.* n. 91. *E. retorta*. *Linn.*

*Suppl.* p. 220. *E. retorta*. *Montin. in Act. Holm.* 1774. p. 297. t. 7.

Herba simpliciter recurva: diversissimam directionem exprimit nomen auctorum, quam

in Ordine Naturali *Graminum* aliquando videas."

We have fixed upon these with a view to illustrate the principles, by which the author is guided, in the formation of trivial names, in which he has made so many changes, that he will probably, in the estimation of many, be subject to the charge of rash innovation. It is with him, an established maxim, that the trivial name should always, if possible, point out some obvious particular which exclusively belongs to the species. And, however it may be questioned, whether it be legal or even expedient, to eject names, which, by long possession, have acquired a kind of prescriptive right, there can be no doubt of its propriety and excellence in the admission of new ones.

**ART. XVI.** *Nereis Britannica; containing all the Species of Fuci, Natives of the British Coast, with a Description in English and Latin, and Plates coloured from Nature.* By JOHN STACKHOUSE, Esq. F.L.S.

THE comprehensive mind of Linnæus grasped the three kingdoms of nature, and arranged the numerous species of each, as far as they were then known, in a regular though artificial system. But he could not bestow upon all an equal degree of attention. Even some parts of the vegetable, his favourite kingdom, were very imperfectly investigated, and were consequently left by him in a state of disorder. The plants of which the fructification is conspicuous, and which illustrate the sexual system, the distinguishing feature of his work, and the grand source of his fame, he was naturally led to study with peculiar solicitude. The cryptogamia, not favouring the chief object of his pursuit, obtained from him a slighter notice. He divided them into four orders, three of which are tolerably natural, and include, for the most part, only such plants as resemble each other in the general mode of their fructification and other particulars. But that to which he has given the title of *Algæ*, besides the sea weeds, the only plants suggested by the name, contains also large tribes of terrestrial plants, which have scarcely a common character with the other. The fructification of both is very little understood. The study of the real *algæ*, or sea weeds, in particular, labours under peculiar difficulties, from the place of

their growth, and the season when many of them attain to maturity. Linnæus divided them into three genera, fuci, ulvæ, and confervæ; but their distinguishing generic characters are obscure, and their respective limits indeterminate.

Mr. Stackhouse, residing near the sea-shore, has the most favourable opportunities of investigating this difficult tribe, and when he commenced his present work, had it in contemplation to extend his researches to the whole. But he was soon induced to contract his plan, and to promise descriptions and figures of only the British fuci. The result of his observations has been delivered to the public in three fasciculi, or numbers, written at different times and after considerable intervals. His acquaintance with the subject has accordingly encreased as he proceeded, and has given him reason to alter his sentiments on some material points between the appearance of the first and the last.

In the first number, published in 1795, he partly acquiesced in the Linnæan generic character, only observing that it applies scarcely to ten species out of seventy, and hinting that the remainder, when more diligently studied and better understood, must be thrown into three or four new genera.

Before the publication of his second

number, which is dated 1797, he was convinced by decisive observations, on the *vesiculosus*, *serratus*, &c. that those plants have not the monœcious character attributed to them in the Linnæan definition; that the impregnation is effected internally and confined to the terminating fruit; and that the pencils of fibres, in the mouths of the cavities in the fronds of some species, and in the inside of the bladders of others, have no reference to the fructification. He had now also derived much instruction from the masterly dissertation on the subject, by Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward, inserted in the third volume of the Linnæan Transactions, and from the third edition of Dr. Withering's Botanical Arrangement. He had, moreover, digested his own ideas, so as to dispose the greatest part of these heterogeneous plants in somewhat of a regular form, and to assign them distinguishing characters. He accordingly divided them into six genera, which he called *fucus*, *ceramium*, *chondrus*, *sphærococcus*, *chorda*, and *codium*.

In the third number, published in the course of the last year, this distribution is corrected from the writings of Roth, and from his own further discoveries.

As far as we are able to understand him, his present proposed arrangement stands nearly thus:

#### I. FUCUS.

*Vesiculæ seriatim in substantia frondis nidulantes, potis mucifluis præditæ.*

It contains *serratus*, *vesiculosus*, *spiralis*, *ceranoides* Linnæi, and *canaliculatus*.

#### II.

A genus, to which he has not given a name, of similar fructification with the former, but different habit of frond, and thus characterized.

*Semina in muco retiformi in orbem congesta, fronde lævi complanatâ, ramosa.*

It contains *nodosus*, *siliquosus*, *loreus*, &c.

#### III. PALMARIA.

*Semina minutissima, orbicularia in maculis irregularibus, vel in lineis incute, innata; fronde planâ utrinque lævissimâ; muco intermedio pellucido, membranâ retiformi mucum percurrente.*

It contains *saccharinum*, *digitatum*, *palmatum*, *pinnatifidum*, *osmunda*, &c.

#### IV. CHONDRUS.

*Pericarpium ovatum immersum utrinque prominens, seminulis intus in muco pellucido.*

It consists of *crispus*, with its varieties, excluding the *mammulose* and *eclinatus*.

#### V. SPHÆROCOCCUS.

*Granula seminifera suborbicularia adnata vel immersa, sesilia vel pedunculata.*

It contains *sanguineus*, *ovalis*, *alatus*, *ciliaris*, *coccineus*, *plumosus*, &c.

#### VI. CERAMIMUM.

*Filamenta membranaceo-cartilaginea subgeniculata, capsulis dispersis in latera exteriora ramulorum.*

It contains *pinastroides*, *diffusus*, *lycopodium*.

#### VII. ALSO ANONYMOUS.

*Tubercula externa, vel interna, lateralialia vel amplexicaulia, seminibus reniformibus vel curvi-linearibus.*

It contains *fastigiatus*, *radiatus*, &c.

#### VIII. CHORDA.

*Fructificatio mucosa in cavitate frondis cylindricæ, seminulis glomeratis, nudis, cuti adherentibus.*

It contains *filum*, *thrix*, &c.

#### IX. CODIUM.

*Fructificatio in tubulis implicatis: frons cylindrico-compressa; statu madidospongiformis; sicco, tomentosa.*

It consists of only the *tomentosum*.

This plant is placed by Olivi, in his *Zoologia Adriatica*, with the *alcyonium bursa* Linnæi, which, he says, has not the least portion of animal matter, is not endowed with spontaneous motion, and emits no offensive smell on being destroyed. Olivi call the genus *Lamarkia*, and says that its structure is extremely simple, composed only of an assemblage of pellucid, hollow vessels, full of a transparent watry fluid, and furnished, moreover, with other very minute capillary filaments, destined to absorb water, and to expel the seeds, which are easily to be distinguished.

We have endeavoured to draw out this table from the scattered observations in the third number, that our readers may have the means of perceiving

at one view how far the knowledge of this intricate tribe is advanced by the present publication. Mr. Stackhouse by no means offers it as a perfect analysis, but expresses a hope that from the increasing light thrown upon the subject, we shall soon be enabled to establish a more permanent table of genera and species.

In the three numbers sixty-nine species, with several varieties, are accurately described in Latin and English, and admirably figured in seventeen folio coloured plates, with magnified representations of the parts of fructification. The description, as well as the introductory prefaces to the first two numbers, are given in two languages, obviously to accommodate two sorts of readers, those of our own country who are acquainted only with their own tongue, and foreigners who are ignorant of it. When this end is properly answered, it may justify the additional expence of two texts; but in the present instance, our author has produced the intended advantage in a very imperfect manner. One of the texts is so far from being a translation of the other, that each of them contains matter peculiar to itself; so that a knowledge of both languages is absolutely necessary to obtain full pos-

session of all the information intended to be given; nor can this be effected without a tedious and perplexing reference backward and forward, from one to the other. With the exception of this unaccountable fault, the work is entitled to our warmest commendation, whether we consider the accuracy and elegance of the descriptions, and the new lights thrown upon the subject, or the modesty and ingenuous love of truth, the candid acknowledgment of former errors, and the earnest desire of further information, which are every where conspicuous in it.

Besides the sixty-nine species figured and described at large, twenty-three others, which have been recently delineated in other publications, are thrown into an appendix, with Latin specific characters, and brief observations in English. But for the accommodation of those who do not possess those publications, or who may wish to have delineated specimens of the whole genus in one work, he has left with the lady who coloured the plates, drawings of all the species enumerated in the appendix, and sets to bind up with the rest, will be delivered on application to the publisher.

ART. XVII. *A Synopsis of the British Fuci.* By DAWSON TURNER, M.A. Member of the Imperial Academy, *Naturæ Curiosorum*, of the Linnean Society of London, and of the Physical Society at Gottingen. 2 vols. 8vo.

AFTER the splendid work of Mr. Stackhouse, and the elaborate observations of Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward on the British fuci, it may be thought that another treatise on the subject would not be immediately wanted. Mr. Dawson, well aware how much has been done by his predecessors, at first intended little more than a separate republication of Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward's paper, in a more convenient portable form. In that state it would have been received with pleasure by every botanist, and would have been taken with him as an indispensable vade-mecum in all his excursions to the sea shore. But our excellent naturalist enjoys too favourable opportunities for observation, and is too good an observer, not to be able to make many valuable additions to the communications of those enlightened writers. He has, therefore, written his synopsis entirely anew, adhering, how-

ever, for the most part to the plan laid down by Dr. Goodenough and Mr. Woodward, and modestly assigning his reasons, whenever he has been compelled to differ from them. Such, indeed, are the difficulties attending the study of the marine plants, and comparatively so few are the botanists who reside near enough to the coast to inspect them at all seasons, that every work which gives any new information concerning them, must be a welcome acquisition to the public. And we observe with pleasure, that the present is only a prelude to a greater and more important work, which is to extend to all the fuci hitherto known; but we are sorry to add, that its appearance must of necessity be deferred to a considerably distant period. For, as Mr. Dawson observes,

"The genus *fucus*, in its present state, at different points, borders upon and touches the surrounding genera of lichens, ulvæ, confervæ, and byssi, in such a manner, that, till

a more appropriate distinction is found, experience only will enable us to know the individuals that compose it. The character assigned to it in the Syst. Nat. depends altogether upon the observations of Reaumur, and has already been so often refuted, that it cannot be necessary here again to repeat the arguments upon the subject, all which are to be found in Gmelin's "*Historia Fucorum*," and indeed in almost every other subsequent work upon the subject. Hence succeeding naturalists have been at considerable pains to alter it; and Mr. Stackhouse has gone still farther by sub-dividing the plants that compose it into six new genera: but, though I fully agree with that gentleman as to the necessity of such a measure, I cannot altogether acquiesce in the arrangement he has made, nor have I allowed myself at present to think of any other, because, when a thing of this nature is done, it is desirable that it should be done in a manner to preclude the necessity of future alteration, which can hardly be expected from a distribution framed solely upon the British species, without attending to those which are the natives of distant seas, and are so dissimilar in their appearances. On this subject, I will offer the single hint, that the submersed algæ, with the addition perhaps of the Byssi and tremellæ, ought to form a distinct order of the class cryptogamia; and that in a new arrangement, the first step must be to throw them into a general mass, paying no respect to the genera as they now exist, all of which comprise plants of the most anomalous nature, many conservæ having the fruit of fuci, some fuci that of ulvæ, and vice versa. I might be tempted here, to enter, in some measure, upon a slight digression, respecting the remaining aquatic genera, were not the conservæ already in the hands of Professor Mertens and Mr. Dillwyn, who will soon favour the world with their observations on the subject: and did I not wish to reserve what I have to say upon the ulvæ, till it is in my power to publish an history of them; materials for which I have been some time engaged in collecting."

Nor indeed can it be expected that the flora marina of a country, with an extensive coast like that of Great Britain, can be soon completed, partly owing to the rapid growth and decay of many marine plants, and partly to the great diversity of species produced in different places. These circumstances are stated with such precision and brevity by our author, that we shall extract the passages for the gratification of our readers.

"One of the most remarkable circumstances attending the physiology of the fuci, is the extreme rapidity of their growth and decay; a singular instance of which I had an opportunity of observing when, in July 1798,

I visited the rocks at Cromer, and found them almost exclusively covered with ulva filiformis of Hudson, of which, in the following September, not a trace remained; but this, if we consider the gelatinous substance of the plant, is not perhaps wonderful. Ulva plumosa and fistulosa, together with F. filum, dasyphyllus, and conservoides, had then occupied its place, some whereof being at that time new to me, I returned about two months afterwards to procure a fresh supply, when, of them all, nothing but a few broken pieces of the last remained to prove their ever having existed; and they had been succeeded by F. vesiculosus and ulva umbilicalis. Mr. Dillwyn, during his residence at Dover, observed several instances of the same nature; and the fresh-water conservæ partake of this fugitive quality; for, often, when I have known ditches filled with particular species, I have returned after a short interval, and found not even a vestige of them left.

"Another remarkable circumstance attending the fuci, for which it is not easy to account on philosophical principles, is the great diversity of species produced by different places, even though but little removed from each other. Among phænogamous plants we know that malvæ, urticæ, graminæ, the more common grasses, &c. are predominant in almost every part of our island; but the same is far from being the case in the submersed algæ, for of those which are abundant at Yarmouth, some have never been found at Scarborough, others never at Dover; and these shores in return produce a different tribe, whereof many have not at present been discovered in Norfolk. To carry this observation a little further, I may add, that the same holds good in the isle of Wight, Weymouth, and Cornwall; and even those individuals that are common to several parts of our island, appear in distant places under such various forms, that the collecting them is almost equally interesting as if they were distinct species. Some not only flourish most on, but seem peculiar to, chalk; some to sand-stone; some to hard, siliceous rocks: a remarkable instance whereof is afforded by Sherringham, a small village on the Norfolk coast, which though not more than four miles distant from Cromer, yet from its soil being quite different, produces different fuci. This also seems to shew that the root of these plants is not without its use as an organ of nutrition. The size and texture of some species appear to be considerably influenced by the latitude in which they grow; thus plumosus is a stiff, cartilaginous plant in Scotland, but tender and flaccid as a conservæ at Dover; pinnatifidus, on the other hand, is small in Norfolk, but reaches a comparatively gigantic stature in the Mediterranean; and numberless other instances of the same nature might easily be adduced. They are also affected by their situation near fresh water, and, at the mouths of great rivers, often







attain to an unusual size. The substance of the different species varies from coriaceous to membranous, and gelatinous; their colours also are very different: both which circumstances I have mentioned under the several individuals, and have likewise, as far as I was able, noticed the changes produced in their hues from exposure to the sun, decay, or other circumstances."

As a specimen of the work itself we shall select the concluding article, and we have given it the preference partly on account of its shortness, but chiefly because it gives, with a description of the plant, a pleasing picture of the author's mind.

"FUCUS VIRIDIS.

"*F. fronde supra-decomposito-pinnatâ; ramis ramulisque omnibus oppositis capillaceis.*—*Fl. Dan. t. 886.*

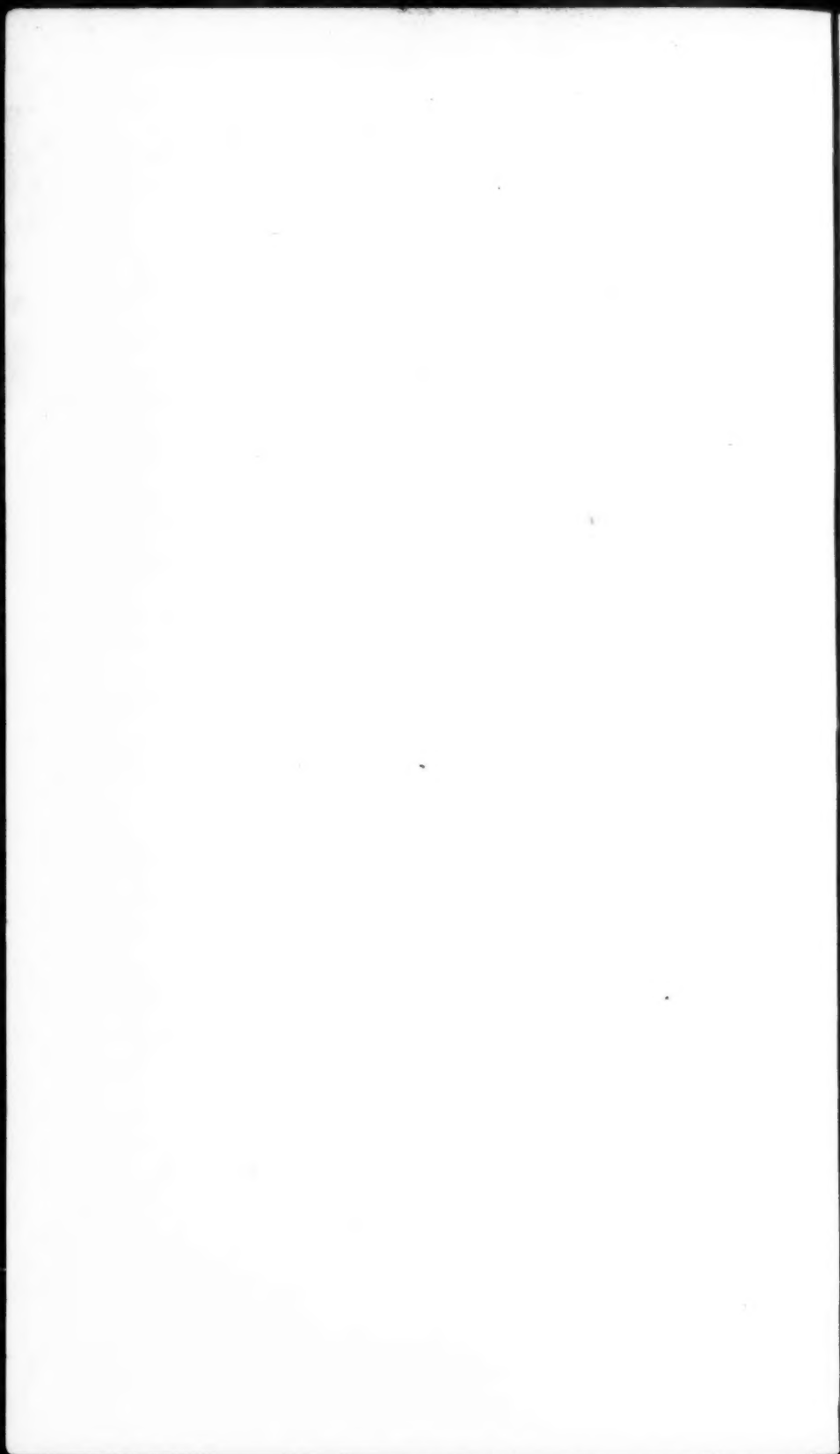
"At Scarborough, Sir Thomas Frankland; among the rejectamenta of the sea at Yarmouth.

"Annual.

"Root, a small, callous, roundish knob; frond in general solitary, quite cylindrical, rising with an undivided stem, scarcely larger than packthread at the base, and thence gradually tapering to the summit, two feet or more long, pinnated throughout its whole length with long branches, disposed at the distance of about half an inch from each other, always opposite, capillary, and again pinnated with others still smaller, which in their turns produce a third, and sometimes a fourth, or fifth series, wherein all are constantly opposed. The fructification is hitherto unknown. The substance is cartilaginous: the colour, when fresh, a beautiful orange, but so fugitive, that, after a few minutes exposure to the air, it becomes a pale, verdigris green, and, if kept some time in fresh-water, turns to a light reddish brown.

"This fucus, which from the singular property it possesses of repeatedly changing its colour, might with much propriety be called the chameleon of the marine algae, is by that curious circumstance sufficiently distinguished from all its congeners; and, considered

as to its nature, has not so close affinity with any one of the British list as with *F. ligulatus*, from which, in its exterior formation, it is so widely different. Its cylindrical stem, pinnated with capillary, opposite branches, themselves clothed in the same manner with other, and this series repeatedly continued, will at once distinguish it from every other of the same division, even in a dried state, when its variation of tints necessarily ceases to be visible. The name of *viridis* is extremely objectionable, as giving a false idea, and consequently apt to mislead; but I have nevertheless retained it, since it was the one by which it was called in the *Flora Danica*, where this rare species was, for the first time, described and figured. It was gathered above ten years ago among the rejectamenta of the sea upon the Yarmouth beach, and in some summers is tolerably plentiful there during the months of July and August, in others it never makes its appearance. Sir Thomas Frankland has also found it in a growing state at Scarborough, but it must at present be reckoned among the most rare of the British catalogue. Analogy will not assist us in forming any probable conjecture upon the mode of its fructification, as it does not bear a sufficiently strong resemblance to any yet discovered in fruit. Much therefore remains to be observed, even among those phenomena attending these vegetables that may be considered most open to our inspection, and the conclusion of this work must be in the same strain as the beginning, that I am fully conscious of its numerous imperfections, and propose it only as an humble essay, resting the sole claim that it possesses to merit upon its faithfully recording actual facts and observations. I would fain hope that the attempt, however insignificant, may be the means of stimulating others to future inquiry; and I can assure the philosophical naturalist, that, while the more stupendous works of the Divine hand arrest the attention of even the most careless observer, and, in a language equally understood by all ages and all nations, declare the glory of God, these humble vegetables will, by the inquisitive mind, be found by no means wanting in affording additional proofs both of the wisdom and beneficence of the great Creator."



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